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REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

FOR

THE YEAR 1895-96.

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VOLUME 1.

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THE UNITED STATES

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Created as a Department March 2, 1867.
Made an Office of the Interior Department July 1, 1869.

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March 16, 1870, to August 5, 1886.

NATHANIEL H. R. DAWSON, L. H. D.,
August 6, 1886, to September 3, 1889.

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, Ph. D., LL. D.,
September 12, 1889, to date.

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1895-96
Vol-I

CONTENTS OF VOLUME 1.

THE COMMISSIONER'S INTRODUCTION.

	Page.
Total enrollment in schools and colleges	IX
The common schools of the United States	IX
Average amount of schooling per inhabitant	XIV
Graphic exhibit of school statistics	XIV
City school systems	XIX
City school supervision	XXII
Constitution and powers of city school boards	XXVI
Secondary schools	XXVI
Normal schools	XXXI
Higher education	XXXI
English education bill	XXXV
Education in Great Britain	XXXVI
Public, society, and school libraries	XXXIX
Commercial education in Europe	XLIII
Education in Scandinavia	XLIII
Education of the colored race	XLIV

STATE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

Total population, school population, adult male population	LVII
Relation of school population to total population and to the adult male population; proportion of white school population of foreign birth; percentage of foreign born in total population.	LVIII
School ages of the several States; State school censuses	LIX
Number of pupils enrolled in the common schools at various periods, and relation of enrollment to school population	LX
School enrollment of 1895-96, classified by sex	LXI
Per cent of school population enrolled in the public schools for a period of years	LXII
Average daily attendance at various periods and its relation to enrollment	LXIII
Average length of school term at various periods; aggregate number of days' schooling given to all pupils	LXIV
Length of school term; average number of days' schooling given each child	LXVI
Number and sex of teachers; proportion of male teachers	LXVI
Average monthly salaries of teachers	LXVIII
Private schools	LXIX
Receipts of school moneys	LXX
School revenue	LXXI
Progress of school expenditure	LXXII
School expenditure classified	LXXIII
Expenditure per pupil	LXXIV
Expenditure per capita of population	LXXV

PART I.

CHAPTER I.—LAWS RELATING TO CITY SCHOOL BOARDS.

The typical city school system	3
Members of school boards	4
Some notable systems	6
Control of revenues	9
The superintendent	10
Selection of teachers	11

27380

Page.
Details of the system in New York City 12
Chicago, Ill 21
Philadelphia, Pa 23
Brooklyn, N. Y 26
St. Louis, Mo 27
Boston, Mass 29
Baltimore, Md 30
City and county of San Francisco, Cal 33
Cincinnati, Ohio 35
Cleveland, Ohio 37
Buffalo, N. Y 38
New Orleans, La 39
Pittsburg, Pa 41
District of Columbia (Washington City) 45
Detroit, Mich 54
Milwaukee, Wis 57
Minneapolis, Minn 59
St. Paul, Minn 60
Denver, Colo 62
Indianapolis, Ind 63
Charleston, S. C 65
Hartford, Conn 66
The city of Savannah and county of Chatham 72
Summary of laws relating to the school boards of certain cities 74

CHAPTER II.—THE ENGLISH EDUCATION BILL OF 1896.

Purpose of the bill 79
Historical importance 80
Speech of Sir John Gorst on presenting the bill 87
Mr. Asquith's speech in opposition 97
Mr. Chamberlain's opinion 106
Mr. Harcourt on the bill 108
Review of the bill by Sir Lyulph Stanley 112

CHAPTER III.—EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Educational statistics 123
Outline of the English educational system 125
Remarks of Sir John Gorst on the educational condition 129
Mr. Yoxall on the position of rural schools 132

CHAPTER IV.—EDUCATION IN CENTRAL EUROPE.

Articles on education in central Europe published in previous reports 137
Public industrial education in Berlin 138
Salaries of teachers in the people's schools in Germany 147
Average salaries in German cities in 1889 152
Salaries of teachers in the people's schools of Austria 156
Reform schools in the Grand Dutchy of Baden, Germany 158
Statistics of German, Austrian, and Swiss universities, polytechnica, agricultural, veterinary, forestry, and mining academies 165
Foreigners in universities and other higher institutions of learning in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland 180

CHAPTER V.—MUSIC IN GERMAN SCHOOLS.

What part should music have in education 187
History of singing in German schools 190
Present state of method in Germany 197
Selection and arrangement of ma ter 199
Details of the American method of teaching singing 201
Details of the German method of teaching singing 204
The value of folksongs (volkslieder) 211
List of poets of German folksongs 212
List of composers of German folksongs 213
Bibliography of German books 215

CHAPTER VI.—THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL IN NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, AND PENNSYLVANIA DURING THE FIRST HALF CENTURY OF THE REPUBLIC.—By Dr. A. D. Mayo.

Page.
New York 219
Dr Eliphalet Nott 231
Emma Willard 240
New Jersey 247
Pennsylvania 255

CHAPTER VII.—THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL IN THE SOUTHERN STATES DURING THE FIRST HALF CENTURY OF THE REPUBLIC, 1790–1840.—By Dr. A. D. Mayo.

The inauguration and direction of popular education 267
The progress of education in Virginia 269
Maryland 274
Delaware 278
North Carolina 281
South Carolina 288
Georgia 295
Florida 299
Alabama 300
Mississippi 302
Louisiana 307
Tennessee 312
Kentucky 316
Arkansas and Texas 325
Iowa 328
Missouri 329
The District of Columbia 331

CHAPTER VIII.—PUBLIC, SOCIETY, AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

References to preceding publications on libraries 339
Number of libraries and of volumes 341
Volumes and pamphlets added and books issued 342
Sources of support and classification 343
Income from various sources 346
Distribution of libraries and of volumes 348
Chart showing relative number of volumes to each 100 of population in 1896 350
Summary of statistics of libraries in 1875 of 300 volumes and over 351
Summary of statistics of libraries in 1885 of 300 volumes and over 352
Libraries entirely free to the public and having 3,000 volumes and over 355
List of public, society, and school libraries in the United States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896 370

CHAPTER IX.—LIBRARY LEGISLATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

Legislation for the incorporation of library associations, societies, etc 523
District and township libraries 524
Free public libraries supported by the State 525
Recent State library laws 526
Résumé of library legislation 528
State library laws:
Arizona 532
California 533
Colorado 536
Connecticut 538
District of Columbia—Florida 539
Idaho—Illinois 540
Indiana 541
Iowa 545
Louisiana 546
Maine 548
Maryland 549
Massachusetts 549
Michigan 566
Minnesota—Missouri—Nebraska 568
New Hampshire 571

State library laws—Continued. Page.
New Jersey 572
New York 572
North Carolina 576
North Dakota 584
Ohio 585
Pennsylvania 587
Rhode Island 588
Utah 590
Vermont 592
Virginia 595
Wisconsin 596
Wyoming 597

CHAPTER X.—COMPARATIVE STUDY OF POPULAR EDUCATION AMONG CIVILIZED NATIONS: ADMINISTRATION OF POPULAR EDUCATION.

Popular instruction during the nineteenth century 601
Mutual relations of the school, religion, and the church 604
Relations of primary instruction and politics 608

CHAPTER XI.—EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

Topical outline 611
The system in general 612
State inspection of primary schools 614
Communal obligations 615
Status of primary schools as regards enrollment 615
The teaching service 617
School savings banks and funds in aid of poor children 618
Department of secondary instruction 619
The lycée ideal and attempted modification 619
Department of superior instruction 620
Requirements for admission to the French faculties 629
Translation by the author from his "Voyage in Europe in 1895" 635

CHAPTER XII.—EDUCATION IN MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA.—By F. F. Hilder.

Historical notes 641
Provisions of the law of 1891 644
National college of engineers and mining 646
Medical college 647
National medical institute 647
National college of agriculture and veterinary surgery 648
Commercial college 649
National school of fine arts 650
National conservatory of music 651
National law school 652
National military college 652
Normal schools 655
National schools of arts and trades 656
Beneficent, industrial, and correctional schools 657
Guatemala 662
Salvador 664
Honduras 665
Nicaragua 666
Costa Rica 666
British Honduras 667

CHAPTER XIII.—THE FIFTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.—By C. D. Randall.

Place of meeting 669
Opening addresses 670
Programme of questions reported and discussed 676
Who are recidivists 679
Transportation of criminals 680
Indemnity for the injured party 685
Compensation for prison labor 687

Page.
Custody of prisoners' earnings 688
Prisons in the United States 688
Problems relating to dependent and delinquent children 690
Conclusions of the congress 695

CHAPTER XIV.—THE LETTERS OF RABBI AKIBAH, OR THE JEWISH PRIMER AS IT WAS USED IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS TWO THOUSAND YEARS AGO.—By Naphtali Herz Imber.

Preface by the Commissioner of Education 701
History and nature of the primer 701
The translation 702

CHAPTER XV.—COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE, PARTICULARLY IN AUSTRIA, FRANCE, AND GERMANY.

General observations on commercial education 721
Higher commercial instruction in Austria 725
The Commercial Academy in Vienna 726
Academic intermediate school of commerce 729
Synopsis of curriculum in the one and three year courses in the Vienna Commercial Academy 734
Commercial Academy of Prague 748
Higher commercial instruction in France 761
School of Higher Commercial Studies in Paris 776
Official programme of the courses of the School of Higher Commercial Studies and of the preparatory school connected with the same 787
Notes on the commercial schools of France 809
Higher commercial instruction in Germany 829
The Public Commercial Institute at Leipsic 829

CHAPTER XVI.—EARLY EDUCATIONAL LIFE IN MIDDLE GEORGIA.

Vacation time 839
Academies 858
A manual labor school 866
The university 874

CHAPTER XVII.—HORACE MANN.

Address on Horaca Mann before the National Educational Association at Buffalo, N. Y., July 7, 1896, by William T. Harris, Commissioner of Education 887
Bibliography of Horace Mann, by B. Pickman Mann 897

CHAPTER XVIII.—CORRELATION OF STUDIES.

Isolation and unification as bases of courses of study, by Emerson E. White 929
The correlation of elementary studies, by George H. Howison 934

CHAPTER XIX.—EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY.

List of State superintendents of education 939
City superintendents 939
College presidents 948
Principals of normal schools 957

REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., October 1, 1896.

SIR: I have the honor to submit herewith the annual report of this office for the year ending June 30, 1896.

TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

There were enrolled in the schools and colleges, both public and private, during the school year 1895–96, 15,997,197 pupils, being an increase of 308,575 over the preceding year. On pages XII and XIII the detailed classification is given, showing the numbers in elementary, secondary, and higher education, the number in public institutions being 14,465,371 and in private institutions 1,531,826.

Various special schools and institutions, including business colleges, trade schools, conservatories of music, schools of art, of oratory and elocution, schools for defective classes, reform schools, Indian schools, evening schools, and other schools of a miscellaneous character, enrolling in the aggregate 418,000 pupils, should be added to obtain the complete enrollment in schools of all kinds.[1] This gives 16,415,197 as the grand total.

THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

The term "common schools" is used in this office to include public schools of elementary (first eight years of course of study) and secondary (ninth to twelfth years of course of study) grades, no institutions of higher education being included even though supported by public taxes.

The following table gives a condensed summary of the common-school statistics compiled from the data furnished this office by the State superintendents. The details of this table are given on pages LV to LXXV. The increase in pupils over last year is seen to be 177,326.

[1]The enrollment in some of these classes of institutions is quite large, as for example—

Evening schools	202,773
Business colleges	80,852
Indian schools	23,572
Defective classes	21,930

[Foot note continued on page X.]

In the succeeding table (pp. XII–XIII) the number in private schools and the totals of higher education have been added to the number in the common schools to show the instruction by grades for the whole country and for each of the five census divisions.

Common-school statistics of the United States.

	1870–71.	1893–94.	1894–95. *a*	1895–96. *a*
I.—General statistics.				
Total population (estimated)	39,500,500	68,064,250	68,748,950	70,595,321
Number of persons 5 to 18 years of age (estimated)	12,305,600	20,137,521	20,328,147	20,865,377
Number of different pupils enrolled on the school registers	7,561,582	13,995,357	14,201,752	14,379,078
Per cent of total population enrolled	19.14	20.56	20.65	20.37
Per cent of persons 5 to 18 years of age enrolled	61.45	69.50	69.85	68.93
Average daily attendance	4,545,317	9,263,350	9,387,507	9,747,015
Ratio of same to enrollment	60.1	66.2	66.1	67.8
Average length of school term (in days)	132.1	139.5	141.4	140.5
Aggregate number of days attended	600,432,802	1,292,751,289	1,327,953,863	1,369,582,914
Average number for each person 5 to 18 years of age	48.7	64.2	65.3	65.7
Average number for each pupil enrolled	79.4	92.4	93.5	95.3

[Foot note continued from page IX].

Reformatories	19,327
Benevolent institutions, chiefly orphan asylums, that do not send to outside schools	13,309
Total	361,763

These items are in part estimated. The item "taught in benevolent institutions" is given in detail as follows:

Children under 16 years of age in benevolent institutions in 1890.

	Total.	Male.	Female.
The United States	68,011	36,491	31,520
Taught in institution	13,309	7,440	5,869
Taught in public school	5,133	2,835	2,298
Not taught in either	49,569	26,216	23,353
North Atlantic Division	38,243	21,328	16,915
Taught in institution	2,758	702	2,056
Taught in public school	2,521	1,343	1,178
Not taught in either	32,964	19,283	13,681
South Atlantic Division	4,323	1,847	2,476
Taught in institution	3,597	1,492	2,105
Taught in public school	209	96	113
Not taught in either	517	259	258
North Central Division	17,017	9,357	7,660
Taught in institution	5,940	4,993	947
Taught in public school	1,400	853	547
Not taught in either	9,677	3,511	6,166
South Central Division	4,026	1,720	2,306
Taught in institution	371	83	288
Taught in public school	389	190	199
Not taught in either	3,266	1,447	1,819
Western Division	4,402	2,239	2,163
Taught in institution	643	170	473
Taught in public school	614	353	261
Not taught in either	3,145	1,716	1,429

a The figures for 1894–95 and 1895–96 are subject to revision.

Common-school statistics of the United States—Continued.

	1870–71.	1893–94.	1894–95. *a*	1895–96. *a*
I.—General statistics—Continued.				
Male teachers	90,293	125,402	128,376	130,366
Female teachers	129,932	263,547	267,951	269,959
Whole number of teachers	220,225	388,949	396,327	400,325
Per cent of male teachers	41	32.2	32.4	32.6
Average monthly wages of teachers—				
Males		$44.76	$46.82	$47.37
Females		$37.48	$39.41	$40 24
Number of schoolhouses	132,119	238,423	237,416	240,968
Value of all school property	$143,818,703	$428,238,256	$439,071,690	$455,948,164
II.—Financial statistics.				
Receipts:				
Income from permanent funds		$8,440,959	$8,336,612	$7,646,152
From State taxes		32,749,646	33,252,941	35,280,153
From local taxes		112,785,117	119,019,984	123,219,526
From all other sources		16,428,458	16,988,154	15,248,597
Total revenues		170,404,180	177,597,691	181,394,428
Per cent of the total revenue derived from—				
Permanent funds		5	4.7	4.2
State taxes		19.2	18.7	19.4
Local taxes		66.2	67	67.9
All other sources		9.6	9.6	8.5
Expenditures:				
For sites, buildings, furniture, libraries, and apparatus		$30,007,688	$31,900,525	$32,408,270
For salaries of teachers and superintendents	$42,580,853	109,202,405	113,664,874	116,377,778
For all other purposes		33,292,750	32,650,157	35,667,732
Total expenditures	69,107,612	172,502,843	178,215,556	184,453,780
Expenditure per capita of population	1.75	2.53	2.59	2.61
Expenditure per pupil (of average attendance):				
For sites, buildings, etc		3.24	3.40	3.32
For salaries	9.37	11.79	12.11	11.94
For all other purposes		3.59	3.47	3.66
Total expenditure per pupil	15.20	18.62	18.98	18.92
Per cent of the total expenditure devoted to—				
Sites, buildings, etc		17.4	17.9	17.6
Salaries	61.6	63.3	63.8	63.1
Other purposes		19.3	18.3	19.3
Average expenditure per day for each pupil (in cents):				
For tuition	7.1	8.4	8.6	8.5
For all purposes	11.5	13.3	13.4	13.5

a The figures for 1894–95 and 1895–96 are subject to revision.

Total number of pupils and students of all grades in both public and private schools, 1895–96.

NOTE.—The classification of States made use of in the following table is the same as that adopted by the United States census, and is as follows: *North Atlantic Division:* Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. *South Atlantic Division:* Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. *South Central Division:* Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Oklahoma. *North Central Division:* Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas. *Western Division:* Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Nevada, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, and California.

Division.	Pupils receiving elementary instruction (primary and grammar grades).		Pupils receiving secondary instruction (high-school grade).*a*		Students receiving higher instruction.								
					In universities and colleges. *c*			In schools of medicine, law, and theology. *e*			In normal schools. *g*		
	Public.	Private (largely estimated).	Public. *b*	Private (in preparatory schools, academies, seminaries, etc.).	Public. *d*	Private.	Total.	Public. *f*	Private.	Total.	Public.	Private. *h*	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
The United States	13,998,585	1,228,146	392,729	166,274	26,296	71,081	97,377	7,340	45,548	52,888	40,421	20,777	*i* 61,198
North Atlantic Division	3,349,181	484,585	118,270	50,259	4,857	25,540	30,397	197	17,679	17,876	17,129	1,083	18,212
South Atlantic Division	1,979,398	86,716	21,771	24,501	3,189	10,218	13,407	678	5,635	6,313	3,519	2,401	5,920
South Central Division	2,661,646	142,253	29,916	32,615	2,701	11,389	14,090	1,113	3,789	4,902	3,171	3,545	6,716
North Central Division	5,314,829	474,361	199,331	49,651	12,180	20,896	33,076	4,493	17,480	21,973	13,667	12,759	26,426
Western Division	693,531	40,231	23,441	9,248	3,369	3,038	6,407	859	965	1,824	2,935	989	3,924

a Including pupils in preparatory or academic departments of higher institutions, public and private, and excluding elementary pupils, who are classed in columns 2 and 3. A classification of public and of private secondary students, according to the character of the institutions in which they are found, is given in Chap. XXXVII, Vol. 2.

b This is made up chiefly from the returns of individual high schools to the Bureau, and is considerably too small, as there are a great many secondary pupils outside the completely organized high schools whom there are no means of enumerating.

c Including colleges for women, agricultural and mechanical (land-grant) colleges, and scientific schools. Students in law, theological, and medical departments are excluded, being tabulated in columns 9–11. Students in academic and preparatory departments are also excluded, being tabulated in columns 4 and 5.

d Mainly State universities and agricultural and mechanical colleges.

e Including schools of pharmacy and veterinary medicine.

f Mainly in schools or departments of medicine and law attached to State universities.

g Nonprofessional pupils in normal schools are included in columns 4 and 5.

h Private normal schools are, with few exceptions, scarcely superior to the ordinary secondary schools.

i There are, in addition to this number, 23,202 students taking normal courses in universities, colleges, and high schools. (See Chap. XXXVII, Vol. 2.)

Total number of pupils and students of all grades in both public and private schools, 1895–96—Continued.

Division.	Summary of higher instruction.		Summary of pupils by grade.			Summary according to control.		Grand total.
	Public.	Private.	Elementary.	Secondary.	Higher.	Public.	Private.	
1	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
The United States	74,057	137,406	15,226,731	559,003	211,463	14,465,371	1,531,826	15,997,197
North Atlantic Division	22,183	44,302	3,833,766	168,529	66,485	3,489,634	579,146	4,068,780
South Atlantic Division	7,386	18,254	2,066,114	46,272	25,640	2,008,555	129,471	2,138,026
South Central Division	6,985	18,723	2,803,899	62,531	25,708	2,698,547	193,591	2,892,138
North Central Division	30,340	51,135	5,789,190	248,982	81,475	5,544,500	575,147	6,119,647
Western Division	7,163	4,992	733,762	32,689	12,155	724,135	54,471	778,606

AVERAGE AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING PER INHABITANT.

It is useful to state the above results in another form to answer the questions, How much schooling is each inhabitant receiving on the basis of present attendance? If the conditions existing the past year were continued indefinitely, what would be the average amount of schooling per individual, counting it in school years of 200 days each? In answer to this inquiry, the average for the nation and its five census divisions is given, estimated in Table 2 for the common schools alone, and in Table 1, including also the higher education and the private schools. The results are shown in comparative form, beginning with 1870:

Average total amount of schooling (including all grades of both public and private schools) each individual of the population would receive under the conditions actually existing at the different dates given below.

[Expressed in years of 200 school days each.]

	1870.	1880.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
United States	3.32	3.59	4.41	4.51	4.41	4.48	4.63	4.75	4.84
North Atlantic Division	4.98	5.77	5.94	6.04	6.08	6.09	6.32	6.54	6.48
South Atlantic Division	1.20	2.13	2.68	2.72	2.68	2.73	2.90	2.85	2.98
South Central Division	1.09	1.81	2.48	2.60	2.62	2.58	2.88	2.88	2.79
North Central Division	4.00	4.75	5.28	5.37	5.14	5.30	5.30	5.46	5.75
Western Division	3.46	4.06	4.44	4.65	5.00	4.83	4.92	5.21	5.46

Average total amount of schooling received per inhabitant, considering only public elementary and secondary schools.

[Expressed in years of 200 school days each.]

	1870.	1880.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
United States	2.91	3.45	3.85	3.93	3.97	3.99	4.13	4.24	4.28
North Atlantic Division	4.43	4.84	4.99	5.06	5.10	5.10	5.28	5.50	5.61
South Atlantic Division	0.80	1.90	2.42	2.46	2.46	2.51	2.70	2.66	2.67
South Central Division	0.78	1.57	2.20	2.31	2.41	2.38	2.64	2.65	2.45
North Central Division	3.71	4.19	4.67	4.74	4.75	4.84	4.85	5.00	5.16
Western Division	2.77	3.57	3.98	4.16	4.46	4.39	4.49	4.76	4.95

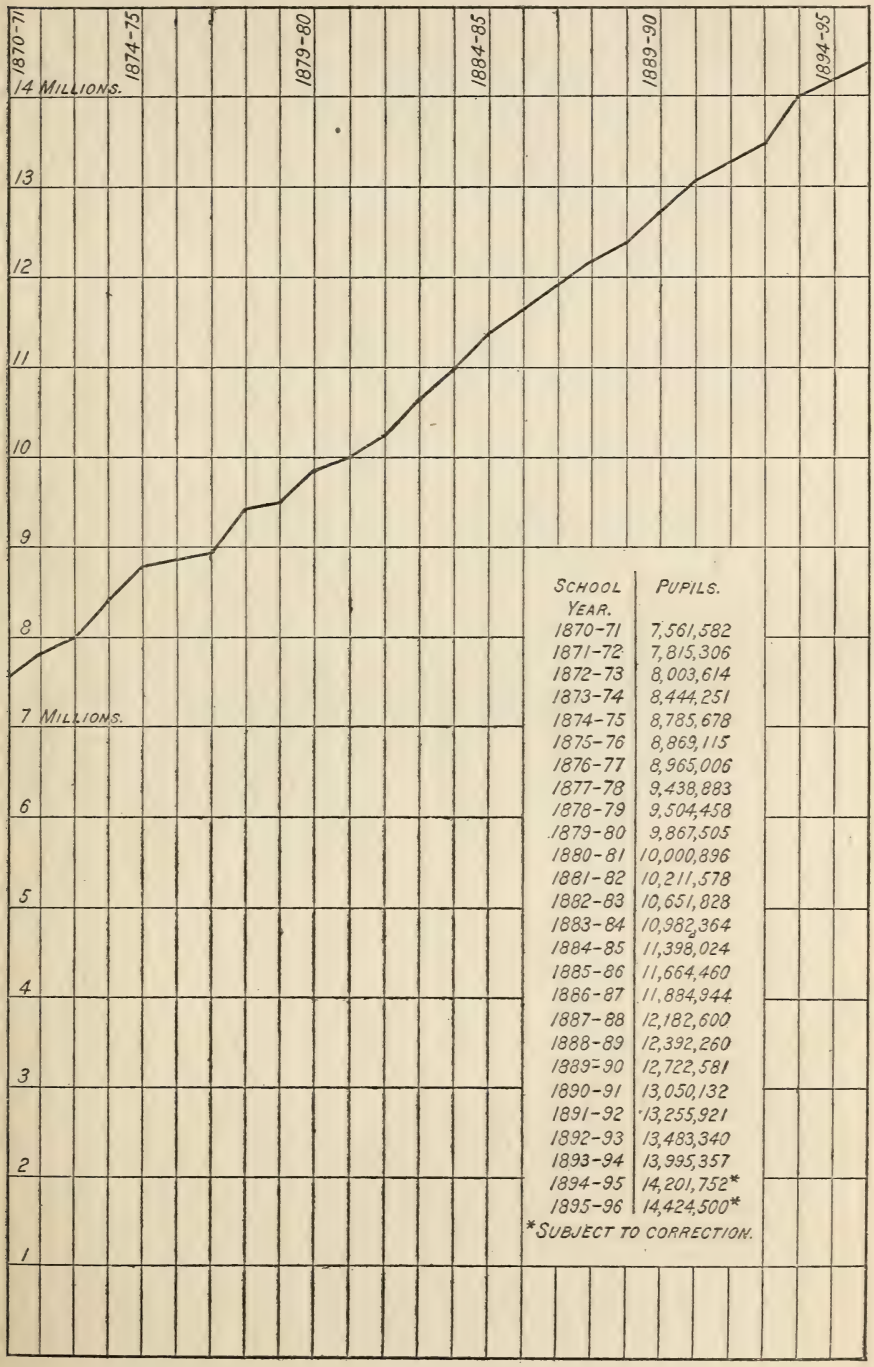
GRAPHIC EXHIBIT OF SCHOOL STATISTICS.

The following nine graphic views have been prepared[1] to show at a glance the trend of the chief items of educational statistics. Especial attention is called to diagrams 6 and 7, and to the note (*a*) explaining the change in methods of counting the secondary enrollment after 1889. Also see note (*b*), which explains the sudden increase in public high-school enrollment by counting not merely those in cities, but all others.

In diagrams 8 and 9 the rapid increase after 1888 is in part due to the adoption of coeducation in the colleges for men and the establishment of women's colleges.

[1] By the expert in State systems, Mr. F. E. Upton.

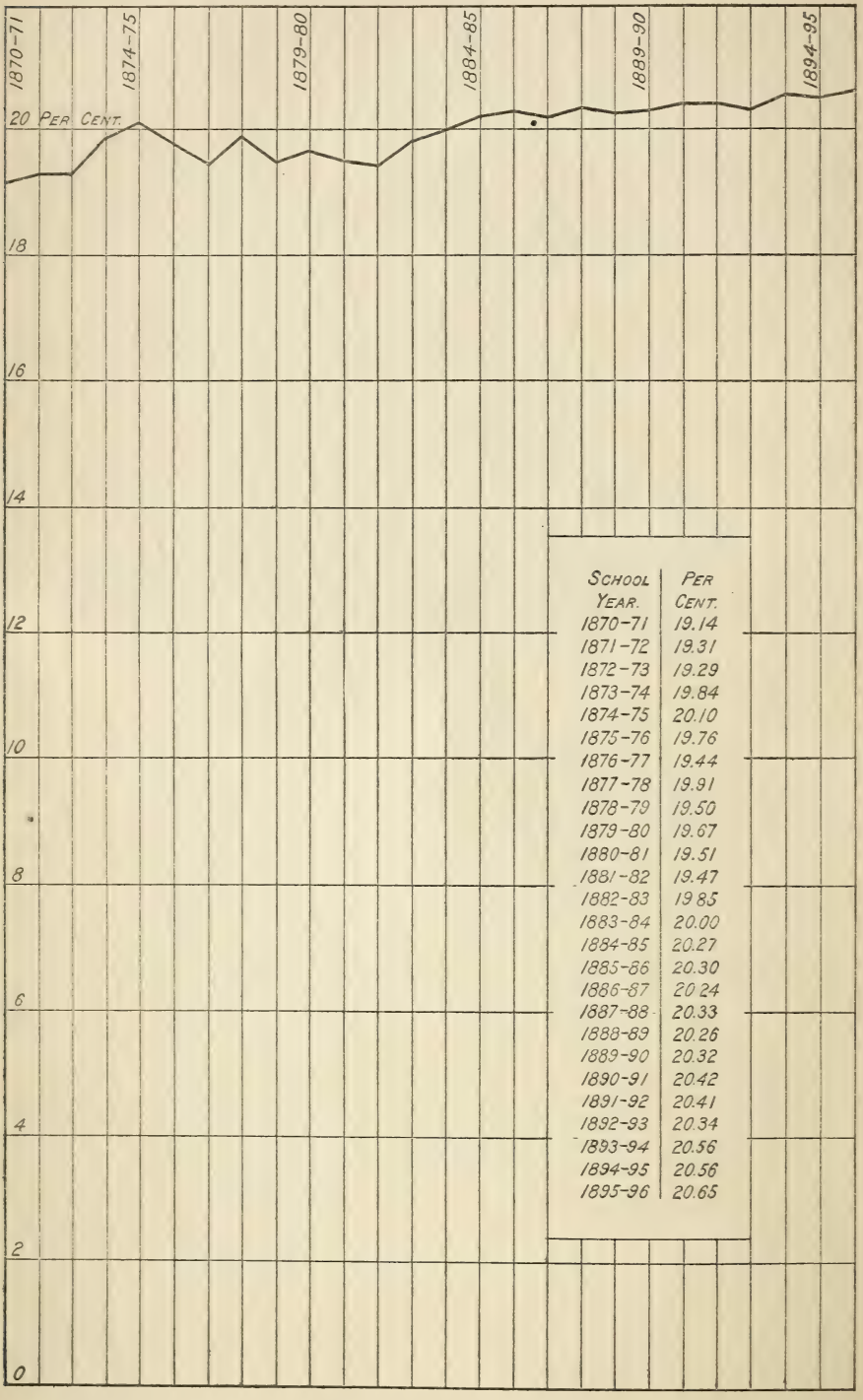
DIAGRAM 1.—*Number of pupils enrolled in the common schools of the United States each year since 1870–71.*



SCHOOL YEAR.	PUPILS.
1870-71	7,561,582
1871-72	7,815,306
1872-73	8,003,614
1873-74	8,444,251
1874-75	8,785,678
1875-76	8,869,115
1876-77	8,965,006
1877-78	9,438,883
1878-79	9,504,458
1879-80	9,867,505
1880-81	10,000,896
1881-82	10,211,578
1882-83	10,651,828
1883-84	10,982,364
1884-85	11,398,024
1885-86	11,664,460
1886-87	11,884,944
1887-88	12,182,600
1888-89	12,392,260
1889-90	12,722,581
1890-91	13,050,132
1891-92	13,255,921
1892-93	13,483,340
1893-94	13,995,357
1894-95	14,201,752*
1895-96	14,424,500*

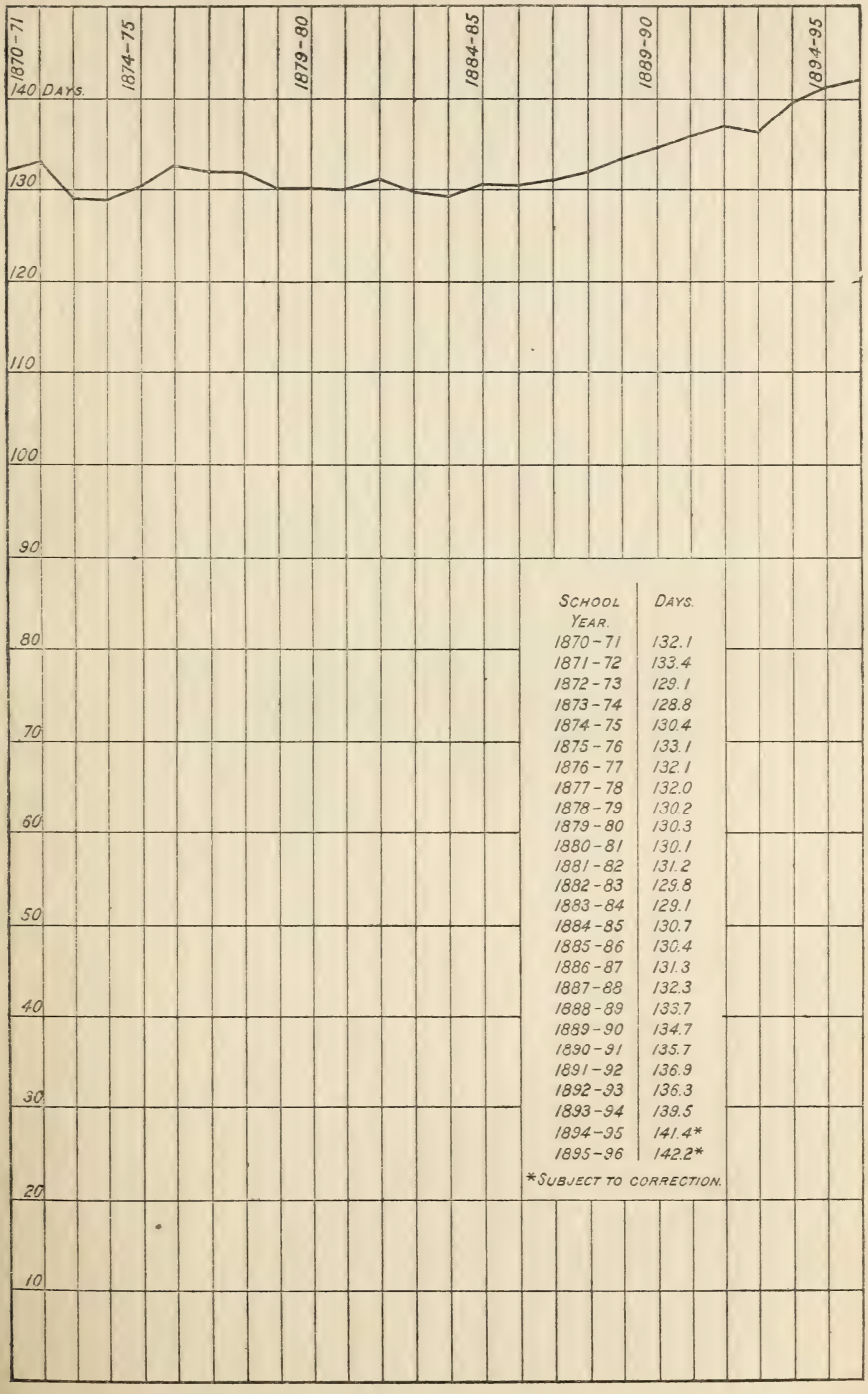
*SUBJECT TO CORRECTION.

DIAGRAM 2.—*Showing the percentage of the total population enrolled in the common schools by years since 1870–71.*



SCHOOL YEAR.	PER CENT.
1870–71	19.14
1871–72	19.31
1872–73	19.29
1873–74	19.84
1874–75	20.10
1875–76	19.76
1876–77	19.44
1877–78	19.91
1878–79	19.50
1879–80	19.67
1880–81	19.51
1881–82	19.47
1882–83	19 85
1883–84	20.00
1884–85	20.27
1885–86	20.30
1886–87	20 24
1887–88	20.33
1888–89	20.26
1889–90	20.32
1890–91	20.42
1891–92	20.41
1892–93	20.34
1893–94	20.56
1894–95	20.56
1895–96	20.65

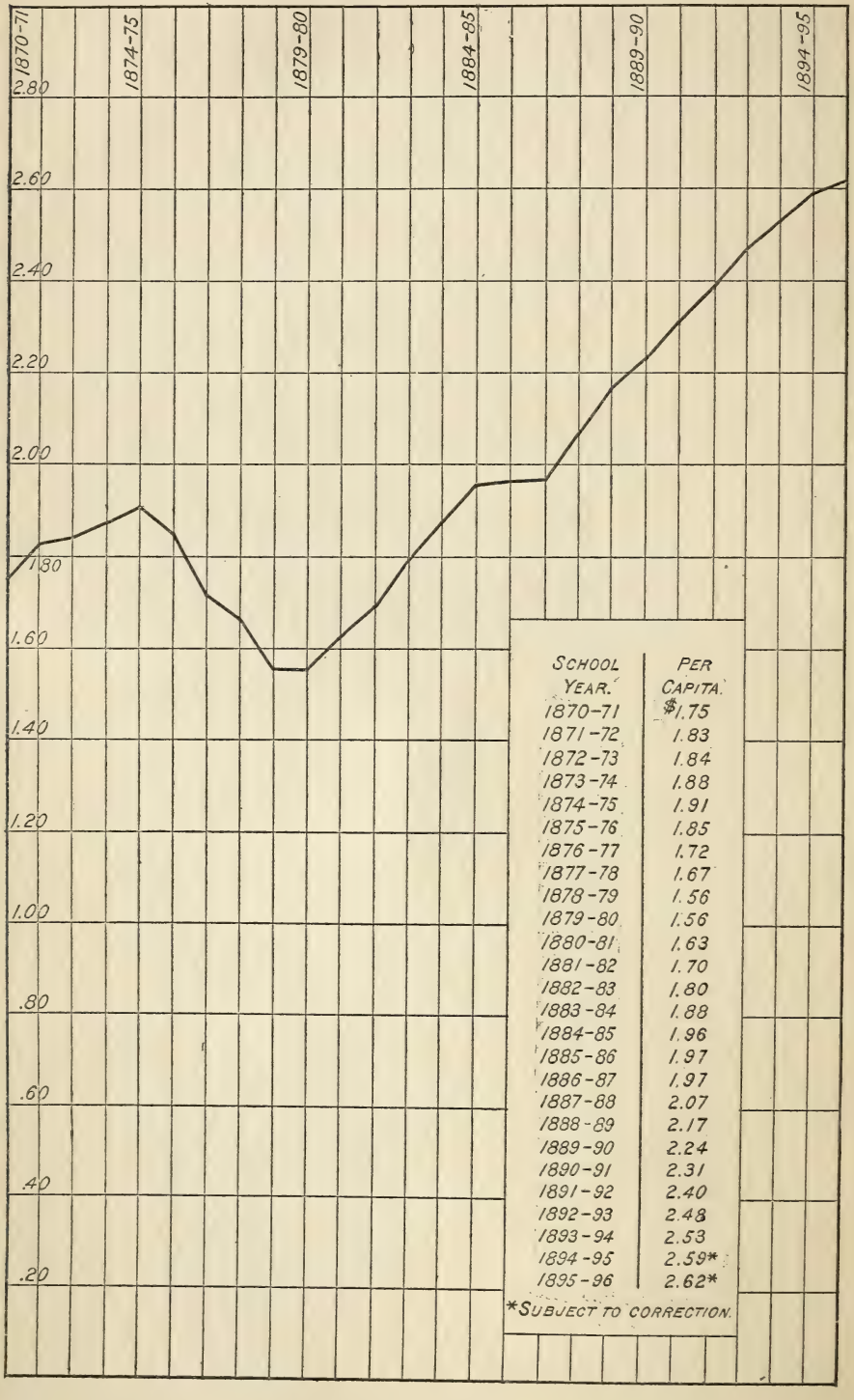
DIAGRAM 3.—*Showing t e average number of days the schools were kept each year since 1870–71.*



SCHOOL YEAR.	DAYS.
1870-71	132.1
1871-72	133.4
1872-73	129.1
1873-74	128.8
1874-75	130.4
1875-76	133.1
1876-77	132.1
1877-78	132.0
1878-79	130.2
1879-80	130.3
1880-81	130.1
1881-82	131.2
1882-83	129.8
1883-84	129.1
1884-85	130.7
1885-86	130.4
1886-87	131.3
1887-88	132.3
1888-89	133.7
1889-90	134.7
1890-91	135.7
1891-92	136.9
1892-93	136.3
1893-94	139.5
1894-95	141.4*
1895-96	142.2*

*SUBJECT TO CORRECTION.

DIAGRAM 4.—*Showing the amount expended per capita of population each year since 1870–71.*



SCHOOL YEAR.	PER CAPITA.
1870–71	$1.75
1871–72	1.83
1872–73	1.84
1873–74	1.88
1874–75	1.91
1875–76	1.85
1876–77	1.72
1877–78	1.67
1878–79	1.56
1879–80	1.56
1880–81	1.63
1881–82	1.70
1882–83	1.80
1883–84	1.88
1884–85	1.96
1885–86	1.97
1886–87	1.97
1887–88	2.07
1888–89	2.17
1889–90	2.24
1890–91	2.31
1891–92	2.40
1892–93	2.48
1893–94	2.53
1894–95	2.59*
1895–96	2.62*

*SUBJECT TO CORRECTION.

CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

According to the Eleventh Census, between 1880 and 1890 there was an annual increase of 2.2 per cent in the population of the United States as a whole, while the cities grew more rapidly, attaining the rate of 4.8 per cent per annum. This gain on the part of the cities has a significance in educational affairs; the problems of city school organization and management are the most important with which we have to deal.

The statistics of enrollment presented in this report (Chapter XXXVI) show that there has been no change in the tendency of urban growth since 1890, for while the school enrollment in the country at large shows an average annual growth of 2.1 per cent, the city schools have grown at the rate of 5.8 per cent; 24.2 per cent of the entire enrollment is in cities of over 8,000 inhabitants, as against 20.1 per cent in 1891.

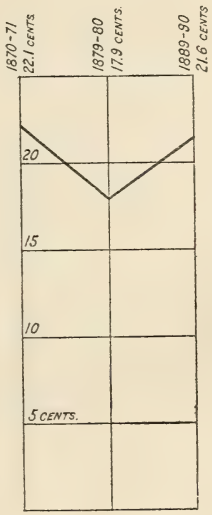


DIAGRAM 5.—Showing the amount expended on the common schools for each $100 of the true valuation of all real and personal property.

Naturally during such rapid expansion the question of organization becomes of prime importance. The actual instruction given is the ultimate objective point toward which all questions of organization must look. All discussion that relates to school boards, supervision, equipment, cost, and such items must have as its final object the efficiency of the teacher and of his work. But the question of maintaining and improving the quality of the teaching has become exceedingly complex as cities have grown in size, and many subsidiary questions are involved that have caused so much difficulty in their settlement that they have come to be looked upon as no longer of secondary consideration, but matters of prime importance in themselves. The selection of members of the school board, the raising of school revenue, the appointment of the superintendent, the choice of teachers, the construction of buildings, all these involve vital questions, the successful solution of which is the condition precedent upon which effective work in the school depends.

The size of schoolrooms as affecting discipline.—One of the items of school management which came under the notice of the earliest supervisors of city schools was the size of the room and number of pupils assigned to the charge of the teacher. The Bell and Lancaster system of monitorial education had brought into use in the cities of the North Atlantic States the plan of school building that furnished a large assembly room in which the pupils sat while engaged in their studies. The head master presided over this room and "kept order." The general

exercises also were held in this room, but for the majority of recitations the pupils passed into small adjoining rooms, presided over by assistant teachers. In the Lancasterian or monitorial system these assistants were pupil teachers.

The first departure from this style of building seems to have been the Quincy School in Boston, completed in 1847 and placed under the charge of John D. Philbrick, who became afterwards distinguished as the superintendent of the Boston schools and an eminent authority in American education.

The best building for the graded school, officered by professionally trained teachers, was then and there discovered. It furnished the model for the school buildings in the cities of the Northwestern States. Primary pupils and grammar pupils were collected in one building.[1]

Instead of a large study room, with small recitation rooms opening out from it, in the Quincy School there were twelve separate rooms intended to be occupied each by a single teacher, who was to have charge of the discipline of the pupils while studying, as well as of the classes when reciting.

This point in regard to architecture is by all means the most important item in the whole plan of organization. Instead of a small room, 28 by 32 feet and holding 56 pupils, make a large room holding 150 pupils and the entire morale of the school will be changed. While a humane, self-controlled teacher can easily manage the small room and secure excellent discipline with very little or no corporal punishment, it requires a person of strong gifts in the direction of discipline—so strong, indeed, as to overbalance his other qualities—to control and discipline the large room. The tendency of the school system with the large room is constantly toward the employment of bullies and tyrants as head masters. The influence of the whole school then goes toward military discipline sustained by brute force. In the St. Louis schools in 1858, where the large-room plan prevailed, it was not uncommon for over 100 cases of corporal punishment to take place in one day in a school building containing less than 500 pupils.

The pupils in the small rooms remain under the discipline of the same teacher, both in recitation and in study, and teacher and pupil come to know each other and to feel an intimate sympathy, whereas in the large-room system the number of pupils prevents intimate acquaintance on the part of the head master, who is responsible for the discipline. The constant danger of demoralization renders summary measures indispensable. Every case of misbehavior attracts the attention of 150 pupils. The teacher can have very little power to hold so many pupils in subordination by the influence of his eye and voice. In the small room a case of misbehavior disturbs only 50 pupils, and the

[1] I quote here a discussion of the meaning of this departure in school architecture from my contribution to the volume, A Memorial of the Life and Services of John D. Philbrick. Boston. New England Publishing Company, 1887.

teacher easily holds the room under control by a mere look or a mere word.

In the system of schools of St. Louis, after the adoption of the Boston style of building, corporal punishment decreased in ten years from an average of 500 cases per week for 700 pupils to 3 cases for that number. The benefit to the schools of the central plain of the United States from this architectural innovation of Boston may be estimated by this. But another benefit of almost equal magnitude arose from the close grading of classes which the new system produced. I think that Mr. Philbrick alone deserves the credit for most of this latter improvement. The large school was graded into classes from the lowest to the highest, so as to bring together in each room only those of the same grade of advancement in their studies. According to the ungraded system, such as exists in small country schools now, each teacher had pupils of all grades, from those just beginning to read up to those studying algebra and perhaps Latin. Twenty-five pupils in the country school admit of classification into divisions of 2 or 3 pupils at most, and the result is forty recitations for the day's work and five or ten minutes to each recitation. It is obvious that no thorough work can be done on this plan; no searching analysis of the recitation, no discussion of the thought, no experiments to illustrate it—nothing but mere committing to memory and repeating the words by rote—no explanation of the process of an arithmetical problem, but only a memorizing of the rule and an inspection of the figures in which the answer is stated. The ungraded school in which this method of procedure did not prevail was a rare phenomenon.

In the graded school each teacher has two classes. One recites while the other learns its lesson. The recitation is as long as the attention of the pupil can be held without overstrain—twenty to twenty-five minutes in the lower grades and thirty to forty minutes in the highest classes of the grammar school. Time is given for review of the previous lesson, for investigation of the lesson for the day, for discussion of authorities, for illustrations, for hints as to methods of study. Each pupil prepares himself by study of the text-book, and in the recitation sees the subject through the perspective of the minds of his fellow-pupils and teacher, thus widening his own narrow views of the subject by seeing what different aspects it takes on in the minds of his fellow-pupils. He acquires critical alertness by this process and goes to his next lesson with his mind full of new inquiry and reflection, thus reenforcing his own power of attention by what he has learned from the whole class and the teacher. A good teacher can and does use the recitation as an instrumentality for reenforcing each individual mind by all the minds of the whole class.

The constant influence, therefore, of the graded school system of Boston has been to change the memoriter system of recitation into a system of critical investigation. Such a system is not possible in an ungraded

school, even with a good teacher. Although bad methods are possible with poor teachers, even in a graded system, yet they are no longer necessary, and experience tends to eradicate them altogether.

CITY SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

The functions of the office of the superintendent of public schools have become better defined from year to year. They included at first functions as widely diverse as janitor work and the formulation of a course of study. One after another have been eliminated—the mechanical elements of curatorship, purchasing supplies, keeping records, supervising the construction of buildings. Finally the superintendent has arrived at the work of the educational expert and confines himself more and more to directing the course of study, teaching methods of instruction, inspiring the teachers with the spirit of self-culture, acting as counselor and advisor of the school board or school committee, and fashioning or shaping the educational thought of the community. But still the work of the superintendent must include at least a directive oversight in those mechanical spheres, and a mere theoretic superintendent who confines himself exclusively to examining pupils and discussing methods of instruction and discipline would prove a failure. He may reasonably be relieved of the mechanical drudgery, but he should retain the supervisory control over its performance. Heating, ventilating, sewerage, lighting, cleaning—all these things must be under his control in the last resort, although their routine may be managed by an independent officer of the board. The construction of school buildings requires at every step the advice of an expert in educational methods.

The superintendent, too, must prescribe what statistics are to be kept, for he is the one to know what is essential to indicate the character of the management and the needs and necessities of reform or change. Of course, too, the financial concerns of the schools, the grades of salaries, the cost of apparatus and incidental supplies should have the superintendent's consideration, no matter how efficient the school board committee may be; for the excellence of the school is conditioned largely by teacher's wages and by the apparatus of the schoolroom.

These mechanical and financial essentials being once provided for, the superintendent in the capacity of educational expert has to do with teachers, pupils, parents, the school board, and with the community at large.

The average school board (or "school committee," as called in some of the Atlantic States) may be said to have three classes of men represented in its composition: First, the business man, chosen from the class of merchants, teachers, manufacturers, or professionals who have no personal ends to serve and no special cause to foster or protect other than the general efficiency and business management of the schools.

Second, there are the men representing the element of reform or change, and who have some pet scheme that they wish to introduce. These men are honest and well-meaning, but their enthusiasm is prone to unbalance their judgment regarding educational values. They become so much impressed with the importance of their pet schemes that they can not see the true significance of the studies already in the course. A third class of men that gets represented on a school board is the self-seeking or ambitious men who have political ends to accomplish, for which they are willing to sacrifice to some degree the efficiency of the schools. This element usually enters the board as a result of partisan politics and varies in its amount according to the influence of politics in the government of the schools. There may be in this third quota of the board some who seek higher political offices, a seat in the town council, the State legislature or Congress, and who will aim at notoriety by their actions in the school board; others, a few, will perhaps seek profitable contracts for their friends.

Now the superintendent will find the first class, the conservative business men, his best support in his administration. He will find the third element untrustworthy for his support in any measure for the public good. It is the second element of the board, composed of honest but unbalanced men, that he must study carefully and endeavor by all upright means to educate into broader views. He must labor to unite the first and second quotas of his board, the business men with the men of reform. There is in every board a natural antipathy between the honest business man and the honest reformer. The business man is apt to regard the latter as a visionary. But the balance of power in the board is quite often in the hands of the latter class. It is sure to be the case sooner or later in the vicissitudes of municipal politics.

The discontented, the critical, the opinionated in matters of school management have to be approached often by the superintendent and their statements heard with patience, their arguments turned over and over with fairmindedness. If there is to be any progress in the school system it is to come in by their proposed reforms. The superintendent therefore must learn to see what elements of the proposed measures he can adopt after freeing them from all features of danger to the schools' best interest. He must study to make a synthesis of many of these points severally proposed by the reformers on the board. He must above all endeavor to make the members of the second quota of the board conscious of the educational value and bearing of what already belongs to the course of study. He can in some cases show that the main object sought by the proposed reform is already met by the course of study as it is.

The superintendent in his endeavor to educate the one-sided school directors will educate himself into all-sidedness if he is always careful to be true and honest in his dealings with these men. If he yields to

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The superintendent in his endeavor to educate the one-sided school directors will educate himself into all-sidedness if he is always careful to be true and honest in his dealings with these men. If he yields to

the temptation to play the demagogue with them, his course will prove fatal to himself and disastrous to his cause, no matter how good it is nor how great his temporary victory.

Hence in this dangerous and difficult part of his duties the superintendent must go no faster than he can see his way with perfect frankness and honesty. He must espouse sincerely so much of the proposed reform as he finds salutary to the school system under his charge. This policy will lead to a slow and beneficial change in the educational system and to the addition of features which will prove permanent elements of strength and perfection.

It is difficult to lift this policy of the superintendent on to a plane so high as to exclude all taint of demagoguery, and it should not be attempted by one who can not hospitably entertain ideas radically different from his own, and turn them over and over earnestly seeking their good sides.

The superintendent who is not disposed to make any further progress, nor to admit any changes into the school system under his charge, will side with the conservative business men on his board and allow the reformers and discontented members to go without his sympathy or attention. The ultimate consequence of this will be a combination of the second and third quotas of the board—the reformers and the self-seekers. If the well-balanced conservative members do not keep in their party the honest but discontented members, the latter will get under the power of the less scrupulous members, and the consequence will be revolution instead of reform, for the third quota of members of the board are willing to yield to the reformers anything in the line of theoretical doctrine or educational practice provided they can get for themselves political consequence.

The highest type of superintendent is therefore the one who has genuine political skill—the skill to correct and persuade mistaken men and combine them harmoniously with the honest business men in behalf of good and wise measures. If his skill is not sufficient to perform this without deceit and demagoguery, it is not genuine political skill but a piece of political corruption not to be justified by any temporary success in defending a good cause.

The superintendent of the most advanced type, in his relations with his teachers, aims to organize them into a body of investigators of the history and practice of education. He should do one kind of work with his principals and another kind of work with the teachers at large, meeting them in classes or in assemblies for this purpose. He should discuss with the principals such questions as those relating to the proper selection of the branches of the course of study; exactly what each branch contributes to the intellectual development; how each should be taught; what should be the manner, form, and spirit of the discipline; what new experiments in teaching have been recently proposed in the city or elsewhere, and what their merits.

The superintendent will perhaps do a still more valuable work by inspiring his teachers to form literary societies for the study of the great world poets—Dante, Shakespeare, Homer, Goethe, and the lesser lights. There is no field more important for the teacher to enter than the field of æsthetic culture—the study of the great works of art in sculpture, architecture, painting, and music, as well as in poesy.

The teacher is exposed to a certain paralyzing influence arising from the necessity of his vocation which places him in a position wherein he must keep a constant pull against the arbitrariness and caprice of the child. This produces what has somewhere been called the "pedagogical cramp." There is no cure for this equal to the study of literature and art. Hence the importance which the good superintendent will give to the encouragement, by precept and example, of such studies on the part of his teachers. The superintendent should be fertile in devices which work silently and gradually toward improving the method of instruction or the method of discipline. Take for example a device having the twofold effect of rendering the discipline in the schoolroom mild and free from petulance while at the same time correcting the pupil's waywardness or negligence, and, besides these good effects, superadding a wholesome influence on the parent. This device is the suspension of the pupil for repeated and inexcusable absence or tardiness, or for persistent and willful violation of the order of the school. The suspended pupil can not return without a permit from the superintendent, and to obtain this the parent must visit him at his office hour. This affords occasion for a friendly comparison of views between the superintendent and the parent regarding the whole case. If the parent cherishes ill-feeling toward the teacher, the superintendent suggests a transfer of the pupil to another teacher out of the district. A transfer usually works a complete cure of these cases of brittle temper or blameworthy negligence. About two in a hundred will need another transfer to complete the cure. The teacher, it was quite possible, had not shown sufficient patience and had done something to justify the parent's ill-feeling. The transfer contains in it sometimes a gentle suggestion to the teacher to correct his or her own petulance; frequent transfers are sure to be understood clearly in this light.

There collect in many school districts discontented critics of the school management who object strongly to the rigid district system; but this system of transfers is the best means of removing the cause of this unpopularity of the schools.

Another device very effectual in strengthening the novitiate teacher in her power of governing a school is the practice of placing teachers weak in discipline on the "substitute" list and letting them fill vacancies here and there as they occur through the temporary absence of the regular teacher. Teachers who had become chronic failures in discipline have been entirely reformed by a few weeks of such experience.

The first-class superintendent is a sort of pilot for the whole system,

and must watch the rocks and breakers and the winds and clouds of public opinion and ascertain the drift of his course. The educational journals give him the trend of education elsewhere. He has to direct his own labors and the labors of all his teachers toward making their schools strong in the community. First, the teachers must do good work, and second they must make the community feel that it is good work. To neglect public opinion in a representative government is to rebel against it and court defeat and discomfiture. The teachers must not do anything except what they conscientiously believe to be right. But it is their duty to show to their clients, the people, the grounds of their convictions and the efficiency of their work.

The efficient superintendent therefore sets into working order these educative influences to support the one great work of education in the school system, namely, an educative influence for the members of the school board leading toward correct insight and the adoption of wise measures; second, an educative influence resulting in the acquisition of good methods, a growth in personal self-control, and, besides these, progressive studies in literature, art, and science; third, for the community an enlightened public opinion, which knows what the schools are actually doing and can intelligently explain their merits and defects, and tell what changes are desirable for onward progress.

CONSTITUTION AND POWERS OF CITY SCHOOL BOARDS.

The plans that have been devised for the treatment of matters of organization have not all been equally successful in meeting the conditions incident to rapid urban growth, and there is a general inquiry for means of betterment and a demand for data concerning the organization of other systems.

The structure of the city school system is determined as a rule by the respective State legislatures, though in some cases that power has been delegated to the general government of the city.

In Chapter I, pp. 3–78, are set forth the legal provisions concerning the systems of 23 cities selected to show the principal types of organization that exist in this country. A discussion of these types precedes the detailed description, and at the end of the chapter is a convenient epitome, in tabular form, of the laws mentioned.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

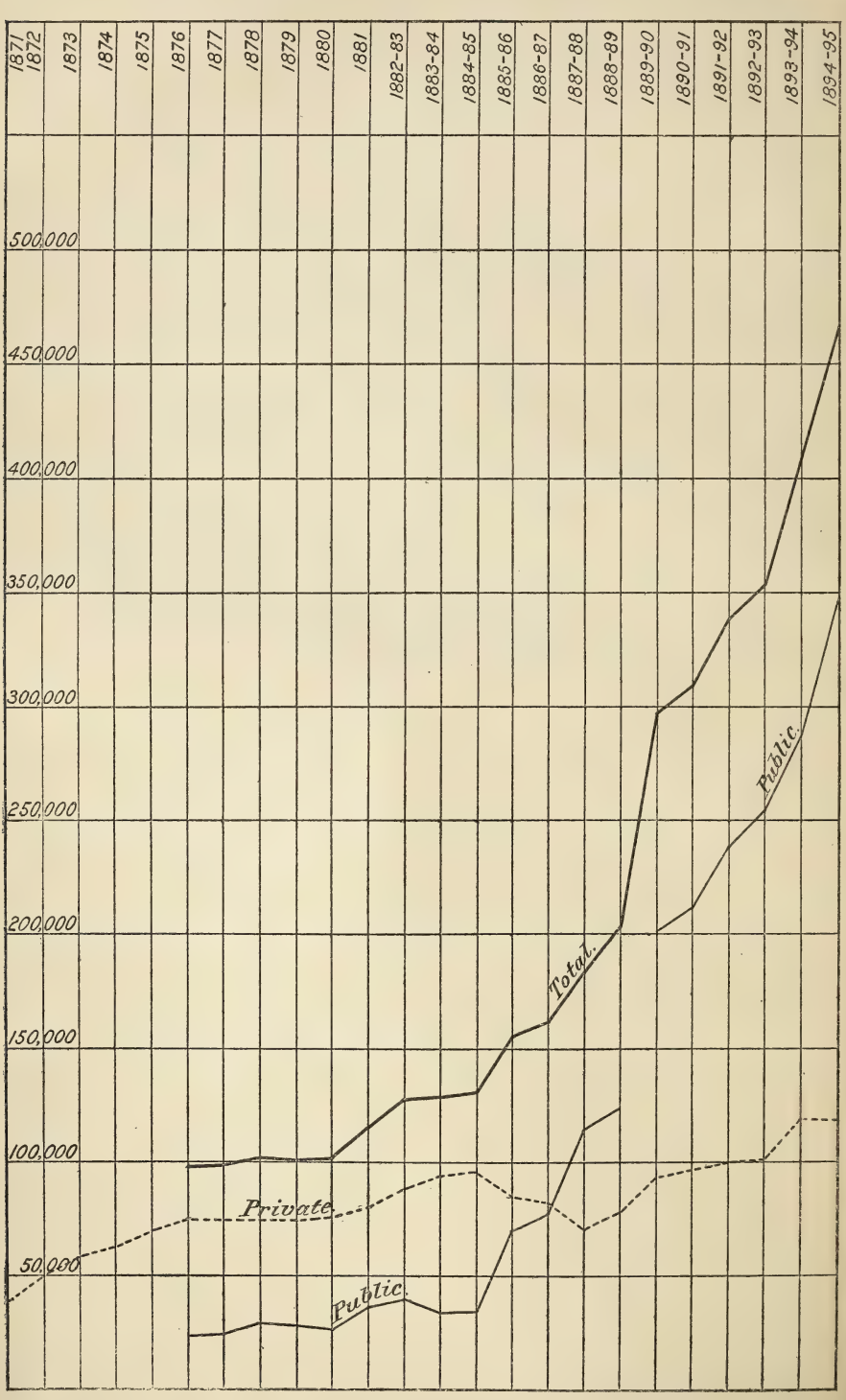
In diagram No. 6 and the accompanying table (p. XXIX) a condensed statement of the progress of secondary instruction for twenty-five years is given and illustrated graphically. Up to 1887 the number of secondary pupils (in ninth to twelfth years of course of study) in private academies and preparatory schools exceeded those in the public high schools. In 1895 the public high schools enrolled 350,099, while the private academies and preparatory schools enrolled only 118,347. But

these were all pupils in the secondary course of study. In 1871, and for nearly twenty years thereafter, such schools reported their entire enrollment as secondary pupils, although the larger proportion were really pursuing elementary studies. In 1887 the Bureau of Education began to collect information as to the actual numbers in each of the several branches of secondary study, such as algebra, Latin, physical geography, geometry, general history, natural philosophy (or physics), chemistry, French, Greek, etc. By 1890 it became possible to separate completely the secondary from the elementary pupils. The statistician has accordingly revised the returns of enrollment for the years 1871 to 1889 on the basis of the data furnished since 1890.

Before 1890 the public high schools outside of cities were not tabulated. Since that date those in rural districts have been included, and, as will be seen in the diagram and table, the increase for that year appears to be 77,000 instead of a normal increase of 10,000 or 20,000.

The number of pupils in secondary studies now amounts to about 7 persons in each 1,000 inhabitants, not counting the secondary pupils that are enrolled in elementary schools, which may amount to one-tenth of the entire number. It is important to observe that more than one-sixth of these students are preparing for college. One-half are studying Latin and one-twentieth are studying Greek.

DIAGRAM 6.—*Showing the number of secondary students in public and private high schools.*



NOTE.—In connection with this diagram, see the accompanying table and explanation, p. xxix.

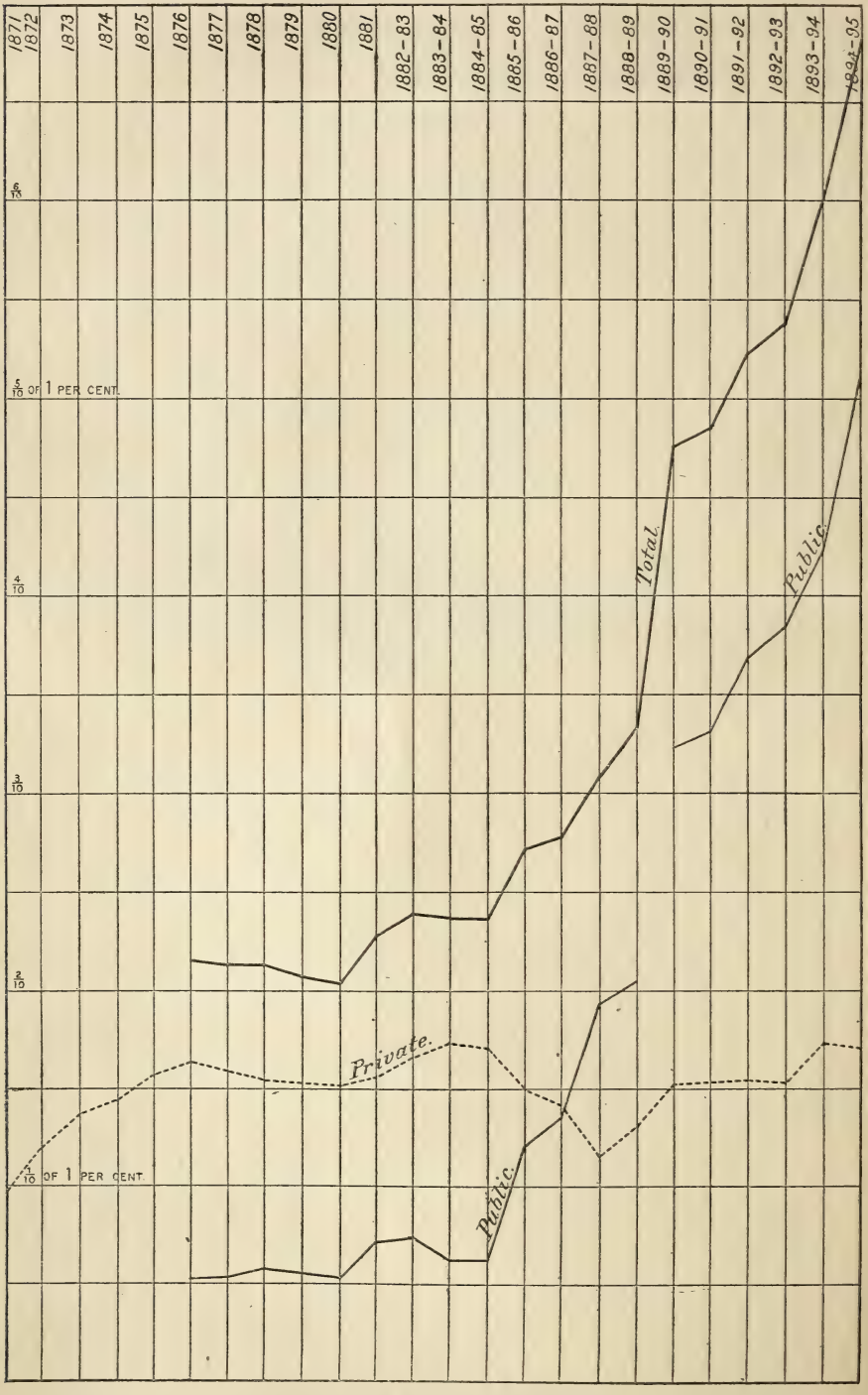
Number of secondary students in public and private high schools.

Year.	Secondary students.					
	In public high schools.	Per cent of population.	In private high schools.	Per cent of population.	In both classes of schools.	Per cent of population.
1871	.....	.....	a 38,280	0.097	.....	.....
1872	.....	.....	a 48,660	.120	.....	.....
1873	.....	.....	a 56,640	.137	.....	.....
1874	.....	.....	a 61,860	.145	.....	.....
1875	.....	.....	a 68,580	.157	.....	.....
1876	22,982	0.051	a 73,740	.164	96,722	0.215
1877	24,925	.054	a 73,560	.160	98,485	.214
1878	28,124	.059	a 73,620	.155	101,744	.214
1879	27,163	.056	a 74,160	.152	101,323	.208
1880	26,609	.053	a 75,840	.151	102,449	.204
1881	36,594	.071	a 80,160	.156	116,754	.227
1882–83	39,581	.074	a 88,920	.166	128,501	.240
1883–84	34,672	.063	a 95,280	.174	129,952	.237
1884–85	35,307	.063	a 97,020	.173	132,327	.236
1885–86	70,241	.122	a 86,400	.150	156,641	.272
1886–87	80,004	.136	a 83,160	.142	163,164	.278
1887–88	116,009	.194	a 69,600	.116	185,609	.310
1888–89	125,542	.205	a 79,440	.130	204,982	.335
1889–90	b 202,963	b .324	94,931	.152	297,894	.476
1890–91	211,596	.331	98,400	.154	309,996	.485
1891–92	239,556	.369	100,759	.155	340,295	.524
1892–93	254,023	.383	102,375	.154	356,398	.537
1893–94	289,274	.425	118,645	.174	407,919	.599
1894–95	350,099	.509	118,347	.172	468,446	.681

a From 1871 to 1887 this Bureau did not ask principals of private high schools and academies to report the number of students pursuing each secondary study. Prior to 1890 the number of students reported by a large number of these private schools included the total number in attendance, the elementary pupils as well as the secondary students. For the past six years the two classes of students have been reported separately. Taking the reports from 1890 to 1895 as a basis, the number of secondary students in private high schools from 1871 to 1889 has been carefully estimated for each year.

b Previous to 1890 only the pupils in public city high schools are given. From 1890 onward all public high schools are included.

DIAGRAM 7.— *Showing what percentage of the population was enrolled as secondary students in public and private high schools.*



NOTE.—See explanation to diagram 6.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

There was an increase of 3,862 in the number of students pursuing normal or teachers' training courses, as will be seen from an inspection of the tabular summaries in Chapter XXXVIII, the total number reported for the year ended June, 1896, being 84,400. The number of students in public normal schools was 40,421, an increase of 4,145 over the previous year; the number in private normal schools was 20,777, a decrease of 1,150. There were 7,026 normal students in universities and colleges, an increase of 624. The number of students pursuing teachers' training courses in public high schools was 8,246, an increase of 1,437; the number in private high schools and academies was 7,930, a decrease of 1,194.

There was an increase in the attendance in public normal schools in each geographical division except the North Central, where there was a decrease of 43. The decrease in the number of students in private normal schools was in the North Atlantic and North Central divisions; in the other divisions the number was in excess of the attendance of the previous year. The increase in the number of normal students in universities and colleges was in the Northern and Western divisions; There was a very small decrease in the Southern divisions. The increase in the number of students in teachers' training courses in public high schools was in all the divisions except the North Atlantic, where there was a small decrease. The decrease in the private secondary schools was in all the divisions except the South Atlantic, where there was a small increase. It is gratifying to note the increased support extended to public normal schools by States, counties, and cities. The amount appropriated for the support of these institutions for the year ending June, 1896, was $2,187,875, an increase of $270,500 over the previous year.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

Universities and colleges.—The total number of universities and colleges for men and for both sexes (Chapter XXXIX) reporting during the year was 484, of which number 345 admit women to undergraduate courses of study. There are 188 institutions which have not as yet any endowment, 54 have endowment funds less than $25,000, and only 4 institutions have endowments exceeding $5,000,000. In a large number of the institutions a comparatively small part of the work is collegiate. There are at present 278 institutions having less than 100 students in undergraduate collegiate courses. The number of instructors reported by the 484 institutions was 12,277, while the number of students of all classes, secondary and higher, was 159,372. Of the latter number 47,014 were in preparatory departments, 68,629 in collegiate departments, 4,673 in graduate departments, and 25,438 in professional departments. The property reported was as follows: Volumes in libraries, 6,453,677; value of material equipment, $134,093,435; endowment

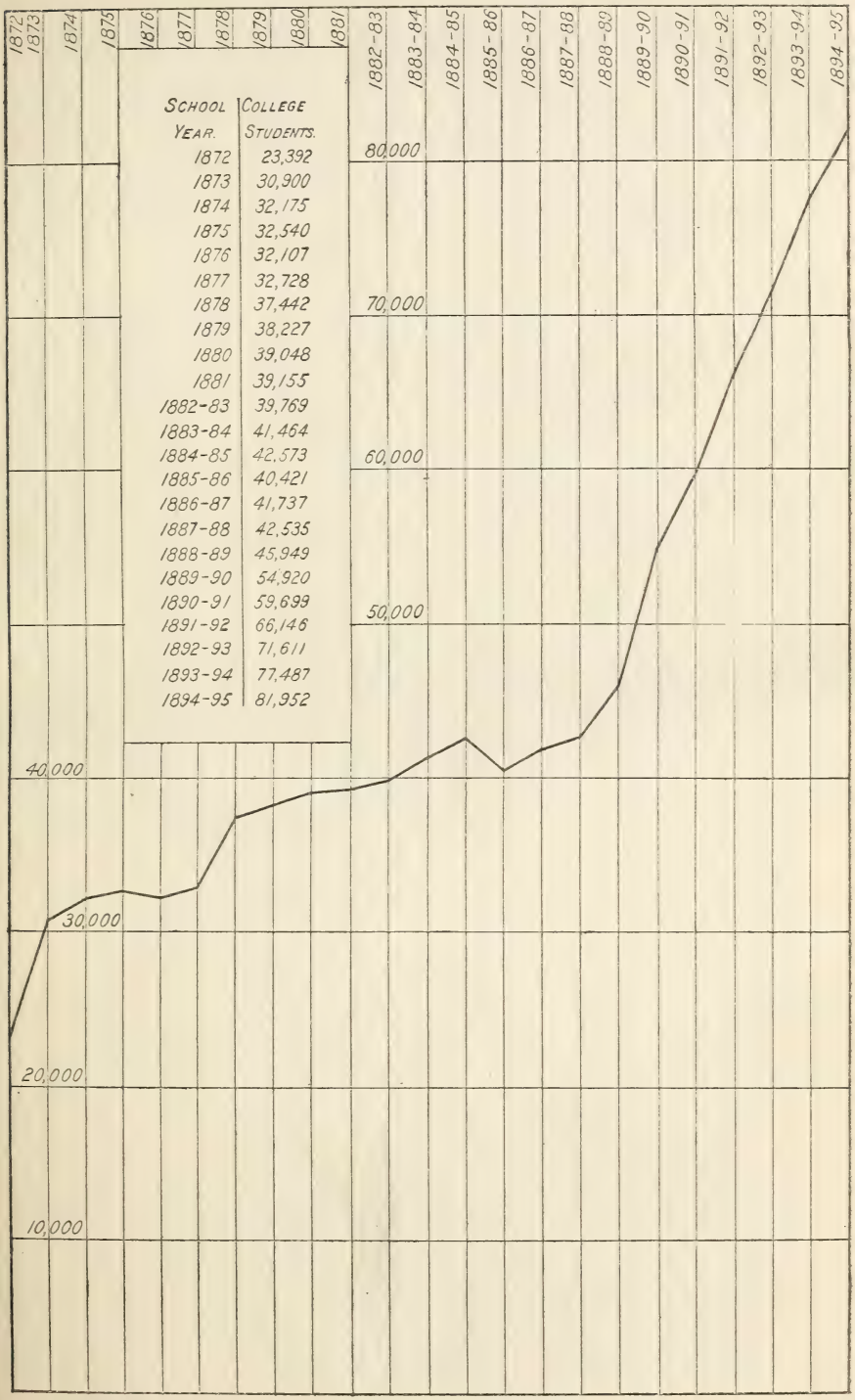
funds, $109,562,433. The benefactions for the year, so far as reported, amounted to $8,342,728, and the income, excluding benefactions, was $17,918,174.

Colleges for women.—The 162 colleges for women had, in 1894–95, 2,552 instructors and 24,663 students. The material equipment was valued at $15,568,508 and the endowment funds amounted to $5,308,558. The income was $3,456,983 and the benefactions received during the year amounted to $611,245.

Schools of technology.—The number of schools of technology, excluding technological departments of universities and colleges, was 48, having 1,118 instructors and 12,816 students. The total value of all property was reported at $24,105,242, of which amount $10,384,293 was reported as endowment funds. The income of these institutions was $3,526,018, of which amount $2,402,332 was appropriated by the General and State governments. The gifts and bequests received by the schools of technology amounted to but $96,133.

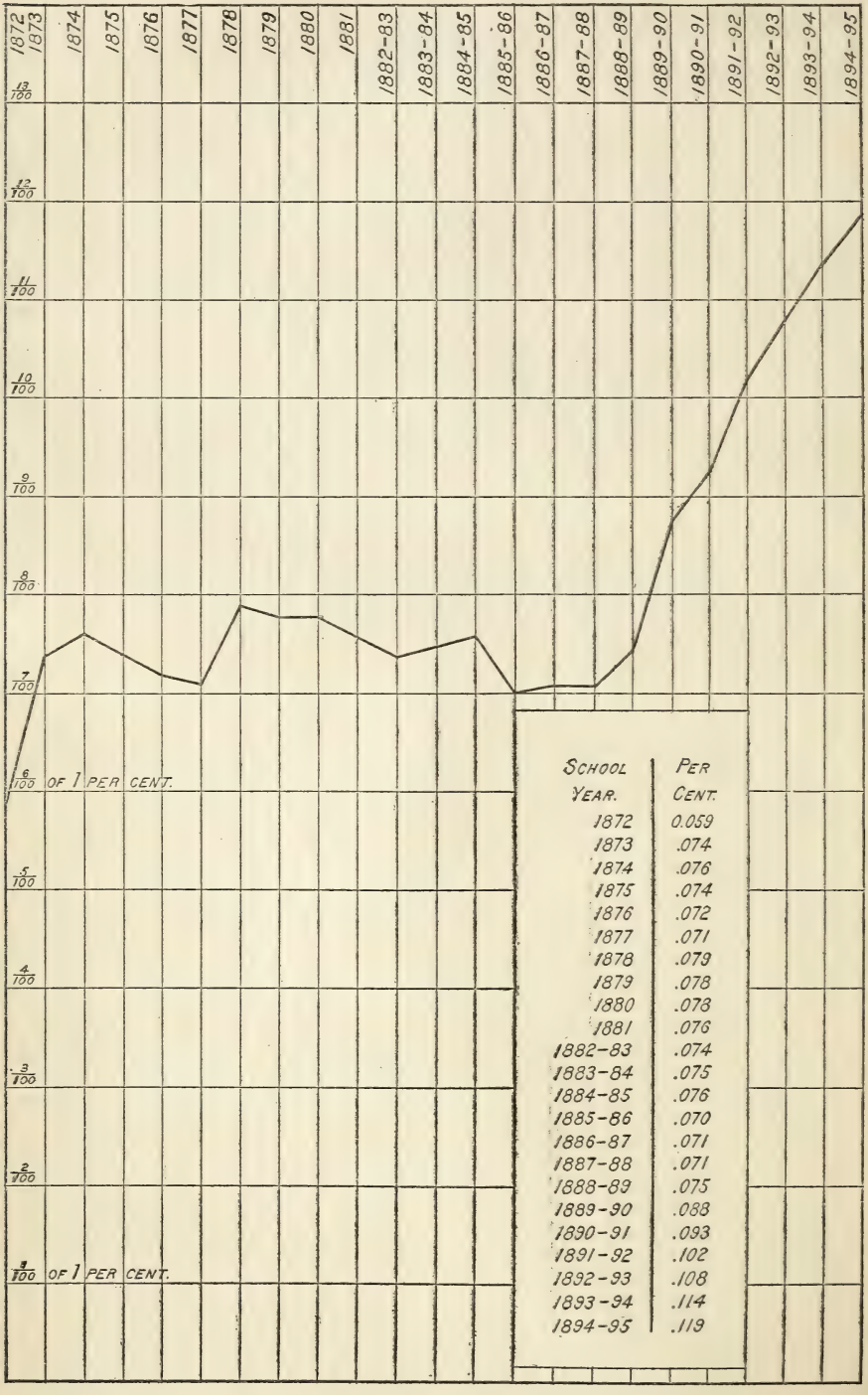
Diagrams 8 and 9 show in graphic form the trend of higher education since 1872.

DIAGRAM 8.—*Showing number of college students each year since 1872.*



SCHOOL YEAR.	COLLEGE STUDENTS.
1872	23,392
1873	30,900
1874	32,175
1875	32,540
1876	32,107
1877	32,728
1878	37,442
1879	38,227
1880	39,048
1881	39,155
1882-83	39,769
1883-84	41,464
1884-85	42,573
1885-86	40,421
1886-87	41,737
1887-88	42,535
1888-89	45,949
1889-90	54,920
1890-91	59,699
1891-92	66,146
1892-93	71,611
1893-94	77,487
1894-95	81,952

DIAGRAM 9.—*Showing what per cent of the total population was enrolled as college students during each year since 1872.*



School Year.	Per Cent.
1872	0.059
1873	.074
1874	.076
1875	.074
1876	.072
1877	.071
1878	.079
1879	.078
1880	.078
1881	.076
1882-83	.074
1883-84	.075
1884-85	.076
1885-86	.070
1886-87	.071
1887-88	.071
1888-89	.075
1889-90	.088
1890-91	.093
1891-92	.102
1892-93	.108
1893-94	.114
1894-95	.119

Professional schools.—There are 155 schools of medicine in the United States, 144 of theology, 73 schools of law, 46 of dentistry, and 44 of pharmacy. The number of students in schools of theology shows but little variation from year to year, but in schools of law, dentistry, and medicine there is a rapid increase.

Of the 144 schools of theology 57 are in the North Central Division, 45 in the North Atlantic, 19 in the South Atlantic, 17 in the South Central, and 6 in the Western Division.

Of the 155 medical schools, 116 are regular, 20 homeopathic, 8 eclectic, 2 physiomedical, and 9 graduate. The whole number of medical students of all classes was 24,437, and the number graduating was 4,947. The number of law students was 9,780, dental 6,399, and pharmaceutical 3,873.

ACCORDING TO THE EUROPEAN STANDARD.

The question is often asked, How many students are there in higher education in the United States, measured by the European standard? It is well known that the gymnasium and realschule of Germany, the lycée and communal college of France, and the "public school" or college of England include in their course of study not only what is included in the curriculum of the secondary schools in the United States, but also some portion of the course in the colleges.

I have caused a table to be prepared for the United States, showing the number of students in higher education on the European standard. For this purpose it was necessary to omit the freshman year, and in most cases even the sophomore year in colleges, and make a corresponding reduction in the professional schools. The result for the United States and each of its census divisions is given in the following tables:

States.	Juniors.	Seniors.	Post graduates.	Law.	Medicine	Theology.	Total.
United States	15,025	12,249	5,316	5,541	16,772	8,071	62,974
North Atlantic Division	5,293	4,690	2,148	2,234	6,155	2,891	23,411
South Atlantic Division	2,095	1,482	501	786	1,829	2,886	7,579
South Central Division	1,915	1,314	305	242	1,675	1,054	6,505
North Central Division	4,902	4,198	2,068	2,074	6,591	3,149	22,982
Western Division	820	565	294	205	522	91	2,497

ENGLISH EDUCATION BILL.

Chapter II presents a detailed account of the most important event in the recent history of education in England, namely, the attempt in the current year to secure the passage of a new education bill. The need of legislation in the interests both of elementary schools and of secondary education has long been recognized and was urged by the royal commission on elementary education of 1886 and the more recent commission on secondary education. The fact that the bill dealt with

both phases of the problem, and was the measure of a party the strongest in point of numbers that has controlled the Government in recent years, gives peculiar significance to its postponement. This occurred early in the committee stage, after the bill had passed its second reading by a majority of 267.

Although the measure was the outcome of causes that had long been operating, it was precipitated by promises of further aid to parochial (voluntary) schools made during the campaign of 1895 by the leaders of the Conservative party. The necessity of increasing the efficiency of these schools that are educating more than one-half (56 per cent) of the children was unquestioned, and the Government was bound not less by considerations of the public welfare than by party demands to redeem the pledges that had been made. Unfortunately, as the sequel shows, the measure was weighted with proposals that seemed at least to favor sectarian ascendancy in the schools. It was further complicated by proposals as to local authorities, which, although they were on the lines of recent reforms in local government, seemed to threaten the independence of the boroughs. These two vulnerable features roused intense and determined opposition.

The bill proposed to make every county and county borough a district of educational administration or altogether 126 new local authorities.

It is interesting to note in this connection the immense increase in the urban population in recent years. In 1891 it comprised 71.7 per cent of the entire population, or an increase of 15.3 per cent in ten years as against an increase of 3.4 per cent for the total population. If only towns of 10,000 inhabitants are considered, the ratios of their population to the total are found to be 56.3 per cent in 1881 and 61.5 per cent in 1891. The balance of power, it will be seen, has gone over to the towns.

A vigorous review of the bill is presented from an article by Sir Lyulph Stanley, a leader of the progressive school party.

EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

CURRENT STATISTICS.

Chapter III deals with the current statistics of education in Great Britain, and more particularly with those pertaining to England. The Government grant for elementary education amounted in 1895 to $31,324,170, which was 65 per cent of the entire expenditure.

In day schools, board and voluntary, the average expenditure per scholar was $10; in board schools only, it rose to $12.50 per capita, of which the Government contributed 58 per cent and local taxes (rates) 39 per cent. The voluntary day schools in which the per capita cost was $9.50 derived 50 per cent from the Government.

In the debate on the education bill it was shown that the difference between the average expenditure in board and voluntary schools amounted to nearly $3 ($2.80) per capita of attendance, which was but

a trifle greater than the difference in the amounts paid for teaching in the two classes of school.

This amount was $2.33 less per capita of attendance in voluntary than in board schools. In other words teachers in voluntary schools bore nearly the whole strain arising from the smaller income of voluntary schools, an injustice that would work disaster in the long run It was shown in the debate that while the Government was spending upon the army and navy at the rate of 30 shillings ($7.50) per capita of population, it was expending upon education only 7 shillings ($1.60) per capita. It was urged also that the expenditure per capita of pupils was less than in Scotland, Germany, France, Belgium, and Switzerland, and that the rates of expenditure in the United States per capita (of pupils) were far in excess of those in England.

The necessities of rural schools were particularly urged upon the House by Mr. Yoxall, who declared that the rural schools of England and Wales, taken as a whole, "were the worst supported, the worst staffed, and the worst managed of the public elementary schools in Europe."

The effects of the law providing for the remission of school fees are seen in the rapid increase in the number of free pupils, comprising 85 per cent of the total in 1895, in the increase of school attendance, and particularly in the increased attendance of pupils over 10 years of age.

Among additional statistics presented in Chapter III should be noted a table showing that the voluntary subscriptions to denominational schools have declined with the increase of Government liberality to the same, and a series of tables indicating the status of teachers with respect to qualification, position, and salaries.

It is interesting to observe that in five years the average salary of head mistresses has increased by $25, as against an average increase of $15 for head masters. At the same time complaint is made that teachers are poorly paid, not adequately protected in their positions, and subject to unjust discrimination as compared with other public servants, from the lack of a general pension allowance.

EDUCATION IN CENTRAL EUROPE.

Chapter IV, on Education in Central Europe, contains discussions of some of the peculiar features of the educational systems of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. The first sets forth in the words of Councilor Dr. Bertram, superintendent of public instruction in Berlin, the present status of industrial education in the capital of Germany, showing not only the various kinds of schools in existence for the benefit of trades and industries, but giving in detail their history and sources of support. The fact is revealed that the city of Berlin paid alone for trade schools and industrial evening and Sunday schools the large sum of $209,441 in the year 1894–95. These schools are all elementary and secondary, for the royal polytechnic is not counted among those enumerated.

The compensation of elementary school teachers in Germany is discussed in the same chapter with the view to finding the minimum averages in the various States of the Empire. The tables accompanying the article were first submitted to the German educational press by Professor Tews, of Berlin. They show that the teachers in Germany are paid less than in this country, but it must be remembered that they live rent free, or receive indemnity for rent. A similar minute statement regarding teachers' salaries in Austria is presented in this volume. The following is the result of the inquiry for Austria: 48.8 per cent of the men and 62.9 per cent of the women receive less than 600 florins (or $300); 42.5 per cent of the men and 32.5 per cent of the women receive between 600 and 1,000 florins ($300 to $500), and 8.7 per cent of the men and 4.5 per cent of the women receive more than 1,000 florins (or $500).

The work of reform schools in the Duchy of Baden is the subject of the next article. The imperial criminal code of 1876 decrees that no persons can be punished for crime before they are 12 years of age, but may be kept in custody for the purpose of reforming them according to the special State law. Such children may be placed under reform training, if both the criminal and orphan courts so decree. The special law in Baden (one of the 25 States of the Empire) fixes the maximum time limit at 16 years of age, and for certain specified cases even at 18 years. The Baden system of reform education recognizes two methods: Depraved and neglected children are taken from their homes and are either placed in other homes where they receive proper treatment and discipline, or they are sent to reform schools or reform farms. The account states the results of the two methods and other items of interest regarding sex, age, religion, cause of detention, and the per capita cost of maintaining reform schools.

The statistics of higher education in the German-speaking part of Europe (Germany, Austria proper, and Switzerland), which are presented in extensive tables, are complete, except in one point, i. e., the expenditure and income; this point can not be stated with accuracy, owing to the fact that the fees paid to private "docents" and extraordinary professors for lecture courses are not stated in official reports. A summary of the statistics of attendance is here given for 1894–95.

GERMANY.

	Number.	Professors.	Students.	Foreign students.
Universities	22	2,468	33,523	2,015
Polytechnica	9	887	8,153	900
Veterinary schools	5	77	980	15
Agricultural academies	4	101	1,093	101
Forestry academies	5	70	310	63
Mining academies	3	59	406	133
Total	48	3,662	44,465	3,227

AUSTRIA.

	Number.	Professors.	Students.	Foreign students.
Universities	10	1,118	14,343	1,622
Polytechnica	6	324	2,719	90
Agricultural academies	1	44	248	7
Mining academies	2	31	230	15
Total	19	1,531	18,040	1,734

SWITZERLAND.

Universities	7	635	3,800	1,341
Polytechnicum	1	135	757	326
Total	8	770	4,557	1,667
Higher seats of learning in German-speaking countries	75	5,963	67,062	6,628

There is therefore in Germany 1 professor for 12.1 students, an average of 78.4 professors and 926.3 students (of whom 67.2 are foreigners) to 1 higher seat of learning. Austria has 1 professor for 11.7 students, an average of 80.5 professors and 949.4 students (of whom 91.1 are foreigners) to 1 higher seat of learning. Switzerland has 1 professor for 5.9 students, an average of 96.2 professors and 569.6 students (of whom 208.3 are foreigners) to 1 higher seat of learning.

The following chapter (V) contains an account of music in the schools in Germany. It gives an historical review of that study and the present status of method.

The Annual Report of 1894–95, vol. 1, pages 449–471, contained a symposium on the question "Mental fatigue in school," a subject intimately connected with child study. In this report (Chapter XXIII) the subject is continued in an article compiled from the statements of leading physiologists and psychologists of Germany, England, and America.

A list of all the foreign universities, polytechnica, and higher agricultural, forestry, and mining schools has been compiled from the Jahrbuch of Prof. K. Trubner, of Strassburg (see Chapter XXXII). The institutions are arranged according to (1) date of founding, (2) number of students, (3) countries, and (4) alphabetically.

PUBLIC, SOCIETY, AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

In Chapter VIII is published the Bureau's quinquennial compilation of the statistics of public, society, and school libraries. The list embraces 4,026 libraries of 1,000 volumes and over, having in the agregate 33,051,872 volumes and 5,444,788 unbound pamphlets. The increase in number of libraries since 1891 has been only 523, but the increase in number of volumes was 7,074,229, or more than 27 per cent. For the year ending April 1, 1896, 2,851 libraries reported the addition of 1,591,861 volumes, and 2,233 of these libraries expended $1,574,410 for new books during the year. The aggregate income of 2,437 libra-

ries reporting was $5,911,636; 600 libraries received $1,679,210 from direct taxation; 773 received $1,513,352 from State, county, or city appropriations; 594 derived $1,035,052 from endowment funds; 883 received $386,441 from membership fees and dues; 303 collected $38,684 from book rents; 625 received $529,350 from donations, and 1,017 reported the receipt of $729,547 from sources not named. Only 605 libraries reported permanent endowments, which aggregate $17,570,673. The value of buildings owned by 567 libraries amounted to $33,291,259. In 1891 the average number of people per library was 17,877, while in 1896 the number was 17,376; in 1891 the number of books per 100 of population was 41, while in 1896 the number was 47. The statistician has prepared a chart showing the relative number of volumes to each 100 of population by States. The chapter contains a separate list of the 627 libraries entirely free to the public having 3,000 volumes and over. These 627 free libraries contain 9,062,363 volumes, and for the year ending April 1, 1896, they had issued 27,015,234 volumes for home use. The statistician also collected statistics from 3,158 libraries having 300 volumes and over and less than 1,000 volumes. For want of space the list is not published, but the returns are summarized by States, showing that the 3,158 libraries contained 1,544,386 volumes. A comparison of the statistics of libraries reporting 300 volumes and over in 1875, 1885, and 1896 will indicate the growth of libraries in the past twenty years:

Year.	Libraries reporting.	Volumes.
1875	3,648	12,329,526
1885	5,338	20,722,393
1896	7,184	34,596,258

Library legislation.—The library, in many of the States, is already considered an essential part of the educational system. Public sentiment, the forerunner of all real progress, seems to be making urgent demands for the library as a necessary adjunct to the public school. Cities and towns are agitating the question. The State legislatures, too, are yielding to public opinion and discussing the feasibility of appropriating money for the maintenance of public libraries.

In recognition of this growing interest in the subject, a chapter has been prepared (Chapter IX) containing a compilation of the library laws of the several States and Territories.

In Chapter X, Mons. E. Levasseur, a member of the Institute of France and a distinguished writer and statistician, has narrated the growth and expounded the doctrine of the education of the common people during the nineteenth century by the several States of Christendom. While not blind to the social unrest the education of the masses produces, he sees in the uncontrollable movement for their enlightenment the most distinguished claim that the present century will have upon the gratitude of posterity.

FRANCE.

The survey of public education in France (Chapter XI) emphasizes the effort made by the Republic to infuse into the centralized system the spirit of professional freedom.

The most important departure that has been made from the policy that prevailed under the Empire is the transformation of the State faculties into independent universities. This change, which was advocated in the earliest days of the Republic, and especially by Jules Ferry during his ministry (1879–1882), began to take practical shape in 1885.

The successive measures tending to the desired result are noted.

Finally (1890) a bill was introduced for organizing the faculties as universities. After varying fortunes the bill passed during the present year, although in a modified form. In fact it adds little more to the changes already effected than the title of minister. This, however, is not an empty name, for, as expressed by M. Rambaud, minister of public instruction, "The institution which is a university in all but the name, lacks legal existence in its true character."

The criticism, that the measure is opposed to the development of specialties, was met by the minister with particulars showing the impulse given to this very feature as the university idea has grown. This portion of the minister's speech, which is cited in full (pp. 624–625), affords an interesting view of the efforts made by the faculties to bring their scientific instruction and researches into fruitful relation with local industries. A similar tendency to specialization is noted in the faculty of letters, especially in the creation of chairs of local history and literature.

There are indications that under the new order the financial resources of the universities will be increased by private benefactions and by larger municipal subventions. The need of improvement both in the amount and management of the finances is shown by the director of superior instruction, M. Liard, who draws very suggestive comparisons between the budgets of German and French universities (cited, pp. 628–629).

The question of the correlation of secondary and superior courses is agitated in France, but in a form quite different from that which it assumes in our own country. The typical secondary schools of France, the lycées, comprise a complete course of liberal education leading to the baccalaureate degree; the superior courses have been heretofore purely special in their nature. Even the faculties of letters and arts, at least outside of Paris, have been engaged almost exclusively in preparing intending professors for the licentiate or the examination for special positions (agrégation). The endeavor has been for some time to attract other classes of students to these faculties—to make them, in short, centers of general study and thus prolong the period of liberal culture. This it is difficult to do without radical changes in the lycée,

the oldest and most tenacious feature of the French educational system. At present, discussion centers in the baccalaureate. So long as this remains the goal of the lycée it is difficult to extend the course of liberal training over into the faculties. Hence the proposition to abandon the baccalaureate or to substitute a leaving examination at the end of the lycée as discussed in Chapter XI.

The statistics of primary schools presented in the same chapter show a continuance of the decline in enrollment that has been noticed in previous years. From 1891 to 1895 the decrease was three-tenths of 1 per cent. This condition excites some attention because (1) the ratio of decline is greater for boys than for girls, and (2) because it takes place only in public schools and secular private schools, chiefly in the former. The opinion is expressed by M. F. Buisson that some error lurks in the figures respecting the enrollment of boys which, it is believed, will be discovered by further investigation.

It is interesting to note that of the teachers in public primary schools less than three-tenths of 1 per cent of the men and only 5 per cent of the women were without diplomas.

The current obligatory expenditure for public primary schools increased by very nearly $3,000,000 from 1892 to 1894, reaching in the latter year $37,048,012, or $8.78 per capita of enrollment and 97 cents per capita of the population. If the State expenditure for primary normal schools and the optional expenditure for primary schools borne by the communes be included, these per capita are raised to $10.24 and $1.13, respectively. The chapter contains a detailed statement of the requirements for admission to the French faculties (now universities), for which the office is indebted to M. Paul Melon, of Paris, general secretary of the committee of patronage of foreign students. Following this is a statement as to the status of foreign students of medicine in France, prepared by Mr. Henry Vignaud, chargé d'affaires of the United States at Paris.

Dr. Alcée Fortier, of Tulane University, Louisiana, has contributed an account of his personal observation of the annual competitive exercises of the lycée at the Sorbonne, and his subsequent visit to the lycée "Janson de Sailly," which gives a very lively conception of the methods and policies of secondary education in France.

Chapter XII deals with education in Mexico and Central America. A résumé of the history of education in Mexico is followed by an account of the educational convention of 1890 and of the work of the various institutions devoted to engineering and mining, medicine, agriculture, commerce and industry, fine arts, military and normal schools. To this is appended an examination of the educational status of the various Central American States.

Chapter XIII contains a report of the fifth International Prison Congress.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

One of the most valuable chapters in this report is Chapter XV, "Commercial education in Europe." To gather material for this report Professor James, its author, visited Europe, and on his return prepared this exceedingly valuable analysis of commercial education in Europe, particularly in Austria, France, and Germany. His object was not to present complete statistical tables as to number of schools, teachers, and students, but to give full information concerning a few typical institutions. The report places all the important information concerning these schools, including their curricula, into a form available for the use of teachers, principals, superintendents, and others who may contemplate the establishment of such schools in this country. Professor James advocates the commercial high school, which should run parallel with the present high school, and also the commercial school of higher grade, which should rank with the college or be organized in connection with existing colleges and universities.

SCANDINAVIA.

Chapter XX contains the latest educational information from Sweden, whose school system has been treated in full in previous reports (Report 1888–89, pp. 196–221; 1891–92, pp. 423–449), as well as the first presentation of the conditions of education in Iceland, the governor-general, Magnus Stephensen, having courteously furnished interesting details.

A movement to establish a university in Iceland is fostered by many learned men, natives of Iceland, who have received degrees from foreign universities. At the close of the sessions of the Althing in 1893 a committee of thirty members was formed to promote this object.

While in Denmark women are excluded from taking part in the affairs of local government, in Iceland, its dependency, widows and spinsters are privileged to vote in all church and parish matters.

In Sweden, as is the case in Norway and Denmark, church and state unite to educate the people; modern educational movements are discussed by the leading men of the country; commissions have investigated the subject of the health and eyesight of school children, the results of such investigation being to lessen the overpressure in the matter of school studies. The ambulatory schools, moved from house to house in the district, are agencies of rural education. Schools for the training of both sexes together are gradually being introduced; the universities of the three countries admit women to full university privileges. Manual training, which had its birth in these northern countries, is taught more especially from the practical side.

In Sweden the secondary schools do not form a continuation of the elementary grades, as in America, but reform movements are contemplated which may do away with one or more of the lower classes of the secondary schools, thus making the elementary schools directly preparatory to the secondary.

EDUCATION OF THE COLORED RACE.

Chapter XLII contains the statistics in detail of the 178 schools for the secondary and higher education of the colored race. These schools are distributed over 22 States, North Carolina having 27, Georgia 23, Tennessee 15, Virginia 13, South Carolina 12, Texas and Alabama 11 each. For the year ending June, 1896, these 178 schools had 40,127 students enrolled, an increase of 3,025 over the previous year. There had been an increase of 16 in the number of schools, most of these being public high schools. There were 25,092 pupils in the elementary grades, 13,563 students in the secondary grades, and 1,455 in the collegiate departments. A prominent feature in nearly all these schools except the public high schools is industrial training, the number reported as receiving industrial training in some branch being 12,341. There were 4,672 colored students studying to become teachers.

Chapter XXII comprises a study of superior and secondary education in the United States by Dr. Gabriel Compayré, rector of the University of Lyons, France. Dr. Compayré represented the ministry of public instruction, France, at the Columbian Exposition (Chicago, 1893), and took a leading part in the educational congresses. The survey of our superior and secondary education is translated from the official reports of his mission presented to the minister. The study derives special interest from the fact that Dr. Compayré writes as an expert, making the French system his point of departure for the criticism and commendation of our own. Hence we have here an international study in which salient features of systems wrought out by two distinct peoples are brought into comparison.

Chapter XXVIII deals with a subject indirectly yet particularly interesting to education. It contains an account of the Bertillon system of repressing crime by affording (it is claimed) an infallible means of identifying the habitual criminal, thus making operative the law which increases the punishment for a second offense. The merits of the Bertillon system have been proved by ten years of trial in France, and are attracting considerable attention elsewhere. In America it has many stanch and distinguished supporters. During the year 1896 New York adopted the system in its entirety, and a number of cities employ it. But its efficacy here is almost wholly dependent upon its universal adoption throughout the United States and Canada.

In Chapter XXVII the reports made to this Bureau by the presidents of all the colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts are given. The chapter also contains a statement giving the money value of the proceeds of the 9,600,000 acres of land granted by the Federal act of 1862, of the organization of farmers' institutes in the several States, and of the character of the new institution in Germany known as the Mechanical Engineering Experiment Institute.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

List of blank forms of inquiry sent out.

Schedules.	Items.	Schedules tabulated.	Schedules mailed, about—	Where information is tabulated in report for 1895–96.
State systems	74	50	100	Vol. 1, p. LV.
City systems	39	602	1,500	Chap. XXXVI, Vol. 2.
City and village systems	20	319	1,000	Chap. XXXVI, Vol. 2.
Public high schools	46	4,974	15,000	Chap. XXXVII, Vol. 2.
Private high schools	46	2,106	7,500	Chap. XXXVII, Vol. 2.
Normal schools	27	329	1,000	Chap. XXXVIII, Vol. 2.
Universities and colleges	38	484	1,000	Chap. XXXIX, Vol. 2.
Colleges for women	22	162	400	Chap. XXXIX, Vol. 2.
Schools of technology	33	48	100	Chap. XXXIX, Vol. 2.
University extension	6	20	50	Chap. XXXIX, Vol. 2.
Agricultural colleges	42	65	100	Chap. XXVII, Vol. 2.
Medical schools	15	155	210	Chap. XL, Vol. 2.
Theological schools	13	144	200	Chap. XL, Vol. 2.
Law schools	16	73	98	Chap. XL, Vol. 2.
Dental schools	12	46	75	Chap. XL, Vol. 2.
Schools of pharmacy	13	44	70	Chap. XL, Vol. 2.
Veterinary schools	11	10	14	Chap. XL, Vol. 2.
Schools for nurses	11	177	575	Chap. XL, Vol. 2.
Commercial schools	17	398	1,000	Chap. XLI, Vol. 2.
Schools for the colored race	33	178	600	Chap. XLII, Vol. 2.
Reform schools	23	86	300	Chap. XLIV, Vol. 2.
Institutions for the blind	29	37	100	Chap. XLIII, Vol. 2.
Institutions for the deaf	31	87	300	Chap. XLIII, Vol. 2.
Institutions for the feeble-minded	23	28	100	Chap. XLIII, Vol. 2.
Public, society, and school libraries	30	7,184	15,000	Chap. VIII, Vol. 1.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

[From 1867 to 1896.]

1. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1867–68. Barnard. 8°. pp. xl+856. Out of print.
2. Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on the condition and improvement of public schools in the District of Columbia. Barnard. 8°. pp. 912. Washington, 1871. (Reprinted as Barnard's Am. Jour. of Education, vol. 19.) Out of print.
3. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1870. Eaton. 8°. pp. 579. Washington, 1870. Out of print.
4. ——— 1871. Eaton. 8°. pp. 715. Washington, 1872. Out of print.
5. ——— 1872. Eaton. 8°. pp. lxxxviii+1018. Washington, 1873. Out of print.
6. ——— 1873. Eaton. 8°. pp. clxxviii+870. Washington, 1874.
7. ——— 1874. Eaton. 8°. pp. clii+935. Washington, 1875. Out of print.
8. ——— 1875. Eaton. 8°. pp. clxxiii+1016. Washington, 1876. Out of print.
9. ——— 1876. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccxiii+942. Washington, 1878. Out of print.
10. ——— 1877. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccvi+641. Washington, 1879. Out of print.
11. ——— 1878. Eaton. 8°. pp. cci+730. Washington, 1880.
12. ——— 1879. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccxxx+757. Washington, 1881. Out of print.
13. ——— 1880. Eaton. 8°. pp. cclxii+914. Washington, 1882. Out of print.
14. ——— 1881. Eaton. 8°. pp. cclxxvii+840. Washington, 1883. Out of print.
15. ——— 1882–83. Eaton. 8°. pp. ccxciii+872. Washington, 1884. Out of print.
16. ——— 1883–84. Eaton. 8°. pp. cclxxi+943. Washington, 1885. Out of print.
17. ——— 1884–85. Eaton-Dawson. 8°. pp. cccxvii+848. Washington, 1886. Out of print.
18. ——— 1885–86. Dawson. 8°. pp. xxi+792. Washington, 1887. Out of print.
19. ——— 1886–87. Dawson. 8°. pp. 1170. Washington, 1888. Out of print.
20. ——— 1887–88. Dawson. 8°. pp. 1209. Washington, 1888. Out of print.
21. Illiteracy, derived from census tables of 1860; Educational statistics, translation of article by Dr. A. Ficker; Virchow on schoolroom diseases; Education of French and Prussian conscripts; School organization, etc. pp. 70. (Circ. inf. August, 1870.) Out of print.
22. Public instruction in Sweden and Norway; The "folkehoiskoler" of Denmark. By C. C. Andrews. pp. 48. (Circ. inf. July, 1871.) Out of print.
23. Methods of school discipline. By Hiram Orcutt. pp. 14. (Circ. inf. November, 1871.) Out of print.
24. Compulsory education. By L. Van Bokkelen. pp. 17. (Circ. inf. December, 1871.) Out of print.
25. German and other foreign universities. By Herman Jacobson. pp. 43. (Circ. inf. January, 1872.) Out of print.
26. Public instruction in Greece, the Argentine Republic, Chile, and Ecuador; Statistics respecting Portugal and Japan; Technical education in Italy. By John M. Francis, George John Ryan, F. M. Tanaka. pp. 77. (Circ. inf. February, 1882.) Out of print.
27. Vital statistics of college graduates; Distribution of college students in 1870–71; Vital statistics in the United States, with diagrams. By Charles Warren. pp. 93. (Circ. inf. March, 1872.) Out of print.
28. Relation of education to labor. By Richard J. Hinton. pp. 125. (Circ. inf. April, 1872.) Out of print.
29. Education in the British West Indies. By Thomas H. Pearne. pp. 22. (Circ. inf. June, 1872.) Out of print.
30. The Kindergarten. By Baroness Marenholtz-Bülow, tr. by Elizabeth P. Peabody. pp. 62. (Circ. inf. July, 1872.) Out of print.
31. American education at the Vienna Exposition of 1873. pp. 79. (Circ. inf. November, 1872.) Out of print.
32. Historical summary and reports on the systems of public instruction in Spain, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Portugal. pp. 66. (Circ. inf. 1, 1873.) Out of print.
33. Schools in British India. By Joseph Warren. pp. 30. (Circ. inf. 2, 1873.)

34. College commencements for the summer of 1873, in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. pp. 118. (Circ. inf. 3, 1873.) Out of print.
35. List of publications by members of certain college faculties and learned societies in the United States, 1867–1872. pp. 72. (Circ. inf. 4, 1873.) Out of print.
36. College commencements during 1873 in the Western and Southern States. pp. 155. (Circ. inf. 5, 1873.) Out of print.
37. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C. (1874). pp. 77. (Circ. inf. 1, 1874.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: Uniform plan and form for publishing the principal statistical tables on education, by George J. Lucky; Scientific and industrial education and the true policy of the National and State Government in regard to it, by Hon. A. D. White; The International Centennial Exposition as a world-wide educator, by W. D. Kelley; Report by the committee on the relations of the General Government to education in the District of Columbia.
38. Drawing in public schools; present relation of art to education in the United States. By Isaac Edwards Clarke. pp. 56. (Circ. inf. 2, 1874.) Out of print.
39. History of secondary instruction in Germany. By Herman Jacobson. pp. 87. (Circ. inf. 3, 1874.) Out of print.
40. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association. Washington, D. C. (1875). pp. 114. (Circ. inf. 1, 1875.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: The legal prevention of illiteracy, by B. G. Northrop; Brain culture in relation to the schoolroom, by A. N. Bell; The origin of the alphabet, by Prof. J. Enthoffer; American education at the Centennial Exposition, by J. P. Wickersham; Can the elements of industrial education be introduced into our common schools? by John D. Philbrick; Industrial drawing in public schools, by Prof. Walter Smith.
41. Education in Japan. By William E. Griffis. pp. 54. (Circ. inf. 2, 1875.) Out of print.
42. Public instruction in Belgium, Russia, Turkey, Servia, and Egypt. By Emile de Laveleye, M. de Salve, V. E. Dor. pp. 108. (Circ. inf. 3, 1875.) Out of print.
43. Waste of labor in the work of education. By Paul A. Chadburne. pp. 16. (Circ. inf. 4, 1875.) Out of print.
44. Educational exhibit at the International Centennial Exhibition, 1876. pp. 26. (Circ. inf. 5, 1875.)
45. Reformatory, charitable, and industrial schools for the young. By Julia A. Holmes and S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 208. (Circ. inf. 6, 1875.) Out of print.
46. Constitutional provisions in regard to education in the several States. By Franklin Hough. pp. 130. (Circ. inf. 7, 1875.) Out of print.
47. Schedule for the preparation of students' work for the Centennial Exhibition. By A. J. Rickoff, J. L. Pickard, James H. Smart (committee). pp. 15. (Circ. inf. 8, 1875.)
48. Education in China. By William A. P. Martin. pp. 28. (Circ. inf. 1, 1877.) Out of print.
49. Public instruction in Finland, the Netherlands, Denmark, Würtemberg and Portugal; the University of Leipzig. By Felix Heikel, C. H. Pluggé, and J. L. Corning. pp. 77. (Circ. inf. 2, 1877.) Out of print.
50. Training of teachers in Germany. pp. 36. (Circ. inf. 1, 1878.) Out of print.
51. Elementary education in London, with address of Sir Charles Reed. pp. 24. (Circ. inf. 2, 1878.)
52. Training schools for nurses. By S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 21. (Circ. inf. 1, 1879.) Out of print.
53. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, 1877 and 1879, Washington, D. C.; Proceedings of the conference of college presidents and delegates, Columbus, Ohio, December, 1877. pp. 192. (Circ. inf. 2, 1879.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: Proceedings of 1877: The school organization of a State; National aid to education; What has been done by the General Government in aid of education, by John Eaton; General appropriation of public lands; Proceeds of sales of public lands; Disposition of surplus revenue by States; American education, by George B. Loving; The high-school question, by James H. Smart.
    Partial contents: Proceedings of 1879: Popular education in Switzerland, by John Hitz; Popular education in France, by E. C. Wines; Technical education, by E. A. Apgar; Kindergarten training, by Louise Pollock; Education in the South, by G. J. Orr; The needs of the United States Bureau of Education; Instruction in governmental ideas, by Wm. Strong; Technical education and industrial drawing, by Walter Smith; Education at the Paris Exposition, by John D. Philbrick; What has been done by the National Government in aid of education, by John Eaton; American education, by George B. Loving; The high-school question, by James H. Smart; Collegiate degrees, by John M. Gregory.
    Partial contents: Proceedings of the conference of the presidents and other delegates of the State universities and State colleges of Ohio for 1877; Collegiate degrees, by J. M. Gregory; Scientific studies and courses of study; Report on the military system in State colleges, by Edward Orton.
54. Value of common-school education to common labor. (Reprinted from Annual Report, 1872.) pp. 37. (Circ. inf. 3, 1879.) Out of print.

55. Training schools for cookery. By S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 49. (Circ. inf. 4, 1879.) Out of print.
56. American education as described by the French commission to the International Exhibition of 1876. By Ferdinand Buisson and others. pp. 37. (Circ. inf. 5, 1879.) Out of print.
57. College libraries as aids to instruction. By Justin Winsor and Otis H. Robinson. pp. 27. (Circ. inf. 1, 1880.) Out of print.
58. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1880. pp. 112. (Circ. inf. 2, 1880.)
    Partial contents: Bell's system of visible speech, by L. A. Butterfield; Education of dependent children, by C. D. Randall; Best system of schools for a State, by J. H. Smart; University education, by David C. Gilman; Technical education in its relations to elementary schools, by J. D. Philbrick; Technological museums, by J. D. Philbrick; The Tenth Census from an educational point of view, by W. T. Harris; Discussion of the high-school question, by J. W. Dickinson, W. T. Harris, J. P. Wickersham; Congress and the education of the people, by W. H. Ruffner; Laws relating to the State public school for dependent children at Coldwater, Michigan. Outline of the school systems of the various States.
59. Legal rights of children. By S. M. Wilcox. pp. 96. (Circ. inf. 3, 1880.) Out of print.
60. Rural school architecture. By T. M. Clark. pp. 106. (Circ. inf. 4, 1880.) Out of print.
61. English rural schools. By Henry W. Hulbert. pp. 26. (Circ. inf. 5, 1880.) Out of print.
62. Instruction in chemistry and physics in the United States. By F. W. Clarke. pp. 219. (Circ. inf. 6, 1880.) Out of print.
63. The spelling reform. By Francis A. March. pp. 36. (Circ. inf. 7, 1880.) Out of print.
64. Construction of library buildings. By William F. Poole. pp. 26. (Circ. inf. 1, 1881.)
65. Relation of education to industry and technical training in American schools. By E. E. White. pp. 22. (Circ. inf. 2, 1881.) Out of print.
66. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, New York, 1881, pp. 79. (Circ. inf. 3, 1881.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: Uniformity of school statistics, by Andrew McMillan; The conservation of pedagogic energy, by C. O. Thompson; Our schools and our forests, by Franklin B Hough; Museums illustrative of education, by John Eaton; Education and the State, by J. W. Patterson.
67. Education in France. pp. 144. (Circ. inf. 4, 1881.) Out of print.
68. Causes of deafness among school children, and the instruction of children with impaired hearing. By Samuel Sexton. pp. 47. (Circ. inf. 5, 1881.) Out of print.
69. Effects of student life on the eyesight. By A. W. Calhoun. pp. 29. (Circ. inf. 6, 1881.) Out of print.
70. Inception, organization, and management of training schools for nurses By S. A. Martha Canfield. pp. 28. (Circ. inf. 1, 1882.) Out of print.
71. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, 1882. pp. 112. (Circ. inf. 2, 1882.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: Information necessary to determine the merits of the heating and ventilation of a school building, by John S. Billings, U. S. A.; The chemical examination of air as applied to questions of ventilation, by Dr. Charles Smart, U. S. A.; Obstacles in the way of better primary education, by H. Jones; Chairs of pedagogy in our higher institutions of learning, by G. Stanley Hall; National aid to education, from a Northern standpoint, by Dexter H. Hawkins; Education in Alaska, by Sheldon Jackson; Resolution respecting a national appropriation for education in Alaska; Some fundamental inquries concerning the common-school studies, by John M. Gregory; How to improve the qualifications of teachers, by W. T. Harris.
72. University of Bonn. By Edmond Dreyfus-Brisac. pp. 67. (Circ. inf. 3, 1882.) Out of print.
73. Industrial art in schools. By Charles G. Leland. pp. 37. (Circ. inf. 4, 1882.) Out of print.
74. Maternal schools in France. pp. 14. (Circ. inf. 5, 1882.) Out of print.
75. Technical instruction in France. pp. 63. (Circ. inf. 6, 1882.) Out of print.
76. Legal provisions respecting the examination and licensing of teachers. pp. 46. (Circ. inf. 1, 1883.) Out of print.
77. Coeducation of the sexes in the public schools of the United States. pp. 30. (Circ. inf. 2, 1883.)
78. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1883. pp. 81. (Circ. inf. 3, 1883.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: Natural history in public schools, its utility and practicability as illustrated by the methods adopted in New York City, by Albert S. Bickmore; Communication respecting industrial education, by Chas. G. Leland; The educational lessons of the census, by Wm. T. Harris; If universal suffrage, then universal education, by Atticus G. Haygood; Constitutionality of national aid to education, by Wm. Lawrence; Indian education, by B. G. Northrup, S. C. Armstrong, Alice C. Fletcher; School supervision: How and by whom the fitness of pupils for promotion is determined, by C. G. Edwards and others.
79. Recent school-law decisions. By Lyndon A. Smith. pp. 82. (Circ. inf. 4, 1883.) Out of print.
80. Meeting of the International Prison Congress at Rome. pp. 11. (Circ. inf. 1, 1884.) Out of print.

81. The teaching, practice, and literature of shorthand. (Second and enlarged edition.) By Julius E. Rockwell. pp. 184. (Circ. inf. 2, 1884.) Out of print.
82. Illiteracy in the United States. With appendix on national aid to education. By Charles Warren and J. L. M. Curry. pp. 99. (Circ. inf. 3, 1884.) Out of print.
83. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1884. pp. 176. (Circ. inf. 4, 1884.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: Supervision of public schools, by John W. Holcombe; Indian education, by J. M. Haworth; Indian education, by R. H. Pratt; Indian education, by S. C. Armstrong; Arbor day in the public schools, by J. B. Peaslee; Arbor day in the public schools, by B. G. Northrop; Recess, by W. T. Harris; No recess, by S. A. Ellis; How a State superintendent can best advance popular education, by E. E. Higbee; National aid for the support of public schools, by J. W. Dickinson; The educational status and needs of the South, by Robert Bingham; Legislation respecting national aid to education, proposed by the interstate educational convention, with remarks and tables; The new bill for national aid to public schools, by B. G. Northrop; Industrial education, by John M. Ordway; Public instruction in industrial pursuits, by A. P. Marble; Education at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition; The new order of Mercy, or Crime and its prevention, by George T. Angell; Education of the normal color sense, by B. Joy Jeffries; Supplementary reading, by George J. Luckey; Reading, by Chas. G. Edwards; Reading, by J. O. Wilson.
84. Suggestions respecting the educational exhibit at the New Orleans Exposition. 1884–85. pp. 28. (Circ. inf. 5, 1884.) Out of print.
85. Rural schools. Progress in the past; means of improvement in the future. By Annie Tolman Smith. pp. 90. (Circ. inf. 6, 1884.) Out of print.
86. Aims and methods of the teaching of physics. By Charles K. Wead. pp. 158. (Circ. inf. 7, 1884.)
87. City school systems in the United States. By John D. Philbrick. pp. 207. (Circ. inf. 1, 1885.) Out of print.
88. Teachers' institutes. By James H. Smart. pp. 206. (Circ. inf. 2, 1885.) Out of print.
89. Review of the reports of the British royal commissioner on technical instruction, with notes. By Chas. O. Thompson. pp. 55. (Circ. inf. 3, 1885.)
90. Education in Japan. pp. 56. (Circ. inf. 4, 1885.) Out of print.
91. Physical training in American colleges and universities. By Edward Mussey Hartwell. pp, 183. (Circ. inf. 5, 1885.) Out of print.
92. Study of music in public schools. By Charles Warren. pp. 78. (Circ. inf. 1, 1886.) Out of print.
93. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1886. pp. 91. (Circ. inf. 2, 1886.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: School superintendence a profession, by M. A. Newell; Duties of county superintendents, by D. L. Kiehle; Reading circles for teachers, by Jerome Allen; The coeducation of the races, by Chas. S. Young; National aid to education, by J. A. Lovett; The education and religious interests of the colored people in the South, by S. M. Finger; Forestry in education, by Warren Higley; Language work, by N. C. Dougherty; Growth and benefits of reading circles, by Herbert M. Skinner; City superintendence, by J. W. Akers; On the substitution of "Intermediate" for "Grammar" as a designation in the nomenclature of graded schools.
94. The college of William and Mary. By Herbert B. Adams. pp. 89. (Circ. inf. 1, 1887.)
95. Study of history in American colleges and universities. By Herbert B. Adams. pp. 299. (Circ. inf. 2, 1887.) Out of print.
96. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1887. pp. 200. (Circ. inf. 3, 1887.) Out of print.
    Partial contents: Public education on the Pacific coast, by F. M. Campbell; The examination and certification of teachers, by Andrew J. Rickoff, and report of committee on; Civil service and public schools: I, by Le Roy D. Brown, II, by Thomas P. Ballard; Powers and duties of school officers and teachers: I, by A. P. Marble, II, by J. M. Green; The best system of county and city supervision, by E. E. Higbee; Industrial education in our public schools: I, by F. W. Parker, II, by W. B. Powell; The province of the public school, by J. W. Dickinson; What a small city is doing in industrial education, by H. W. Compton; A system of grading for country schools, by J. W. Holcombe; The best system of State school supervision, by Warren Easton; State text-books, by F. M. Campbell; The nation and the public schools, by H. W. Blair; Education in Alaska, by Sheldon Jackson.
97. Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia. By Herbert B. Adams pp. 308. (Circ. inf. 1, 1888.) Out of print.
98. History of education in North Carolina. By Charles Lee Smith. pp. 180. (Circ. inf. 2, 1888.) Out of print.
99. History of higher education in South Carolina. By C. Meriwether. pp. 247. (Circ. inf. 3, 1888.) Out of print.
100. Education in Georgia. By Chas. Edgeworth Jones. pp. 154. (Circ. inf. 4, 1888.)
101. Industrial education in the South. By A. D. Mayo. pp. 66. (Circ. inf. 5, 1888.) Out of print.

102. Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, Washington, D. C., 1888. pp. 165. (Circ. inf. 6, 1888.) Out of print.
Partial contents: How and to what extent can manual training be ingrafted in our system of public schools? by Chas. H. Ham. Discussed by A. P. Marble, Nicholas Murray Butler, H. H. Belfield, M. A. Newell, Chas. H. Ham; What is the purpose of county institutes, and how is it best secured? by Jessie B. Thayer; Elocution: Its place in education, by Martha Fleming; How shall the qualifications of teachers be determined? by A. S. Draper; Are the normal schools as they exist in our several States adequate to accomplish the work for which they were established? by J. P. Wickersham. Discussed by J. W. Dickinson, Jerome Allen, Edward Brooks, and A. G. Boyden; Moral education in the common schools, by William T. Harris; Can school programmes be shortened and enriched? by Charles W. Eliot; Alaska, by N. H. R. Dawson; The relation of the superintendent and the teacher to the school, by A. E. Winship; National aid to education.
103. History of education in Florida. By George Gary Bush. pp. 54. (Circ. inf. 7, 1888.)
104. Report on school architecture and plans for graded schools. pp. 136. (Reprinted from Annual Report, 1868.)
105. Suggestions for a free-school policy for United States land grantees. pp. 6. 1872. Out of print.
106. Statement of the theory of education in the United States, approved by many leading educators. pp. 22. 1874. Out of print.
107. National Bureau of Education; its history, work, and limitations. By Alexander Shiras. pp. 16. 1875. Out of print.
108. Educational conventions and anniversaries, 1876. pp. 187. Out of print.
109. International conference on education, held in Philadelphia in connection with the International Exhibition of 1876. pp. 92. 1879. Out of print.
110. List of public-school officials in the States and Territories of the United States, 1875. pp. 62. 1875. Out of print.
111. Manual of common native trees of the Northern United States. pp. 23. 1877. Out of print.
112. Are the Indians dying out? By S. N. Clark. pp. 36. 1877. Out of print.
113. International educational congress to be held at Brussels, Belgium, August, 1880. pp. 10. 1880. Out of print.
114. Indian school at Carlisle barracks. pp. 5. 1880.
115. Industrial education in Europe. pp. 9. 1880.
116. Vacation colonies for sickly school children. pp. 4. 1880.
117. Progress of western education in China and Siam. pp. 13. 1880.
118. Educational tours in France. pp. 4. 1880.
119. Medical colleges in the United States. pp. 3. 1881. Out of print.
120. Comparative statistics of elementary education in 50 principal countries. (Folding sheet.) 1881. Out of print.
121. Fifty years of freedom in Belgium; Education in Malta; Third international geographical congress at Venice, 1881; Illiteracy and crime in France; School savings banks; Education in Sheffield. pp. 8. 1881.
122. Organization and management of public libraries. By William F. Poole. (Reprint from Pub. Librs. in the U. S. A., 1876.)
123. Library aids. By Samuel Green. pp. 10. 1881. Out of print.
124. Recognized medical colleges in the United States. pp. 4. 1881. Out of print.
125. Discipline of the school. By Hiram Orcutt. pp. 15. 1881. (Reprint of Circ. of information. November, 1871.) Out of print.
126. Education and crime. By J. P. Wickersham. pp. 10. 1881. Out of print.
127. Instruction in morals and civil government. By A. Vessiot. pp. 4. 1882.
128. Comparative statistics of elementary, secondary, and superior education in 60 principal countries. 1880. (Folding sheet.) Out of print.
129. National pedagogic congress of Spain. pp. 4. 1882. Out of print.
130. Natural science in secondary schools. By F. Mühlberg. pp. 9. 1882.
131. High schools for girls in Sweden. pp. 6. 1882. Out of print.
132. Buffalini prize. pp. 5. 1883. Out of print.
133. Education in Italy and Greece. pp. 8. 1883.
134. Answers to inquiries about the United States Bureau of Education. By Charles Warren. pp. 29. 1883. Out of print.
135. Planting trees in school grounds. By Franklin B. Hough. pp. 8. 1883. Out of print.
136. Southern Exposition of 1883–84, Louisville, Ky. (Two pamphlets relating to the exhibit of the United States Bureau of Education.) pp. 17. 1883. pp. 7. 1884. Out of print.
137. Preliminary circular respecting the exhibition of education at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition. pp. 11. 1884. Out of print.
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139. Building for the children of the South. By A. D. Mayo. pp. 16. 1884. Out of print.

140. Statistics regarding the national aid to education. pp. 3. 1885.
141. Planting trees in school grounds, and celebration of Arbor Day. By Franklin B. Hough and John P. Peaslee. p. 8 + 64. 1885. Out of print.
142. International educational congress at Havre. pp. 6. 1885. Out of print.
143. Statistics of public libraries in the United States. pp. 98. 1886. (Reprinted from Annual Report, 1884–85.) Out of print.
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Note.—First edition incomplete, printed pursuant to a call of House of Representatives, January 19, 1870. Second edition published as Volume XXI of Barnard's Journal of Education. pp. 807. Out of print.
145. Contributions to the annals of medical progress and medical education in the United States before and during the War of Independence. By Joseph M. Toner. pp. 118. 8°. Washington, 1874. Out of print.
146. Historical sketch of Mount Holyoke Seminary. By Mary O. Nutting. Edited by F. B. Hough. pp. 24. 12°. Washington, 1876. Out of print.
147. Historical sketch of Union College. By F. B. Hough. pp. 81. 8°. Washington, 1876. Out of print.
148. Public libraries in the United States of America, their history, condition, and management. Part I. Edited by S. R. Warren and S. N. Clark. pp. xxxv + 1187. Rules for a printed dictionary catalogue; Part II. By C. A. Cutter. pp. 80. 8°. Washington, 1876. Out of print.
149. Contribution to the history of medical education and medical institutions in the United States of America, 1776–1876. By S. N. Davis. pp. 60. 8°. Washington, 1877. Out of print.
150. Sketch of the Philadelphia Normal School for Girls. pp. 30. 8°. Washington, 1882. Out of print.
151. Historical sketches of the universities and colleges of the United States. Edited by F. B. Hough. (History of the University of Missouri.) pp. 72. 8°. Washington, 1883. Out of print.
152. Industrial education in the United States. pp. 319. 8°. Washington, 1883. Out of print.
153. Art and industry—Industrial and high art education in the United States. By I. Edwards Clarke. Part I. Drawing in the public schools. pp. cclix + 842. Washington, 1885. Out of print.
Note.—There are two other editions, with slightly varying titles; one ordered by the Senate, the other by Congress.
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157. Higher education in Wisconsin. By Wm. F. Allen and David E. Spencer. pp. 168. (Circ. inf. 1, 1889.) Out of print.
158. Rules for a dictionary catalogue. By C. A. Cutter. pp. 33. 1st ed., Pt. II of public libraries in the United States, with corrections and additions. (Spec. rep., 1876.) Out of print.
159. Indian education. By T. J. Morgan. pp. 28. (Bulletin 1, 1889.)
160. Proceedings of Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association. Washington, March, 1889. pp. 300. (Circ. inf. 2, 1880.) Out of print.
Partial contents: Training of teachers: Psychology in its relation to pedagogy, by Nicholas Murray Butler; City training and practice schools, by W. S. Jackman; Purpose and means of city training schools, by S. S. Parr; County institutes, by Albert G. Lane; State teachers' institutes, by John W. Dickinson; Manual training, its relation to body and mind, by C. M. Woodward; The psychology of manual training, by W. T. Harris; Educational value of manual training, by Geo. P. Brown; The work of the city superintendent, by T. M. Balliet; The school principal, by George Holland; Teachers' examinations, by M. A. Newell; The State and higher education, by Fred. M. Campbell, Herbert B. Adams; Education in the South, by W. R. Garrett; National aid to education, by H. W. Blair.
161. History of Federal and State aid to higher education in the United States. By Frank W. Blackmar. pp. 343. (Circ. inf. 1, 1890.) Out of print.
162. Rules for a dictionary catalog. By C. A. Cutter. 2d ed. of Pt. II of pub. libs. in the U. S., with corrections. pp. 133. 2d ed. (Spec. rep., 1889.) Out of print.
163. History of education in Alabama, 1702–1889. By Willis G. Clark. pp. 281. (Circ. inf. 3, 1889.) Out of print.
164. Honorary degrees as conferred in American colleges. By Charles Foster Smith. No. 1. 1890. pp. 12. (Misc. pub. or bulletin.)

165. English-Eskimo and Eskimo-English vocabularies. Compiled by Roger Wells, jr., and John W. Kelly. pp. 72. (Circ. inf. 2, 1890.) Out of print.
166. Rules and regulations for the conduct of schools and education in the Dist. of Alaska. pp. 7. (Misc. pub. 1890.) Out of print.
167. Teaching and history of mathematics in the United States. By Florian Cajori. pp. 400. (Circ. inf. 3, 1890.) Out of print.
168. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior. 1890. pp. 17. (Misc. pub. 1890.) Out of print.
169. Preliminary report of the general agent of education for Alaska to the Commissioner of Education.—Introduction of Reindeer into Alaska. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 15. (Misc. pub. 1890.) Out of print.
170. Higher education in Indiana. By James Albert Woodburn. pp. 200. (Circ. inf. 1, 1891.) Out of print.
171. Fourth International Prison Congress, St. Petersburg, Russia. By C. D. Randall. pp. 253. (Circ. 2, 1891.) Out of print.
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173. Sanitary conditions of schoolhouses. By Albert P. Marble. pp. 123. (Circ. 3, 1891.) Out of print.
174. History of higher education in Michigan. By Andrew C. McLaughlin. pp. 179. (Circ. inf. 4, 1891.) Out of print.
175. History of higher education in Ohio. By Geo. W. Knight and John R. Commons. pp. 258. (Circ. inf. 5, 1891.) Out of print.
176. History of higher education in Massachusetts. By Geo. Gary Bush. pp. 445. (Circ. inf. 6, 1891.) Out of print.
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178. Rise and growth of the normal school idea in the United States. By J. P. Gordy. pp. 145. (Circ. inf. 8, 1891.) Out of print.
179. Biological teaching in the colleges of the United States. By John P. Campbell. pp. 183. (Circ. inf. 9, 1891.) Out of print.
180. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1891. pp. 21. (Misc. pub. 1891.)
181. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1888–89. Vol. 1. pp. lix+669. Out of print.
182. *Same.* Vol. 2. pp. vi+671–1669. Out of print.
183. Part I of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1888–89, with the Commissioner's introduction, and the contents of Parts I, II, and III. Special edition. pp. 274. (Spec. rep. 1891.) Out of print.
184. Report of the general agent of education in Alaska for the year 1888–89. (Reprint from An. Rep. 1888–89. pp. 753–764.) (Misc. pub. 1891.) Out of print.
185. Publications of the U. S. Bureau of Education from 1867–1890, with subject index. (Reprint from An. Rep. 1888–89. pp. 1453–1551.) (Misc. pub. 1891.) Out of print.
186. Southern women in the recent educational movement in the South. By A. D. Mayo. pp. 300. (Circ. inf. 1, 1892.) Out of print.
187. Analytical index to Barnard's American Journal of Education. 31 vols. 1855–1881. (Spec. rep. 1892.)
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190. Report on legal education. Prepared by committee of the American Bar Association, and the U. S. Bureau of Education. pp. 207. (Spec. rep. 1893.)
191. Education in Alaska, 1889–90. By Sheldon Jackson. (Reprint of chapter xvii An. Rep. 1889–90. pp. 1245–1300.) (Misc. pub. 1893.) Out of print.
192. Shorthand instruction and practice. By Julius E. Rockwell. pp. 206. (Circ. inf. 1, 1893.) Out of print.
193. History of education in Connecticut. By Bernard C. Steiner. Contributions to American educational history, No. 14. pp. 300. (Circ. inf. 2, 1893.) Out of print.
194. History of education in Delaware. By Lyman P. Powell. pp. 186. (Circ. inf. 3, 1893.) Out of print.
195. Abnormal man; being essays on education and crime and related subjects, with digest of literature and a bibliography. By Arthur MacDonald. pp. 445. (Circ. inf. 4, 1893.) Out of print.
196. Higher education in Tennessee. By Lucius Salisbury Merriam. Contributions to American educational history, No. 16. pp. 287. (Circ. inf. 5, 1893.) Out of print.
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198. Annual Report of Commisioner of Education, 1889-90. Vol. 1. xxvii+601. Out of print.
199. *Same.* Vol. 2. pp. vii+603-1724. Out of print.
200. Catalog of A. L. A. Library; 5,000 volumes for a popular library. pp. 592. (Spec. rep. 1893.)
201. Statistics of public libraries in the United States and Canada. By Weston Flint. pp. 213. (Circ. inf. 7, 1893.) Out of print.
202. Spelling reform. By Francis A. March. A revision and enlargement of the author's pamphlet, published by the U. S. Bureau of Education in 1881. pp. 86. (Circ. inf. 8, 1893.)
203. Education in Alaska, 1890-91. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 923-960. (From An. Rep. 1890-91.) (Misc. pub. 1893.) Out of print.
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209. History of education in Rhode Island. By William Howe Tolman. pp. 210. Contributions Am. ed'l hist. No. 18. (Circ. inf. 1, 1894.)
210. History of higher education in Maryland. By Bernard C. Steiner. pp. 331. Contributions to Am. ed'l hist. No. 19. (Circ. inf. 2, 1894.)
211. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1891-92. Vol. 1. pp. xxviii+636.
212. *Same.* Vol. 2. pp. v+637-1294.
213. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1894. By W. T. Harris. pp. 29. (Misc. pub. 1894.) Out of print.
214. Education in Alaska. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 873-892. (Reprint from An. Rep. 1891-92.) (Misc. pub. 1894.) Out of print.
215. Introduction of domesticated reindeer into Alaska, with maps and illustrations. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 187. (Reprint of Senate Executive Document No. 70, 53d Congress, second session.) (Misc. pub. 1894.) Out of print.
216. Art and industry. Education in the industrial and fine arts in the United States. By Isaac Edwards Clarke. Part II. Industrial and manual training in public schools. pp. cxlviii+1338. 8°. Washington, 1892. Out of print.
217. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1892-93. Vol. 1. pp. ix+1224. Out of print.
218. *Same.* Vol. 2. pp. v+1225-2153. Out of print.
219. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, 1895. pp. 27. Out of print.
220. Education in Alaska, 1892-93. By Sheldon Jackson. (From An. Rep. 1892-93. pp. 1705-1795.) Out of print.
221. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1893-94. Vol. 1.
222. *Same.* Vol. 2.
223. Education at the World's Columbian Exposition (1893), including reports and comments by American and foreign educators and delegates. (Reprint from An. Rep. 1892-93. pp. 423-690.) 1896.
224. Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress held at the Columbian Exposition. Ed. by Melvil Dewey. pp. 691-1014. (Reprint from An. Rep. 1892-93. Chapter IX.) Out of print.
225. Notes on education at the Columbian Exposition. By John Eaton. (Reprint from An. Rep. 1892-93. pp. 1015-1224.) Out of print.
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227. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1894-95. Vol. 1.
228. *Same.* Vol. 2.
229. Education in Alaska, 1893-94. (Misc. pub. 1894.)
230. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to Secretary of the Interior for 1896.
231. Education in Alaska, 1894-95. (Reprint of chapter xxviii An. Rep. 1894-95.)
232. Public, society and school libraries in the U. S., with statistics and legislation.
233. Annual Report of Commissioner of Education, 1895-96. Vol. 1.
234. *Same.* Vol. 2.
300. Our schools and our forests. By Franklin H. Hough. Address before Dept. of Superintendence Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1881. pp. 18. (Reprint from Circ. inf. 3, 1881.) (Misc. pub. 1881). Out of print.
301. Manual training. By C. M. Woodward. (Circ. inf. 2, 1889.) Out of print.
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304. Proceedings of the Dept. of Superintendence of the National Educational Association respecting State and city school reports. pp. 26. (Misc. pub. 1874.) Out of print.

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306. Needs of education in the South. By Gustavus G. Orr. pp. 13. Delivered before the Dept. of Superintendence of the Nat. Ed. Assoc.. 1879. (Misc. pub. 1879.) Out of print.
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308. Needs of the Bureau of Education. By John Eaton. Delivered before Dept. of Superintendence of Nat. Ed. Assoc., 1881. pp. 12. (Misc. pub. 1881.) Out of print.
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310. The World's Columbian Exposition, department of liberal arts. Circular No. 2. The educational exhibit at the World's Columbian Exposition. pp. 10. (Misc. pub. --.)
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318. Chilean International Exposition of 1875, to be held at Santiago (educational programme.) pp. 9. 1875. Out of print.
319. Synopsis of proposed centennial; history of American education, 1776 to 1876. pp. 18. 1875. Out of print.
320. Study of Anglo-Saxon. By F. A. March. pp. 10. (From An. Rep. 1876.)
321. Latin pronunciation. By W. G. Richardson. pp. 484–497. (From An. Rep. 1876.) Out of print.
322. Pronunciation of Greek in this country. By James R. Boise. pp. 480–483. (From An. Rep. 1876.) Out of print.
223. Education at the Paris Exposition, 1879. pp. 9. (From Circ. inf. 2, 1879.) Out of print.
324. Sale of diplomas. pp. 4. 1880. Out of print.
325. Report on education in Alaska, with maps and illustrations. By Sheldon Jackson. pp. 89. 1886. Out of print.
326. Bureau of Education. Ohio Valley and Central States Centennial Exposition, July 4 to October 28, 1888. Exhibit of the Bureau. Compiled by John W. Holcombe. (Folding sheet.) pp. 8. 16°. Out of print.
327. Annual statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior; being introductory chapter of the Education Report 1888–89. By N. H. R. Dawson. pp. 28. Out of print.
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STATISTICS OF STATE COMMON-SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

TABLE 1.—*The total population, the school population, and the adult male population.*

State or Territory.	Estimated total population in 1896.	The school population.				Estimated number of male persons 21 years and over in 1896.
		Estimated number of children 5 to 18 years of age in 1896.			Percentage of boys.	
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
United States	70,595,321	10,531,815	10,333,562	20,865,377	50.48	19,170,010
North Atlantic Division	19,520,400	2,484,345	2,467,252	4,951,597	50.19	5,636,500
South Atlantic Division	9,667,000	1,657,580	1,630,090	3,287,670	50.42	2,201,890
South Central Division	12,747,200	2,241,000	2,182,250	4,423,250	50.66	2,938,460
North Central Division	24,827,541	3,677,910	3,596,430	7,274,340	50.56	6,893,360
Western Division	3,833,180	470,980	457,540	928,520	50.72	1,469,860
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine	655,600	81,520	79,780	161,300	50.53	199,600
New Hampshire (1894)	389,000	43,400	43,300	86,700	50.06	122,100
Vermont	332,500	42,260	39,710	81,970	51.55	101,700
Massachusetts	2,547,000	290,200	292,200	582,400	49.83	756,300
Rhode Island	393,400	47,730	48,170	95,900	49.77	113,900
Connecticut	817,900	96,720	95,780	192,500	50.24	245,600
New York	6,722,000	825,120	826,738	a1,651,858	49.95	1,983,000
New Jersey	1,716,000	a220,995	a217,974	a438,969	50.09	491,300
Pennsylvania	5,947,000	836,400	823,600	1,660,000	50.38	1,653,000
South Atlantic Division:						
Delaware (1892)	173,200	24,750	24,080	48,830	50.69	48,900
Maryland	1,159,000	170,200	169,000	339,200	50.18	300,900
District of Columbia	273,600	33,720	35,720	69,440	48.55	76,590
Virginia	1,697,000	292,200	287,500	579,700	50.41	388,200
West Virginia	849,300	144,400	141,200	285,600	50.56	202,000
North Carolina	1,763,000	315,050	308,350	623,400	50.54	373,500
South Carolina	1,256,000	235,400	231,000	466,400	50.48	257,100
Georgia	2,015,000	361,700	353,600	715,300	50.57	436,500
Florida	480,900	80,160	79,640	159,800	50.17	118,200
South Central Division:						
Kentucky	1,993,000	329,900	322,900	652,800	50.53	483,300
Tennessee (1895)	1,857,000	323,400	312,000	635,400	50.89	422,800
Alabama	1,709,000	309,300	301,000	610,300	50.68	367,000
Mississippi (1895)	1,431,000	265,300	257,200	522,500	50.78	299,300
Louisiana	1,234,000	211,000	209,100	420,100	50.22	276,400
Texas	2,979,000	529,200	516,800	1,046,000	50.61	714,300
Arkansas	1,270,000	230,100	223,300	453,400	50.75	290,400
Oklahoma	274,200	42,800	39,950	82,750	51.73	84,960
North Central Division:						
Ohio	3,855,000	553,200	540,800	1,094,000	50.57	1,067,000
Indiana	2,289,000	341,100	335,000	676,100	50.45	621,300
Illinois	4,509,000	641,500	632,500	1,274,000	50.34	1,264,000
Michigan (1895)	a2,241,641	313,850	308,550	622,400	50.42	661,000
Wisconsin	2,054,000	309,200	304,600	613,800	50.37	562,200
Minnesota	1,641,000	239,600	235,100	474,700	50.48	473,900
Iowa	2,088,000	320,000	309,900	629,900	50.79	568,200
Missouri	3,005,000	471,600	463,200	934,800	50.45	791,500
North Dakota	303,600	42,830	40,060	82,890	51.67	93,000
South Dakota (1894)	401,300	60,130	57,370	117,500	51.16	118,100
Nebraska	1,111,000	170,900	163,600	334,500	51.08	316,300
Kansas	1,329,000	214,000	205,750	419,750	50.98	356,800
Western Division:						
Montana	209,800	19,140	18,750	37,890	50.52	103,800
Wyoming	99,700	11,010	10,260	21,270	51.78	44,420
Colorado	544,200	60,550	59,200	119,750	50.56	217,700
New Mexico	177,200	25,400	24,330	49,730	51.07	51,860
Arizona	78,380	10,060	9,860	19,920	50.52	31,150
Utah	258,500	42,430	41,440	83,870	50.59	67,720
Nevada	41,500	4,610	4,470	9,080	50.73	19,000
Idaho	143,400	19,960	18,850	38,810	51.43	53,510
Washington	479,700	55,730	53,070	108,800	51.20	201,700
Oregon	378,800	51,590	50,510	102,100	50.52	134,900
California	1,422,000	170,500	166,800	337,300	50.54	544,100

a By State census.

TABLE 2.—*Data from United States Census Reports of 1870, 1880, and 1890: (a) Relation of the school population to the total population and to the adult male population; (b) proportion of white school population of foreign birth or parentage; (c) percentage of foreign born in the total population*

State or Territory.	Number of children 5 to 18 years of age to every 100 persons of the total population.			Number of adult males to every 100 children 5 to 18 years of age in 1890.	Percentage of white children 5 to 18 years of age that were of foreign birth or parentage in 1890.	Percentage of foreign born of total population.		
	1870.	1880.	1890.			1870.	1880.	1890.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
					Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
United States	31.27	30.04	29.61	91.4	33.5	14.44	13.32	14.77
North Atlantic Division	28.30	26.87	25.39	114.4	45.8	20.49	19.40	22.34
South Atlantic Division	33.02	32.24	34.04	66.8	6.6	2.85	2.29	2.35
South Central Division	33.92	33.13	34.76	65.9	8.6	3.62	3.08	2.93
North Central Division	32.40	30.63	29.33	94.6	41.5	17.97	16.80	18.16
Western Division	25.57	25.13	24.33	156.7	44.7	31.64	28.29	25.46
North Atlantic Division:								
Maine	28.01	25.71	24.60	123.7	25.0	7.80	9.07	11.94
New Hampshire	24.75	22.80	22.29	140.8	38.4	9.30	13.34	19.21
Vermont	27.18	25.96	24.65	124.1	33.4	14.27	12.33	13.26
Massachusetts	25.51	23.98	22.87	129.9	60.5	24.24	24.87	29.35
Rhode Island	25.66	24.64	24.38	118.7	62.4	25.49	26.76	30.77
Connecticut	25.86	24.97	23.54	127.6	54.6	21.14	20.88	24.60
New York	28.09	26.32	24.57	120.1	54.8	25.97	23.83	26.19
New Jersey	29.01	27.98	26.04	109.9	48.3	20.85	19.60	22.77
Pennsylvania	30.55	29.43	27.92	99.6	32.3	15.48	13.73	16.08
South Atlantic Division:								
Delaware	31.84	29.11	28.19	100.1	17.3	7.31	6.46	7.81
Maryland	31.30	29.89	29.28	88.7	24.4	10.68	8.86	9.05
District of Columbia	27.01	26.87	25.38	110.3	26.3	12.34	9.64	8.15
Virginia	32.39	32.43	34.16	67.0	2.8	1.12	.97	1.11
West Virginia	34.13	33.37	33.62	70.7	5.9	3.87	2.95	2.48
North Carolina	33.60	32.30	35.35	59.9	.7	.28	.27	.23
South Carolina	33.15	33.21	37.14	55.1	2.3	1.14	.77	.54
Georgia	34.42	33.17	35.50	61.0	2.1	.94	.69	.66
Florida	34.03	32.82	33.23	74.0	11.5	2.65	3.68	5.86
South Central Division:								
Kentucky	34.41	33.14	32.76	74.0	8.7	4.80	3.61	3.19
Tennessee	34.13	33.44	34.22	66.5	2.9	1.53	1.08	1.13
Alabama	34.40	33.37	35.70	60.1	3.2	1.00	.77	.98
Mississippi	33.70	34.12	36.69	57.3	3.1	1.35	.81	.62
Louisiana	31.11	31.93	34.04	65.8	17.8	8.53	5.76	4.45
Texas	34.80	32.60	35.10	68.3	16.9	7.62	7.20	6.84
Arkansas	34.16	33.15	35.68	64.0	3.5	1.04	1.29	1.26
Oklahoma	.....	.....	30.18	102.7	9.6	.....	.....	4.43
North Central Division:								
Ohio	31.74	29.75	28.37	97.6	30.4	13.98	12.35	12.51
Indiana	33.75	31.37	29.54	91.9	17.8	8.42	7.29	6.67
Illinois	32.24	30.66	28.26	99.2	47.0	20.28	18.96	22.01
Michigan	30.28	28.37	27.77	106.2	56.1	22.63	23.73	25.97
Wisconsin	33.57	30.85	29.88	91.6	72.4	34.56	30.82	30.78
Minnesota	32.45	30.43	28.93	99.8	76.4	36.55	34.28	35.90
Iowa	33.06	31.40	30.17	90.2	42.6	17.14	16.11	16.95
Missouri	33.57	32.35	31.11	84.7	22.5	12.91	9.76	8.77
North Dakota	23.74	24.34	27.30	112.2	80.3	33.95	38.32	44.58
South Dakota			29.29	100.5	61.2			27.69
Nebraska	28.07	29.88	30.12	94.5	42.1	25.00	21.53	19.13
Kansas	29.83	31.73	31.59	85.0	26.4	13.28	11.05	10.36
Western Division:								
Montana	10.20	17.10	18.06	274.0	49.4	38.74	29.42	32.61
Wyoming	9.39	18.06	21.33	208.8	47.2	38.53	28.14	24.57
Colorado	22.47	18.72	22	181.8	36.3	16.55	20.48	20.38
New Mexico	31.90	29.85	28.07	104.3	13.2	6.12	6.73	7.33
Arizona	16.78	19.59	25.42	156.4	57.1	60.15	39.69	31.52
Utah	35.05	33.39	32.45	80.7	66.6	35.38	30.56	25.52
Nevada	12.56	18.22	21.87	209.3	60.8	44.25	41.20	32.14
Idaho	11.30	22.98	27.07	137.9	41.1	52.57	30.59	20.69
Washington	26.96	27.19	22.69	185.3	39.3	20.97	21.04	25.76
Oregon	32.34	28.63	26.96	132.1	27.9	12.76	17.45	18.27
California	24.48	25.03	23.72	161.3	51.8	37.45	33.87	30.32

TABLE 3.—*School ages of the several States—State school censuses.*

State or Territory.	Age for free attendance at the public schools.	Age for compulsory attendance.	School census.				
			Date of latest school census reported.	Age of children enumerated.	Number of children enumerated.		
					Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
North Atlantic Division:							
Maine	5-21	8-15	1896	4-21	.....	.....	209,798
New Hampshire	Over 5	6-16	(a)	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	5-21	8-15	1896	5-21	46,195	43,900	90,095
Massachusetts	No limit.	8-14 or 15	1896	5-15	.....	.....	417,335
Rhode Island	Over 5	7-15	1896	*b* 5-15	37,209	36,991	74,200
Connecticut	*c* 4-21	*d* 8-14 or 15	1896	4-16	.....	.....	174,529
New York	5-21	*d* 8-14	1896	5-18	.....	.....	1,651,858
New Jersey	5-20	7-12	1896	5-18	220,995	217,974	438,969
Pennsylvania	6-21	8-13	1896	8-13	.....	.....	(*e*)
South Atlantic Division:							
Delaware	6-21	(*f*)	1893	6-21	15,827	17,758	33,585
Maryland	5-20	(*f*)	(*g*)	.....	.....	.....	.....
District of Columbia	Over 6	*h* 6-15	1894	6-18	.....	.....	55,014
Virginia	5-21	(*f*)	1895	5-21	339,475	326,058	665,533
West Virginia	6-21	*i* 8-14	1896	6-21	155,105	141,412	296,517
North Carolina	6-21	(*f*)	1896	6-21	323,427	315,973	639,400
South Carolina	6-21	(*f*)	(*g*)	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	.....	(*f*)	1893	6-18	306,594	298,377	604,971
Florida	6-21	(*f*)	1896	6-21	78,666	73,932	152,598
South Central Division:							
Kentucky	6-20	7-14	1896	6-20	375,259	360,846	736,105
Tennessee	6-21	(*f*)	1895	6-21	370,252	350,671	720,923
Alabama	7-21	(*f*)	1895	7-21	.....	.....	590,757
Mississippi	5-21	(*f*)	1894	5-21	281,555	259,976	541,531
Louisiana	6-18	(*f*)	1895	6-18	.....	.....	400,502
Texas	8-17	(*f*)	1895	8-17	366,320	352,344	718,664
Arkansas	6-21	(*f*)	1896	6-21	234,128	222,608	456,736
Oklahoma	6-21	(*f*)	1896	6-21	45,596	42,911	88,507
North Central Division:							
Ohio	6-21	*d* 8-14	1896	6-21	606,946	573,036	1,179,982
Indiana	6-21	8-14	1896	6-21	379,406	354,320	733,726
Illinois	6-21	7-14	1896	Under 21	.....	.....	2,053,152
Michigan	5-20	*k* 8-14	1895	5-20	.....	.....	699,828
Wisconsin	4-20	7-13	1896	4-20	347,013	336,906	683,919
Minnesota	5-21	8-16	(*g*)	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	5-21	(*f*)	1896	5-21	367,009	353,166	720,175
Missouri	6-20	(*f*)	1896	6-20	490,284	472,911	963,195
North Dakota	6-20	8-14	1895	6-20	34,032	31,860	65,892
South Dakota	6-20	8-14	1896	6-20	46,093	41,990	88,083
Nebraska	5-21	*b* 8-14	1896	5-21	177,347	171,181	348,528
Kansas	5-21	8-14	1896	5-21	250,385	245,386	495,771
Western Division:							
Montana	6-21	8-14	1896	6-21	21,492	20,726	42,218
Wyoming	6-21	6-21	(*g*)	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	6-21	8-14	1896	6-21	63,804	61,795	125,599
New Mexico	6-21	8-16	1896	5-21	26,354	22,960	49,314
Arizona	6-18	(*f*)	1896	6-18	.....	.....	16,936
Utah	6-18	8-14	1896	6-18	40,000	39,393	79,393
Nevada	6-18	8-14	1896	6-18	4,625	4,464	9,089
Idaho	5-21	8-14	1896	5-21	22,155	21,590	43,745
Washington	5-21	8-15	1896	5-21	61,267	59,296	120,563
Oregon	4-20	8-14	1896	4-21	65,647	63,973	129,620
California	6-21	8-14	1896	5-17	166,890	163,722	330,612

a School census imperfect under the present system.
b Inclusive.
c Children under 5 may be excluded.
d To 16 if unemployed to labor.
e Census imperfect.
f No compulsory-attendance law.
g No school census.
h Compulsory law not in force.
i Compulsory-attendance law enacted in 1897.
k In cities, 7 to 16.

TABLE 4.—*Number of pupils enrolled in the common schools at various periods, and the relation of the enrollment to the school population.*

State or Territory.	Number of different pupils enrolled during the school year, excluding duplicates.				Per cent of school population (5 to 18 years of age) enrolled.			
	1870–71.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1895–96.	1870–71.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1895–96.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
United States	7,561,582	9,867,505	12,722,581	14,379,078	61.45	65.50	68.61	68.93
North Atlantic Division	2,743,344	2,930,345	3,112,622	3,463,912	77.95	75.17	70.45	69.97
South Atlantic Division	603.619	1,242,811	1,785,486	2,000,214	30.51	50.74	59.22	60.83
South Central Division	767.839	1,371,975	2,293,579	2,689,538	34.17	46.43	60.14	60.81
North Central Division	3,300,660	4,033,828	5,015,217	5,510,463	76.87	75.84	76.46	75.75
Western Division	146,120	288,546	515,677	714,951	54.77	64.96	70.01	77.00
North Atlantic Division:								
Maine	a 152,600	149,827	139,676	134,140	a 87.35	89.80	85.88	84.52
New Hampshire	71,957	64,341	59,813	b 62,437	91.31	81.32	71.28	b 72.03
Vermont	65,384	75,238	65,608	65,411	.....	87.21	.....	79.80
Massachusetts	273,661	306,777	371,492	424.353	72.34	71.76	72.56	72.88
Rhode Island	a 34,000	40,604	52,774	59,241	a 59.24	59.59	62.65	61.77
Connecticut	113,588	119,694	126,505	141,485	80.83	76.97	72.02	73.56
New York	1,028,110	1,031,593	1,042,160	1,176,074	82.98	77.10	70.71	71.18
New Jersey	169,430	204,961	234,072	280,330	63.20	64.77	62.21	63.87
Pennsylvania	834,614	937,310	1,020,522	1,120,441	76.35	74.37	69.53	67.50
South Atlantic Division:								
Delaware	20,058	27,823	31,434	c 33,174	50.04	65.20	66.19	c 67.93
Maryland	115,683	162,431	184,251	219,362	46.70	58.13	60.37	64.66
District of Columbia	15,157	26,439	36,906	42,464	41.60	55.40	63.10	60.29
Virginia	131,088	220.736	342,269	362,133	32,34	45.00	60.51	62.47
West Virginia	76,999	142,850	193,064	215,665	49.47	69.21	75.27	75.53
North Carolina	a 115,000	252,612	322,533	370,920	a 31.23	55.87	56.39	59.50
South Carolina	66,056	134,072	201,260	232,337	27.28	40.56	47 08	49.81
Georgia	49,578	236,533	381,297	423,786	11.89	46.24	58.45	59.25
Florida	14,000	39,315	92,472	100,373	21.21	44.16	71.10	62.81
South Central Division:								
Kentucky	d 178,457	d 276,000	399,660	400,126	.....	.....	65.64	61.29
Tennessee	a 140,000	300,217	447,950	e 478.125	a 32.00	58.21	74.05	e 75.23
Alabama	141.312	179,490	301,615	319,526	40.36	42.60	55 83	52.36
Mississippi	117,000	236.654	334,158	e 350,615	40.60	61.29	70.62	e 67.10
Louisiana	57,639	77,642	120,253	164,317	24.78	25.87	31.58	39.11
Texas	63,504	a 220,000	466,872	616,568	21.00	a 42.40	59.50	58.96
Arkansas	69,927	81,972	223,071	296,575	40.29	30.81	55.41	65.42
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	63,686	.....	.....	.....	76.95
North Central Division:								
Ohio	719,372	729,499	797,439	820,562	84.04	76.69	76.54	75.00
Indiana	450,057	511,283	512,955	543,665	78.64	82.39	79 21	80.40
Illinois	672,787	704,041	778,319	898,619	81.01	74.61	71.97	70.52
Michigan	292,466	362,556	427,032	e 476,684	79.66	78.08	73,45	e 76.58
Wisconsin	265,285	299,457	351,723	412,514	73.92	73.78	69.77	67.22
Minnesota	113,983	180,248	280,960	354,657	75.92	75.87	74.59	74.72
Iowa	341,938	426,057	493,267	543,052	84.44	83.52	85.51	86.20
Missouri	330,070	482 986	620,314	664,947	56.03	68.85	74.43	71.13
North Dakota	a 1,660	13,718	35,543	57.088	a 39.26	41.68	71.26	68.87
South Dakota			78,043	b 88,026			81.04	b 74.88
Nebraska	23,265	92,549	240,300	272,310	58.79	68.48	75.35	81.42
Kansas	89,777	231,434	399,322	378,339	74.22	73.23	88.56	90.14
Western Division:								
Montana	1,657	4,270	16,980	28,876	70.24	63.77	71.14	76.20
Wyoming	a 450	2,907	7,052	11,582	a 45.34	77.44	54.46	54.46
Colorado	4,357	22.119	65,490	94,686	42.28	60.82	72.20	79.07
New Mexico	a 1,320	4,755	18,215	23,359	a 4.42	13.32	42.25	46.98
Arizona	0	4,212	7,989	12,889	.....	53.16	52.72	64.71
Utah	16,992	24,326	37,279	66,710	53.36	50.61	55.26	79.54
Nevada	3,106	9,045	7,387	7,267	53.97	79.73	73.80	80.06
Idaho	906	5,834	14,311	32,560	46.06	77.85	62.66	83.88
Washington	a 5,000	14,780	55,964	90,113	a 69.00	72.36	70 58	82.78
Oregon	21,000	37,533	63,254	87,212	67.73	75.02	74.78	85.40
California	91,332	158,765	221,756	259,697	63.63	73.37	77.38	77.00

a Approximately. *b* In 1893–94. *c* In 1891–92. *d* Highest number enrolled. *e* In 1894–95.

TABLE 5.—*The school enrollment of 1895–96 classified by sex; per cent of the male and of the female school population enrolled, also of the total population.*

State or Territory.	Whole number of different pupils enrolled.			Per cent of school population (5 to 18 years of age) enrolled.			Per cent of the total population enrolled.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female	Male and female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
United States	a 7,307,639	a 7,071,439	14,379,078	69.39	68.43	68.93	20.37
North Atlantic Division	a 1,756,480	a 1,707,432	3,463,912	70.68	69.20	69.97	17.75
South Atlantic Division	a 1,009,840	a 990,374	2,006,214	60.91	60.76	60.83	20.69
South Central Division	a 1,368,194	a 1,321,344	2,689,538	61.07	60.54	60.81	21.10
North Central Division	a 2,809,125	a 2,701,338	5,510 463	76.38	75.12	75.75	22.19
Western Division	a 364,000	a 350,951	714,951	77.28	76.75	77.00	18.66
North Atlantic Division:							
Maine			134,140			84.52	20.46
New Hampshire (1893–94)	32,003	30,434	62,437	73.72	70.29	72.03	16.05
Vermont	33,491	31,920	65,411	79.25	80.38	79.80	19.67
Massachusetts			424,353			72.88	16.66
Rhode Island	30,148	29,093	59,241	63.17	60.41	61.77	15.06
Connecticut			141,485			73.50	17.30
New York			1,176,074			71.18	17.50
New Jersey	141,373	138,957	280,330	63.96	63.74	63.87	16.33
Pennsylvania			1,120,441			67.50	18.84
South Atlantic Division:							
Delaware (1891–92)			33,174			67.93	19.16
Maryland			219,362			64.66	18.93
District of Columbia	19,882	22,582	42,464	58.14	62.31	60.29	15.30
Virginia	182,944	179,189	362,133	62.60	62.33	62.47	21.34
West Virginia	113,554	102,111	215,665	78.65	72.32	75.53	25.40
North Carolina	188,178	182,742	370,920	59.73	59.25	59.50	21.04
South Carolina	116,091	116,246	232,337	49.31	50.33	49.81	18.50
Georgia	211,040	212,746	423,786	58.34	60.17	59.25	21.04
Florida	50,660	49,713	100,373	63.20	62.43	62.81	20.87
South Central Division:							
Kentucky	204,607	195,519	400,126	62.03	60.54	61.29	20.08
Tennessee (1894–95)	244,192	233,933	478,125	75.53	74.97	75.23	25.75
Alabama			319,526			52.36	18.70
Mississippi (1894–95)	175,672	174,943	350,615	66.20	68.03	67.10	24.62
Louisiana	82,726	81,591	164,317	39.21	39.03	39.11	13.32
Texas	311,895	304,673	616,568	58.96	58.95	58.96	20.70
Arkansas	153,946	142,629	296,575	66.91	63.87	65.42	23.34
Oklahoma	32,615	31,071	63,686	76.18	77.78	76.95	23.23
North Central Division:							
Ohio	422,635	397,927	820,562	76.38	73.58	75.00	21.28
Indiana			543,665			80.40	23.75
Illinois	456,648	441,971	898,619	71.18	69.88	70.52	19.93
Michigan (1894–95)	240,420	236,264	476,684	76.60	76.56	76.58	21.26
Wisconsin	208,787	203,727	412,514	67.53	66.88	67.22	20.09
Minnesota			354,657			74.72	21.62
Iowa			543,052			86.20	26.01
Missouri	336,112	328,835	664,947	71.25	70.99	71.13	22.13
North Dakota	30,102	26,986	57,088	70.27	67.37	68.87	18.80
South Dakota (1893–94)	46,549	41,477	88,026	77.42	72.30	74.88	21.93
Nebraska	139,633	132,677	272,310	81.72	81.10	81.42	24.52
Kansas	193,436	184,903	378,339	90.40	89.84	90.14	28.48
Western Division:							
Montana			28,876			76.20	13.77
Wyoming	5,865	5,717	11,582	53.25	55.73	54.46	11.62
Colorado	48,593	46,093	94,686	80.24	77.86	79.07	17.40
New Mexico	13,738	9,621	23,359	54.09	39.55	46.98	13.18
Arizona	6,789	6,100	12,889	67.45	61.86	64.71	16.45
Utah	33,476	33,234	66,710	78.88	80.18	79.54	25.82
Nevada	3,724	3,543	7,267	80.88	79.27	80.06	17.51
Idaho	16,439	16,121	32,560	82.36	85.52	83.88	22.71
Washington	45,859	44,254	90,113	82.28	83.37	82.78	18.79
Oregon	43,848	43,364	87,212	85.00	85.84	85.40	23.03
California	130,914	128,783	259,697	76.78	77.20	77.00	18.27

a Approximately.

TABLE 6.—*Per cent of the school population (i. e., children 5 to 18 years of age) enrolled in the public schools, for a period of years.*

Year.	United States.	North Atlantic Division.	South Atlantic Division.	South Central Division.	North Central Division.	Western Division.
1870–71	61.45	77.95	30.51	34.17	76.87	54.77
1871–72	62.20	77.33	32.27	37.94	77.04	54.43
1872–73	62.36	76.79	35.86	38.67	75.97	57.52
1873–74	64.40	77.77	42.10	40.82	76.98	61.04
1874–75	65.54	78.59	44.61	42.47	77.54	64.39
1875–76	64.70	78.55	46.72	37.36	77.05	66.37
1876–77	63.92	76.83	47.02	38.51	75.60	66.12
1877–78	65.75	77.09	48.85	43.50	77.38	66.26
1878–79	64.64	76.18	46.72	44.71	75.28	65.63
1879–80	65.50	75.17	50.74	46.43	75.84	64.96
1880–81	65.03	74.28	51.49	47.03	74.59	64.82
1881–82	65.03	74.56	51.90	47.02	74.15	65.93
1882–83	66.39	74.15	54.30	50.68	75.13	67.05
1883–84	66.96	72.83	56.25	53.59	75.06	68.01
1884–85	67.96	73.23	57.17	56.57	75.46	68.53
1885–86	68.14	72.63	57.68	56.82	76.03	68.03
1886–87	67.98	72.23	58.98	56.21	75.77	67.97
1887–88	68.33	71.60	58.68	58.67	75.96	68.53
1888–89	68.20	70.60	58.40	58.28	76.63	69.39
1889–90	68.61	70.45	59.22	60.14	76.46	70.01
1890–91	69.03	69.85	59.80	62.51	76.00	73.28
1891–92	69.06	69.98	58.88	63.14	75.85	75.32
1892–93	68.72	68.64	60.93	62.39	75.52	73.51
1893–94	69.39	69.63	61.74	63.37	75.73	73.33
1894–95 *a*	69.85	71.07	61.73	63.96	75.58	74.80
1895–96 *a*	68.93	69.97	60.83	60.81	75.75	77.00

a Subject to correction.

TABLE 7.—*The average daily attendance at various periods, and its relation in 1895–96 to the enrollment.*

State or Territory.	Average number of pupils attending school each day.				Number in daily attendance for each 100 enrolled in 1895–96.
	1870–71.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1895–96.	
1	2	3	4	5	6
United States	4,545,317	6,144,143	8,153,635	9,747,015	67.78
North Atlantic Division	1,627,208	1,824,487	2,036,459	2,394,190	69.10
South Atlantic Division	368,111	776,798	1,126,683	1,250,885	62.56
South Central Division	535,632	902,767	1,467,649	1,794,984	66.74
North Central Division	1,911,720	2,451,167	3,188,732	3,809,542	69.12
Western Division	102,646	188,924	334,112	497,414	69.58
North Atlantic Division:					
Maine	100,392	103,115	98,364	94,912	70.75
New Hampshire	48,150	48,966	41,526	a 42,030	a 67.30
Vermont	b 44,100	48,606	45,887	46,261	70.72
Massachusetts	201,750	233,127	273,910	321,685	75.78
Rhode Island	22,485	27,217	33,905	41,691	70.37
Connecticut	62,683	73,546	83,656	96,925	68.50
New York	493,648	573,089	642,984	772,054	65.64
New Jersey	86,812	115,194	133,286	175,895	62.74
Pennsylvania	567,188	601,627	682,941	802,737	71.65
South Atlantic Division:					
Delaware	b 12,700	17,439	19,649	b c 22,693	b c 68.40
Maryland	56,435	85,778	102,351	123,227	56.19
District of Columbia	10,261	20,637	28,184	32,153	75.72
Virginia	77,402	128,404	198,290	209,528	57.85
West Virginia	51,336	91,604	121,700	141,081	65.40
North Carolinia	b 73,000	170,100	203,100	231,725	62.47
South Carolina	b 44,700	b 90,600	147,799	170,201	73.27
Georgia	31,377	145,190	240,791	254,142	59.95
Florida	b 10,900	27,046	64,819	66,135	65.89
South Central Division:					
Kentucky	120,866	178,000	225,739	286,861	71.70
Tennessee	b 89,000	208,528	323,548	d 338,330	d 70.77
Alabama	107,666	117,978	182,467	b 204,000	b 63.84
Mississippi	90,000	156,761	207,704	d 202,683	d 57.81
Louisiana	b 40,500	b 54,800	87,536	115,316	70.18
Texas	b 41,000	b 132,000	291,941	440,249	71.40
Arkansas	b 46,600	b 54,700	b 148,714	171,948	57.79
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	35,597	55.90
North Central Division:					
Ohio	432,452	476,279	549,269	597,925	72.87
Indiana	295,071	321,659	342,275	401,702	73.90
Illinois	341,686	431,638	538,310	681,525	75.84
Michigan	b 193,000	b 240,000	b 282,000	b d 324,622	b d 68.11
Wisconsin	b 132,000	b 156,000	200,457	b 271,000	b 65.69
Minnesota	50,694	b 78,400	127,025	230,596	65.01
Iowa	211,562	259,836	306,309	345,242	63.57
Missouri	187,024	b 281,000	384,627	436,388	65 63
North Dakota	b 1,040	8,530	20,694	38,478	67.40
South Dakota			48,327	a b 54,500	a b 61.91
Nebraska	b 14,300	60,156	146,139	174,837	64.20
Kansas	52,891	137,669	243,300	252,727	66.79
Western Division:					
Montana	b 1,100	b 3,000	10,596	19,443	67.34
Wyoming	b 250	1,920	b 4,700	a 7,700	66.48
Colorado	2,611	12,618	38,715	62,410	65.93
New Mexico	b 880	3,150	b 13,000	15,937	68.22
Arizona	.....	2,847	4,702	7,641	59.28
Utah	12,819	17,178	20,967	45,658	68.43
Nevada	1,800	5,401	5,064	5,312	73.12
Idaho	b 600	4,863	b 9,500	24,256	74.48
Washington	b 3,300	10,546	36,946	63,212	70.15
Oregon	b 15,000	27,435	43,333	61,721	70.78
California	64,286	100,966	146,589	184,124	70.90

a In 1893–94. *b* Approximately. *c* In 1891–92. *d* In 1894–95.

TABLE 8.—*(1) Average length of school term at various periods. (2) Aggregate number of days' schooling given to all pupils. (3) The same compared with the school population and the enrollment (columns 7 and 8).*

NOTE.—Certain States report their school term in months. These have been uniformly reduced to days by multiplying by 20.

State or Territory.	Average number of days the schools were kept during the year.				Aggregate number of days' schooling given in 1895–96.	Average number of days' schooling given for every child 5 to 18 years of age in 1895–96.	Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled in 1895–96.
	1870–71	1879–80	1889–90	1895–96			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
United States	132.1	130.3	134.7	140.5	1,369,882,914	65.7	95.3
North Atlantic Division	152.0	159.2	166.6	175.5	420,086,277	84.8	121.3
South Atlantic Division	97.4	92.4	99.9	107.8	134,833,572	41.0	67.4
South Central Division	91.6	79.2	88.2	93.0	166,909,052	37.7	62.1
North Central Division	133.9	139.8	148.0	151.6	577,425,373	79.4	104.8
Western Division	119.2	129.2	135.0	142.0	70,623,640	76.1	98.8
North Atlantic Division:							
Maine	98.0	109.0	112.0	136.0	12,908,032	80.0	96.2
New Hampshire	70.0	105.3	117.7	a124.75	a5,243,243	a60.5	a84.0
Vermont	115.6	125.5	136.0	15.4	7,124,259	86 9	108.9
Massachusetts	169.0	177.0	177.0	18.6	59,833,410	102.7	141.0
Rhode Island	170.0	184.0	188.0	190.0	8,051,180	84.0	135.9
Connecticut	172.4	179.0	182.5	187.47	18,168,530	94.4	128.4
New York	176.0	178.5	186.5	175.00	146,492,465	88.7	124.6
New Jersey	178.0	192.0	192.0	184.00	34,148,333	77.8	121.8
Pennsylvania	127.2	133.4	147.6	159.6	128,116,825	77.2	114.4
South Atlantic Division:							
Delaware	132.0	158.0	166.0	bc160.00	bc3,640,881	bc74.6	bc109.7
Maryland	183.0	187.0	184.0	182.00	22,427,314	66.1	102.2
District of Columbia	200.0	193.0	178.0	182.00	6,041,695	85.8	142 3
Virginia	93.2	112.8	118.2	119.00	24,933,832	43.0	68.9
West Virginia	76.8	90.0	97.0	111.00	15,659,991	54.8	72.6
North Carolina	c50.0	50.0	59.2	65.4	15,154,815	24.3	40.9
South Carolina	c100.0	70.0	69.6	71.4	12,160,539	26.1	52.3
Georgia	59.0	c65.0	83.3	d110.5	c28,082,691	c39.3	c66.3
Florida	.....	.....	c120.0	102.00	6,731,814	42.1	67.1
South Central Division:							
Kentucky	c110.0	102.0	94.0	d115.00	c32,989,015	c50.5	c82.5
Tennessee	c77.0	68.0	86.0	d92.4	d31,261,692	d49.2	d65.4
Alabama	66.5	81.3	73.5	69.2	c14,116,800	c23.1	c44.2
Mississippi	110.0	74.5	c86.0	d105.4	d21,362,788	d40.9	d60.9
Louisiana	c65.0	78.8	100.6	105.8	11,723,496	27.9	71.3
Texas	c140.0	71.7	100.0	92.8	40,626,164	38.9	65.9
Arkansas	.....	.....	c75.0	69.68	11,981,337	26.4	40.4
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	80.00	2,847,760	34.4	44.7
North Central Division:							
Ohio	165.0	152.0	166.5	166.00	99,255,550	90.7	121.0
Indiana	98.5	136.0	130.0	a142.5	c57,242,500	c84.7	c105.3
Illinois	146.7	150.0	155.4	157.9	107,612,914	84.5	119.8
Michigan	140.0	150.0	156.0	d158.2	cd51,355,200	cd82.5	cd107.8
Wisconsin	155.0	165.0	158.6	a160.0	c43,360,000	c70.7	c105.1
Minnesota	c83.0	94.0	128.0	155.6	32,559,040	68.6	91.8
Iowa	130.0	148.0	156.0	160.00	55,238,720	87.7	101.7
Missouri	90.0	c104.0	129.4	140.00	61,094,320	65.4	91.9
North Dakota	c75.0	c96.0	113.0	107.5	4,139,365	49.9	72.5
South Dakota			145.0	ac136.00	ac7,456,800	ac63.4	ac84.7
Nebraska	72.0	82.0	140.0	158.9	27,183,724	83.1	102.0
Kansas	116.0	120.0	135.0	120.00	30,327,240	72.3	80.2
Western Division:							
Montana	c89.0	96.0	142.7	149 2	2,902,438	76.6	100.5
Wyoming	c200.0	119.0	c120.0	c90.00	c693.000	c32.6	c59.8
Colorado	92.0	c132.0	144.4	159.7	9,966,877	83.3	105.3
New Mexico	c111.0	111.0	c67.0	91.00	1,450,267	29.2	62.1
Arizona	0	109.0	126 0	126.8	968,879	48.6	75.2
Utah	152.0	128.0	123.0	152.00	6,940,016	82.8	104.0
Nevada	142.0	143.0	140.0	147.00	780,864	86.0	107.5
Idaho	c45.0	94.0	c69.8	104.00	2,522,624	65.0	77.5
Washington	c80.0	c91.0	97.2	89.2	5,638,510	51.8	62.6
Oregon	c90.0	90.0	118.2	c109.00	c6,727,589	c65.9	c77.1
California	123.0	146 6	157.6	174.00	32,037,576	95.0	123.3

a In 1893–94. *b* In 1891–92 *c* Approximately. *d* In 1894–95.

Observations on Table 8.—The "aggregate number of days' schooling given" to all pupils (see column 6), which is the same thing as the aggregate number of days attended by all the pupils, has been computed for those States which do not make an explicit report of this item by multiplying the average daily attendance of pupils by the average length of school term in days.

Conversely, the average length of school term (column 5) for the United States as a whole and for each of its geographical divisions has been obtained by dividing the aggregate number of days attended by the average daily attendance.

By this method the school term of each State, in taking the average, is in fact given a weight proportioned to the school attendance of the State, as should be done under a correct interpretation of the expression, "Average length of school term." The result might more properly be called "Average length of attendance," which is essentially what it is desired to know.

A method which has been in use in some States for finding the average school term, of a county, for instance, is to weight the different school terms of the towns or districts the county is composed of by the number of schools in each. In other words, the total number of days (or months) all the schools of a county were kept is divided by the total number of schools to get the average time each one was kept. So, in finding the average term for the State, the school is taken as the unit instead of the pupil, the Bureau's method. When the schools differ much in size (number of pupils), as they do in all mixed urban and rural systems, varying from some half a dozen to 500 or more pupils each, the average term obtained by this method varies considerably from that obtained by the foregoing. The long terms of the large city schools not being given their proper weight, the resulting average is too small. The same objection applies still more forcibly to weighting the school terms of the different counties or towns by the number of school districts in each.

Still another method is to add together the school terms of the different counties or towns and divide by the number of such counties or towns; i. e., the simple arithmetical mean is taken. An example of this occurs in the Indiana School Report of 1894 (p. 572) in the return from Marion County, where it is stated that 14,193 pupils in Indianapolis attended 185 days, and 856 pupils in West Indianapolis attended 160 days, while the average time the whole 15,049 pupils attended is computed at $172\frac{1}{2}$ days, although nearly all (16 out of every 17) attended 185 days. This method, if it can be so called, gives altogether too short an average term, and nothing can be said in defense of it. It is as if, wishing to get the population per square mile of Minnesota and Dakota combined, we said, Minnesota, 9.86; Dakota, 0.92; average number of persons per square mile in the combined territory $(0.92+9.86)\div 2=5.39$, instead of dividing the total population of the two States by the combined area in square miles.

The "aggregate number of days' attendance" is a statistical item of the utmost simplicity and of great value, about the meaning of which there can be little or no difference of opinion. Every teacher's register that records the number of pupils present each day in any school, as they all presumably do, contains the data for ascertaining it for that school for the school year by the simple process of addition or summing up.

TABLE 9.—*(1) Length of school term. (2) The aggregate number of days' schooling given compared with the school population.*

Year.	Average length of school term, in days.						Average number of days' schooling given for every child 5 to 18 years of age.					
	The United States.	North Atlantic Division.	South Atlantic Division.	South Central Division.	North Central Division.	Western Division.	The United States.	North Atlantic Division.	South Atlantic Division.	South Central Division.	North Central Division.	Western Division.
1870–71	132.1	152.0	97.4	91.6	133.9	119.2	48.7	70.2	18.1	21.8	59.6	45.9
1871–72	133.4	151.9	103.4	97.7	136.1	121.8	49.5	68.9	20.3	25.8	59.8	46.0
1872–73	129.1	154.6	97.4	89.1	129.6	118.3	47.8	67.9	21.7	23.4	56.8	45.0
1873–74	128.8	154.8	95.6	81.1	132.6	119.0	49.6	70.4	24.5	21.9	59.8	46.1
1874–75	130.4	158.7	95.2	81.0	134.6	132.5	51.0	72.9	26.1	23.5	60.2	53.6
1875–76	133.1	158.0	95.6	82.5	139.1	130.3	51.4	73.7	26.8	20.1	62.2	54.4
1876–77	132.1	157.2	91.4	80.3	139.8	130.1	51.1	73.6	26.3	19.8	62.3	54.3
1877–78	132.0	157.6	89.7	86.7	140.1	129.9	53.2	75.6	26.8	24.3	64.3	54.5
1878–79	130.2	160.1	88.6	81.9	136.4	132.0	52.0	75.0	25.7	23.9	62.3	56.7
1879–80	130.3	159.2	92.4	79.2	139.8	129.2	53.1	74.5	29.3	24.2	64.4	54.9
1880–81	130.1	158.7	92.4	82.1	138.8	133.8	52.0	72.2	28.5	25.0	62.7	56.9
1881–82	131.2	160.6	95.9	82.5	137.1	136.2	52.9	73.3	30.6	25.6	63.2	58.0
1882–83	129.8	161.0	95.9	82.5	137.1	132.6	53.8	74.4	32.0	26.8	63.9	57.3
1883–84	129.1	156.0	95.6	85.9	138.6	133.8	55.5	72.5	32.7	30.0	67.7	61.6
1884–85	130.7	163.1	93.4	87.5	130.8	131.8	56.8	77.2	33.7	31.4	67.3	58.3
1885–86	130.4	161.6	93.4	86.9	140.4	130.8	57.3	76.7	33.7	32.0	68.7	59.6
1886–87	131.3	165.9	95.3	87.5	139.5	131.6	57.7	77.8	34.8	32.1	68.7	59.1
1887–88	132.3	164.4	95.7	87.6	144.0	130.7	58.7	76.8	35.5	33.6	71.3	57.3
1888–89	133.7	164.1	95.0	88.9	147.5	135.7	58.9	76.7	35.4	34.0	71.6	61.7
1889–90	134.7	166.6	99.9	88.2	148.0	135.0	59.2	76.8	37.3	33.9	71.9	61.2
1890–91	135.7	168.1	103.8	92.0	145.8	136.9	60.4	77.9	37.9	35.5	73.0	64.0
1891–92	136.9	169.1	105.3	94.1	146.8	139.1	61.1	78.5	37.8	37.1	73.1	68.7
1892–93	136.3	169.6	103.4	93.0	146.6	138.8	61.4	78.5	38.6	36.6	74.4	67.5
1893–94	139.0	172.5	108.2	99.9	147.4	138.3	63.6	81.4	41.5	40.6	74.6	69.1
1894–95*a*	141.4	173.5	106.0	99.6	152.9	142.6	65.3	84.6	40.9	40.7	77.0	73.3
1895–96*a*	140.5	175.5	107.8	93.0	151.6	142.0	65.7	84.8	41.0	37.7	79.4	76.1

a Subject to correction.

TABLE 10.—*Number and sex of teachers—Percentage of male teachers.*

State or Territory.	Whole number of different teachers employed.			Percentage of male teachers.			
	Male.	Female.	Total.	1870–71.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1895–96.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
United States	130,366	269,959	400,325	41.0	42.8	34.5	32.6
North Atlantic Division	18,619	78,448	97,067	26.2	28.8	20.0	19.2
South Atlantic Division	20,166	24,953	45,119	63.8	62.5	49.1	44.7
South Central Division	31,328	27,990	59,318	67.5	67.2	57.5	52.8
North Central Division	54,042	123,880	177,922	43.2	41.7	32.4	30.4
Western Division	6,211	14,688	20,899	45.0	40.3	31.1	29.7
North Atlantic Division:							
Maine	*a* 1,268	*a* 5,518	6,786	*a* 24.4	*a* 27.2	*a* 16.0	*a* 18.7
New Hampshire	*b* 280	*b* 2,907	*b* 3,187	15.0	16.8	9.8	*b* 8.8
Vermont	379	2,572	2,951	16.5	16.8	12.0	12.8
Massachusetts	1,078	11,197	12,275	12.7	13.2	9.8	8.8
Rhode Island	185	1,517	1,702	*a* 20.4	20.2	12.6	10.9
Connecticut	*ac* 433	*ac* 3,529	*ac* 3,962	*a* 22.1	*a* 22.8	*a* 13.4	*ac* 10.9
New York	5,421	28,399	33,820	22.9	26.0	16.9	16.0
New Jersey	779	4,841	5,620	32.5	28.5	18.4	13.9
Pennsylvania	8,796	17,968	26,764	42.8	45.5	34.2	32.9
South Atlantic Division:							
Delaware	*ad* 218	*ad* 622	*d* 840	*a* 29.9	*a* 46.6	*a* 31.0	*ad* 26.0
Maryland	1,106	3,510	4,616	45.0	42.6	27.8	24.0
District of Columbia	136	895	1,031	8.2	7.8	13.0	13.2
Virginia	3,003	5,414	8,417	64.5	61.8	41.5	35.7
West Virginia	3,828	2,626	6,454	79.0	75.2	63.4	59.3
North Carolina	4,294	3,591	7,885	*a* 73.2	*a* 71.3	59.1	54.5
South Carolina	2,028	2,419	4,447	62.4	59.5	49.6	45.6
Georgia	4,507	4,414	8,921	71.4	*a* 65.2	53.3	50.5
Florida	1,046	1,462	2,508	*a* 65.7	61.6	48.0	41.7

a Approximately. *b* In 1893–94. *c* In 1894–95. *d* In 1891–92.

TABLE 10.—*Number and sex of teachers—Percentage of male teachers*—Continued.

State or Territory.	Whole number of different teachers employed.			Percentage of male teachers.			
	Male.	Female.	Total.	1870–71.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1895–96.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
South Central Division:							
Kentucky	4,962	5,247	10,209	*a* 66.0	64.6	49.8	48.6
Tennessee	*b* 5,157	*b* 3,756	*b* 8,913	*a* 75.0	74.4	61.8	*b* 57.9
Alabama	4,260	2,921	7,181	66.8	63.8	62.9	59.3
Mississippi	*b* 3,647	*b* 4,208	*b* 7,855	*a* 60.8	61.2	49.6	*b* 46.4
Louisiana	1,391	2,146	3,537	50.9	46.1	44.7	39.3
Texas	6,815	6,402	13,217	*a* 77.3	*a* 75.0	61.1	51.6
Arkansas	4,391	2,282	6,673	*a* 75.6	78.4	68.5	65.8
Oklahoma	705	1,028	1,733	.....	.....	.....	40.7
North Central Division:							
Ohio	10,305	14,875	25,180	43.2	47.8	43.1	40.9
Indiana	7,130	7,754	14,884	60.5	57.5	51.1	47.9
Illinois	7,057	18,359	25,416	43.5	39.7	32.5	27.8
Michigan	*b* 3,634	*b* 12,379	*b* 16,013	26.3	29.2	22.3	*b* 22.7
Wisconsin	2,440	9,894	12,334	*a* 28.8	28.9	19.8	19.8
Minnesota	2,544	8,975	11,519	33.7	35.9	23.9	22.1
Iowa	5,614	22,507	28,121	39.0	33.6	20.6	20.0
Missouri	5,913	8,931	14,844	65.3	58.1	44.4	39.8
North Dakota	1,043	1,984	3,027	} *a* 24.7	*a* 40.8	{ 28.3	36.1
South Dakota	*c* 1,368	*c* 3,448	*c* 4,816	}		{ 29.0	*c* 28.4
Nebraska	2,700	7,368	10,068	51.9	40.7	27.1	26.8
Kansas	4,294	7,406	11,700	47.2	45.1	40.8	36.7
Western Division:							
Montana	226	730	956	*a* 60.3	38.5	22.9	23.6
Wyoming	105	360	465	*a* 28.6	44.3	22.4	22.6
Colorado	747	2,174	2,921	48.8	36.4	26.2	25.6
New Mexico	341	243	584	*a* 91.7	78.0	*a* 62.2	58.4
Arizona	113	211	324	.....	47.5	38.8	34.9
Utah	493	692	1,185	55.0	54.5	46.6	41.6
Nevada	48	242	290	32.4	46.7	16.3	16.6
Idaho	262	465	727	*a* 64.3	57.4	*a* 33.4	36.0
Washington	1,184	2,061	3,245	*a* 46.5	37.4	40.6	36.5
Oregon	1,287	2,030	3,317	*a* 51.7	48.3	43.3	38.8
California	1,405	5,480	6,885	40.0	33.6	21.4	20.4

a Approximately. *b* In 1894–95. *c* In 1893–94.

TABLE 11.—*Showing, for a period of years, what per cent of the whole number of teachers were males.*

Year.	United States	North Atlantic Division.	South Atlantic Division.	South Central Division.	North Central Division.	Western Division.
1870–71	41.0	26.2	63.8	67.5	43.2	45.0
1871–72	41.3	26.1	63.4	68.3	43.4	43.5
1872–73	41.2	26.1	63.3	68.9	42.8	43.0
1873–74	41.6	26.8	62.9	69.4	42.5	44.5
1874–75	42.2	26.7	63.3	69.1	42.5	44.1
1875–76	42.3	27.9	63.1	68.0	42.4	45.3
1876–77	42.8	28.2	62.7	67.8	43.0	44.4
1877–78	43.1	28.5	62.6	67.7	42.8	43.0
1878–79	43.3	29.1	62.8	67.8	42.7	42.3
1879–80	42.8	28.8	62.5	67 2	41.7	40.3
1880–81	41.7	27.4	61.4	67.0	39.9	37.3
1881–82	39.7	25.7	59.4	65.8	37.7	37.1
1882–83	38.2	23.9	57.3	63.5	35.9	35.9
1883–84	37.9	23.4	56.5	63.2	35.3	34.5
1884–85	37.4	22.5	55.6	62.9	34.8	34.6
1885–86	37 4	22.4	54.5	62.2	35.2	34.2
1886–87	37.4	22.6	53.4	63.5	34.8	34.5
1887–88	36.4	21.6	53.2	60.7	34.0	30.8
1888–89	34.9	20.2	51.7	58.8	32.3	31.2
1889–90	34.5	20.0	49.1	57.5	32.4	31.1
1890–91	33.5	19.4	47.0	56.4	31.4	30.4
1891–92	32.5	18.9	46.3	55.5	29.7	30.0
1892–93	32.0	19.1	45.2	55.7	28.7	29.3
1893–94	32.2	19.0	45.1	53.7	29.4	29.6
1894–95*a*	32.4	18.8	45.3	52.7	30.2	29.9
1895–96*a*	32.6	19.2	44.7	52.8	30.4	29.7

a Subject to correction.

TABLE 12.—*Teachers' salaries—Number of schoolhouses—Value of school property.*

State or Territory.	Average monthly salaries of teachers.		Number of buildings used as school-houses.	Estimated value of all school property.
	Males.	Females.		
1	2	3	4	5
United States	$47.37	$40.24	240,968	$455,948,164
North Atlantic Division	61.18	44.81	43,548	178,586,923
South Atlantic Division	33.15	30.66	35,185	19,315,946
South Central Division	40.84	34.78	47,366	20,588,290
North Central Division	47.53	38.23	102,350	200,133,720
Western Division	60.03	52.87	12,519	37,323,285
North Atlantic Division:				
Maine	43.89	31.94	4,196	3,738,506
New Hampshire (1893–94)	49.78	27.36	1,998	3,086,824
Vermont	38.68	26.72	2,256	1,600,000
Massachusetts	136.03	50.30	a4,539	36,780,727
Rhode Island	100.53	50.46	516	4,147,279
Connecticut	84.65	42.34	1,633	8,829,146
New York	b72.67	b52.17	12,027	60,333,126
New Jersey	83.03	48.13	1,763	11,928,227
Pennsylvania	44.78	38.28	14,620	48,143,088
South Atlantic Division:				
Delaware (1891–92)	b36.60	b34.08	a497	904,426
Maryland	bc48.00	bc40.40	a2,389	b4,000,000
District of Columbia	bc111.62	bc69.00	114	3,260,000
Virginia	40.93	26.91	6,977	3,070,010
West Virginia	.....	.....	5,475	3,227,141
North Carolina	25.38	21.40	6,603	1,003,165
South Carolina	23.44	22.41	4,140	746,676
Georgia	.....	.....	6,752	2,476,188
Florida	37.51	32.48	2,238	628,340
South Central Division:				
Kentucky	44.03	37.18	8,211	4,216,750
Tennessee (1894–95)	b31.88	b26.18	7,212	3,092,503
Alabama	.....	.....	7,039	1,373,000
Mississippi (1894–95)	31.70	26.55	6,264	1,636,055
Louisiana	34.67	30.95	2,894	b930,000
Texas	d56.71	d46.48	10,126	7,289,184
Arkansas	32.77	29.55	4,440	1,679,338
Oklahoma	.....	.....	1,180	371,460
North Central Division:				
Ohio	42.00	39.00	13,072	40,175,975
Indiana	48.25	40.25	e9,890	e18,867,494
Illinois	59.76	50.63	12,632	43,765,475
Michigan (1894–95)	46.17	35.09	7,835	16,766,882
Wisconsin	65.27	32.21	e6,795	be11,100,000
Minnesota	47.30	34.96	6,670	14,271,771
Iowa	38.28	32.23	13,086	15,867,425
Missouri	49.50	42.50	10,076	15,032,082
North Dakota	40.29	34.84	2,032	1,926,420
South Dakota (1893–94)	.....	.....	3,524	3,434,805
Nebraska	44.53	37.58	6,720	8,779,760
Kansas	43.82	35.58	9,418	10,145,631
Western Division:				
Montana	b64.13	b49.72	591	1,933,395
Wyoming	58.04	45.89	306	428,706
Colorado	b64.07	b53.74	1,654	5,859,477
New Mexico	.....	.....	a492	264,430
Arizona	72.90	66.26	a293	428,935
Utah	65.21	44.00	942	2,471,338
Nevada	97.77	62.10	225	298,414
Idaho	58.52	46.31	658	712,681
Washington	44.56	38.14	1,890	4,837,413
Oregon	45.16	37.42	1,940	2,988,312
California	e80.19	e65.42	3,528	17,100,184

a Number of schools. *b* Approximately. *c* In 1894–95. *d* In 1892–93. *e* In 1893–94.

TABLE 13.—*Private schools.*

State or Territory.	Number of pupils in private schools.	Total public and private enrollment.	Per cent of pupils in private schools.
1	2	3	4
United States	a 1,334,800	15,713,878	8.49
North Atlantic Division	a 525,500	3,989,412	13.17
South Atlantic Division	a 105,300	2,105,514	5.00
South Central Division	a 164,500	2,854,038	5.76
North Central Division	a 494,000	6,004,463	8.23
Western Division	a 45,500	760,451	5.98
North Atlantic Division:			
Maine			
New Hamphshire (1893–94)	7,425	69,862	10.63
Vermont	6,087	71,498	8.51
Massachusetts	67,084	491,437	13.65
Rhode Island	15,796	75,037	21.05
Connecticut	26,577	168,062	15.81
New York	167,201	1,343,275	12.45
New Jersey	45,021	325,351	13.84
Pennsylvania			
South Atlantic Division:			
Delaware			
Maryland			
District of Columbia	b 5,000	47,464	10.55
Virginia	26,200	388,333	6.75
West Virginia (1893–94)	1,894	220,709	.86
North Carolina (1891–92)	26,198	361,556	7.25
South Carolina			
Georgia (1893–94)	14,151	450,833	3.14
Florida			
South Central Division:			
Kentucky (1894–95)	26,400	494,371	5.34
Tennessee (1891–92)	45,428	532,935	8.53
Alabama			
Mississippi (1894–95)	21,203	371,818	5.70
Louisiana			
Texas			
Arkansas	b 5,000	301,575	1.66
Oklahoma			
North Central Division:			
Ohio			
Indiana			
Illnois	139,969	1,038,588	13.48
Michigan (1894–95)	43,636	520,320	8.38
Wisconsin (1894–95)	50,164	447,635	11.21
Minnesota (1894–95)	20,073	372,165	5.39
Iowa	36,129	579,181	6.24
Missouri	18,663	683,610	2.73
North Dakota (1893–94)	400	47,761	.84
South Dakota (1893–94)	1,888	89,914	2.10
Nebraska			
Kansas			
Western Division:			
Montana (1893–94)	839	26,559	3.16
Wyoming (1894–95)	175	11,428	1.53
Colorado (1892–93)	3,813	80,902	4.71
New Mexico	3,411	26,770	12.74
Arizona	972	13,861	7.01
Utah	1,513	68,223	2.22
Nevada	a 100	7,367	1.36
Idaho			
Washington	4,548	94,661	4.81
Oregon	5,299	92,511	5.73
California	21,405	281,102	7.61

a An estimate for all the States of the Division for 1895–96. *b* Approximately.

TABLE 14.—*Receipt of school moneys.*

State or Territory.	Income from permanent funds and rents of school lands.	From taxation.			From all other sources.	Total revenue (excluding balance on hand and proceeds of bond sales).
		From State taxes.	From local taxes.	Total from taxation.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
United States	$7,646,152	$35,280,153	$123,219,526	$158,499,679	$15,248,597	$181,394,428
North Atlantic Division	952,951	12,506,921	47,750,880	60,257,801	7,577,735	68,788,487
South Atlantic Division	551,281	4,104,627	5,677,447	9,782,074	684,369	11,017,724
South Central Division	869,050	8,087,066	3,416,064	11,503,130	1,003,114	13,375,294
North Central Division	4,544,269	7,361,870	58,095,513	65,457,383	5,188,823	75,190,475
Western Division	728,601	3,219,669	8,279,622	11,499,291	794,556	13,022,448
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine	49,482	515,742	1,076,584	1,582,326	0	1,641,808
New Hampshire (1893–94)	14,753	86,817	729,176	815,993	60,963	891,709
Vermont	48,402	88,258	766,529	854,787	86,879	990,068
Massachusetts	a184,007	0	11,636,863	11,636,863	8,321	11,829,191
Rhode Island	9,094	118,034	1,170,782	1,288,816	67,957	1,365,867
Connecticut	169,543	261,664	1,968,170	2,229,834	101,763	2,501,140
New York	277,670	3,748,744	15,141,044	18,889,788	4,119,187	23,286,645
New Jersey	200,000	2,196,240	2,683,708	4,879,948	4,630	5,084,578
Pennsylvania	0	5,491,422	12,578,024	18,069,446	3,128,035	21,197,481
South Atlantic Division:						
Delaware (1889–90) b	60,000	c6,000	209,000	215,000	0	275,000
Maryland	58,528	574,057	1,458,334	2,032,391	116,696	2,207,615
District of Columbia	0	0	1,050,369	1,050,369	0	1,050,369
Virginia	44,723	915,430	813,220	1,728,650	40,045	1,813,418
West Virginia	b50,000	330,995	1,219,976	1,550,971	211,530	1,812,501
North Carolina	0	705,166	15,258	720,424	103,814	824,238
South Carolina	0	484,311	83,323	567,634	38,383	606,017
Georgia	d300,577	b958,940	380,245	1,339,185	116,123	1,755,885
Florida	37,453	129,728	447,722	577,450	57,778	672,681
South Central Division:						
Kentucky	138,938	1,804,360	1,079,254	2,883,614	5,880	3,028,432
Tennessee (1894–95)	122,347	1,240,176	(e)	1,240,176	210,881	1,573,404
Alabama	145,000	350,000	(e)	350,000	155,274	650,274
Mississippi (1894–95)	77,946	923,500	176,256	1,099,756	44,706	1,222,408
Louisiana	49,121	315,452	488,595	804,047	387,215	1,240,383
Texas	f335,698	2,839,751	801,623	3,641,374	114,230	4,091,302
Arkansas	0	490,549	698,650	1,189,199	17,768	1,206,967
Oklahoma	0	g123,278	171,686	294,964	67,160	362,124
North Central Division:						
Ohio	257,214	1,741,649	9,941,618	11,683,267	532,814	12,473,295
Indiana	604,056	1,708,008	3,911,440	5,619,448	413,252	6,636,756
Illinois	689,348	1,000,000	13,133,810	14,133,810	812,709	15,635,867
Michigan (1894–95)	b312,000	570,081	4,461,875	5,031,956	528,994	5,872,950
Wisconsin	b200,000	b657,848	3,870,286	4,528,134	518,058	5,246,192
Minnesota	d418,172	b702,518	3,264,362	3,966,880	480,139	4,865,191
Iowa	235,609	0	7,456,035	7,456,035	862,751	h8,554,395
Missouri	682,386	686,802	5,006,683	5,693,485	48,771	6,424,642
North Dakota	153,551	154,964	620,903	775,867	88,221	1,017,639
South Dakota (1893–94)	146,220	0	1,006,968	1,006,968	186,669	1,339,857
Nebraska	b425,000	b140,000	b2,090,125	2,230,125	591,100	3,246,225
Kansas	420,713	0	3,331,408	3,331,408	125,345	3,877,466
Western Division:						
Montana	8,736	0	677,301	677,301	32,143	718,180
Wyoming	24,888	0	189,144	189,144	3,587	217,619
Colorado	78,321	0	1,993,384	1,993,384	h417,413	2,489,118
New Mexico	0	0	161,494	161,494	32,900	194,394
Arizona	(e)	g190,743	11,235	201,978	2,341	204,319
Utah	(i)	253,734	572,554	826,288	40,544	866,832
Nevada	107,961	10,324	75,232	85,556	9,917	203,434
Idaho	13,935	0	255,619	255,619	46,980	316,534
Washington	99,303	0	828,191	828,191	16,392	943,886
Oregon	136,457	0	997,640	997,640	110,768	1,244,865
California	b259,000	2,764,868	2,517,828	5,282,696	81,571	5,623,267

a Includes some receipts from other sources.
b Approximately.
c State appropriation for colored schools.
d In 1894–95.
e Not reported.
f Income of county funds only. The income of the State fund is included in column 3.
g Includes county taxes.
h Includes proceeds of bond sales.
i Included in "other sources."

TABLE 15.—*The school revenue compared (1) with the adult male population and (2) with the school population, etc. Percentage analysis of the school revenue.*

State or Territory.	Average amount raised per taxpayer (i. e., adult male).					Average amount raised for each child 5 to 18 years of age.	Amount required from each adult male to provide $1 for each child 5 to 18 years of age.	Per cent of the whole revenue derived from—			
	From permanent funds and rents.	From State taxes.	From local taxes.	From all other sources.	Total amount raised per taxpayer.			Permanent funds and rents.	State taxes.	Local taxes.	Other sources.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
United States..	$0.40	$1.84	$6.43	$0.79	$9.46	$8.69	$1.09	4.2	19.4	67.9	8.5
N. Atlantic Division.	.17	2.21	8.43	1.33	12.14	13.89	.87	1.4	18.2	69.4	11.0
S. Atlantic Division..	.25	1.86	2.58	.31	5.00	3.35	1.49	5.0	37.3	51.5	6.2
S. Central Division...	.30	2.75	1.16	.34	4.55	3.02	1.51	6.5	60.5	25.5	7.5
N. Central Division ..	.66	1.07	8.43	.75	10.91	10.33	1.06	6.0	9.8	77.3	6.9
Western Division....	.50	2.19	5.63	.54	8.86	14.02	.63	5.6	24.7	63.6	6.1
N. Atlantic Division:											
Maine	.25	2.58	5.39	.60	8.22	10.18	.81	3.0	31.4	65.6	.0
N. Ham. (1893–94).	.12	.71	5.97	.51	7.31	10.29	.71	1.7	9.7	81.8	6.8
Vermont	.48	.87	7.53	.85	9.73	12.07	.81	4.9	8.9	77.4	8.8
Massachusetts ...	*a* .24	.00	15.39	.01	15.64	20.31	.77	*a* 1.6	.0	98.3	.1
Rhode Island.....	.08	1.04	10.28	.60	12.00	14.24	.84	.7	8.6	85.7	5.0
Connecticut.....	.69	1.07	8.01	.41	10.18	12.99	.78	6.8	10.5	78.7	4.0
New York.....	.14	1.89	7.63	2.08	11.74	14.10	.83	1.2	16.1	65.0	17.7
New Jersey	.41	4.47	5.46	.01	10.35	11.58	.89	3.9	43.2	52.8	.1
Pennsylvania	.00	3.32	7.61	1.89	12.82	12.77	1.00	.0	25.9	59.3	14.8
S. Atlantic Division:											
Del. (1889–90) *b*....	1.26	*c*.13	4.39	.00	5.78	5.79	1.00	21.8	*c* 2.2	76.0	.0
Maryland	.19	1.91	4.85	.39	7.34	6.51	1.13	2.7	26.0	66.1	5.2
Dist. of Columbia.	.00	.00	13.52	.00	13.52	14.91	.91	.0	.0	100.0	.0
Virginia	.12	2.36	2.09	.10	4.67	3.13	1.49	2.5	50.5	44.8	2.2
West Virginia ...	*b* .25	1.64	6.04	1.04	8.97	6.35	1.41	*b* 2.8	18.3	67.3	11.6
North Carolina...	.00	1.89	.04	.28	2.21	1.32	1.67	.0	85.6	1.9	12.5
South Carolina...	.00	1.88	.32	.16	2.36	1.30	1.81	.0	79.9	13.7	6.4
Georgia	*d* .68	*b* 2.20	.87	.27	4.02	2.45	1.64	*d* 17.1	*b* 54.6	21.7	6.6
Florida.....	.32	1.10	3.79	.48	5.69	4.21	1.35	5.6	19.3	66.6	8.5
S. Central Division:											
Kentucky.....	.29	3.73	2.23	.01	6.26	4.64	1.35	4.6	59.6	35.6	.2
Tenn. (1894–95)...	.29	2.93	(*e*)	.50	3.72	2.48	1.50	7.8	78.8	(*e*)	13.4
Alabama	.40	.95	(*e*)	.42	1.77	1.07	1.66	22.3	53.8	(*e*)	23.9
Miss. (1894–95) ...	.26	3.08	.59	.15	4.08	2.34	1.75	6.4	75.5	14.4	3.7
Louisiana	.18	1.14	1.77	1.40	4.49	2.95	1.52	4.0	25.4	39.4	31.2
Texas	*f* .47	3.98	1.12	.16	5.73	3.91	1.46	*f* 8.2	69.4	19.6	2.8
Arkansas	.00	1.69	2.41	.06	4.16	2.66	1.56	.0	40.6	57.9	1.5
Oklahoma.....	.00	*g* 1.45	2.02	.79	4.26	4.37	.97	.0	*g* 34.1	47.4	18.5
N. Central Division:											
Ohio	.24	1.63	9.32	.50	11.69	11.40	1.03	2.1	14.0	79.7	4.2
Indiana	.97	2.75	6.30	.66	10.68	9.82	1.09	9.1	25.7	58.9	6.3
Illinois	.55	.79	10.39	.69	12.37	12.27	1.01	4.4	6.4	84.0	5.2
Michigan (1894–95)	*b* .47	.86	6.75	.80	8.88	9.43	.94	*b* 5.3	9.7	76.0	9.0
Wisconsin	*b* .36	*b* 1.17	6.88	.92	9.33	8.55	1.09	*b* 3.8	*b* 12.5	73.8	9.9
Minnesota	*d* .88	*b* 1.48	6.89	1.02	10.27	10.25	1.00	*d* 8.6	*b* 14.4	67.1	9.9
Iowa	.41	.00	13.12	1.53	*h* 15.06	*h* 13.58	1.11	2.8	.0	87.2	10.0
Missouri	.86	.87	6.32	.06	8.11	6.87	1.18	10.6	10.7	77.9	.8
N. Dakota	1.65	1.67	6.68	.95	10.95	12.28	.89	15.1	15.2	61.0	8.7
S. Dakota (1893–94)	1.24	.00	8.53	1.58	11.35	11.40	1.00	10.9	.0	75.2	13.9
Nebraska	*b* 1.34	*b* .44	*b* 6.61	1.87	10.26	9.70	1.06	*b* 13.1	*b* 4.3	*b* 64.4	18.2
Kansas.....	1.18	.00	9.34	.35	10.87	9.24	1.18	10.9	.0	85.9	3.2
Western Division:											
Montana	.08	.00	6.52	.32	6.92	18.95	.36	1.2	.0	94.3	4.5
Wyoming	.56	.00	4.26	.08	4.90	10.23	.48	11.4	.0	86.9	1.7
Colorado	.36	.00	9.16	*h* 1.91	11.43	20.79	.55	3.1	.0	80.1	*h* 16.8
New Mexico	.00	.00	3.11	.64	3.75	3.91	.96	.0	.0	83.1	16.9
Arizona.....	(*e*)	*g* 6.12	.36	.08	6.56	10.26	.64	(*e*)	*g* 93.4	5.5	1.1
Utah	(*i*)	3.75	8.45	.60	12.80	10.33	1.24	(*i*)	29.3	66.1	4.6
Nevada.....	5.68	.54	3.96	.52	10.70	22.41	.48	53.1	5.1	37.0	4.8
Idaho	.26	.00	4.78	.87	5.91	8.15	.73	4.4	.0	80.7	14.9
Washington.....	.49	.00	4.11	.08	4.68	8.67	.54	10.5	.0	87.7	1.8
Oregon	1.01	.00	7.40	.82	9.23	12.19	.76	11.0	.0	80.1	8.9
California.....	*b* .48	5.08	4.63	.15	10.34	16.67	.62	*b* 4.6	49.2	44.8	1.4

a Includes some receipts from other sources.
b Approximately.
c State appropriation for colored schools.
d In 1894–1895.
e Not reported.
f Income of county funds only. The income of the State school fund is included in State taxes.
g Includes county taxes.
h Includes proceeds of bond sales.
i Included in "other sources."

TABLE 16.—*Progress of school expenditure.*

State or Territory.	Total amount expended for schools.				Expended per capita of population.			
	1870–71.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1895–96.	1870–71.	1879–80.	1889–90.	1895–96.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
United States	$69,107,612	$78,094,687	$140,506,715	$184,453,780	$1.75	$1.56	$2.24	$2.61
North Atlantic Division	29,796,835	28,538,058	48,023,492	67,688,543	2.38	1.97	2.76	3.47
South Atlantic Division	3,781,581	5,130,492	8,767,165	11,106,158	.63	.68	.99	1.15
South Central Division	4,854,834	4,872,829	10,678,680	13,294,446	.73	.55	.97	1.04
North Central Division	28,430,033	35,285,635	62,823,563	78,852,265	2.14	2.03	2.81	3.18
Western Division	2,244,329	4,267,673	10,213,815	13,512,368	2.15	2.41	3.37	3.53
North Atlantic Division:								
Maine	950,662	1,067,991	1,327,553	1,638,598	1.51	1.65	2.01	2.50
New Hampshire	418,545	565,339	844,333	a 920,803	1.30	1.63	2.24	a 2.37
Vermont	499,961	446,217	711,072	1,067,727	1.51	1.34	2.14	3.21
Massachusetts	5,579,363	4,983,900	8,286,962	11,829,191	3.73	2.80	3.70	4.65
Rhode Island	461,160	526,112	884,966	1,628,589	2.05	1.90	2.56	4.14
Connecticut	1,496,981	1,408,375	2,157,014	2,796,831	2.74	2.26	2.89	3.42
New York	9,607,904	10,296,977	17,543,880	23,173,830	2.17	2.03	2.92	3.45
New Jersey	2,302,341	1,873,465	3,340,190	4,971,444	2.48	1.66	2.31	2.90
Pennsylvania	8,479,918	7,369,682	12,928,422	19,661,530	2.36	1.72	2.46	3.31
South Atlantic Division:								
Delaware	153,509	207,281	b 275,000	b c 275,000	1.21	1.41	b1.63	bc1.63
Maryland	1,214,729	1,544,367	1,910,663	2,534,351	1.53	1.65	1.83	2.19
District of Columbia	373,535	438,567	905,777	1,050,369	2.77	2.47	3.93	3.79
Virginia	587,472	946,109	1,604,509	1,819,563	.47	.63	.97	1.07
West Virginia	577,719	707,553	1,198,493	1,793,649	1.26	1.14	1.57	2.11
North Carolina	177,498	376,062	714,900	817,562	.16	.27	.44	.46
South Carolina	275,688	324,629	450,936	529,828	.38	.33	.39	.42
Georgia	292,000	471,029	1,190,354	1,686,909	.24	.31	.65	.84
Florida	129,431	114,895	516,533	598,927	.66	.43	1.32	1.25
South Central Division:								
Kentucky	b 1,075,000	1,009,030	2,140,678	2,919,045	b .80	.65	1.15	1.47
Tennessee	b 758,000	744,180	1,526,241	d 1,587,894	b .59	.48	.86	d .86
Alabama	b 370,000	b 500,000	b 890,000	a 663,359	b .36	b .40	b .59	a .39
Mississippi	950,000	830,705	1,109,575	d 1,272,500	1.11	.73	.86	d .89
Louisiana	531,834	411,858	817,110	1,256,596	.71	.44	.73	1.02
Texas	b 650,000	b 1,030,000	3,178,300	3,996,778	b .74	b .65	1.42	1.34
Arkansas	b 520,000	287,056	1,016,776	1,232,986	b 1.02	.66	.90	.97
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	365,288	.....	.....	.....	1.33
North Central Division:								
Ohio	6,831,035	7,166,963	10,602,238	12,326,919	2.52	2.24	2.89	3.20
Indiana	b 2,897,537	4,491,850	5,245,218	7,102,874	b 1.70	2.27	2.39	3.10
Illinois	6,656,542	7,014,092	11,645,126	16,201,121	2.57	2.28	3.04	d 3.55
Michigan	2,840,740	2,775,917	5,349,366	d 6,428,003	2.33	1.70	2.55	2.87
Wisconsin	1,932,539	2,177,023	3,801,212	6,676,824	1.70	1.65	2.25	3.25
Minnesota	960,558	1,328,429	4,187,310	5,200,206	2.06	1.70	3.22	3.17
Iowa	3,269,190	4,484,043	6,382,953	7,899,024	2.70	2.76	3.34	3.78
Missouri	1,749,049	2,675,364	5,434,262	6,694,503	.99	1.23	2.03	2.23
North Dakota	b 23,000	245,000	626,949	1,125,893	b 1.29	1.81	3.43	3.71
South Dakota			1,199,630	a 1,687,918			3.65	a 4.21
Nebraska	365,520	1,108,617	3,376,332	3,375,785	2.61	2.45	3.19	3.04
Kansas	904,323	1,818,337	4,372,967	4,133,195	2.24	1.83	3.48	3.11
Western Division:								
Montana	b 35,600	78,730	364,084	743,176	b 1.62	2.01	2.76	3.54
Wyoming	b 7,000	28,504	b 225,000	211,335	b .71	1.37	b 3.71	2.12
Colorado	67,395	395,227	1,681,379	2,384,183	1.44	2.03	4.08	4.38
New Mexico	b 4,900	28,973	b 85,000	182,243	b .05	.24	b .55	1.03
Arizona	0	61,172	181,914	214,009	0	1.51	3.05	2.73
Utah	b 117,000	132,194	394,685	849,730	b 1.28	.92	1.90	3.29
Nevada	b 85,000	220,245	161,481	206,958	b 1.93	3.54	3.53	4.99
Idaho	19,003	38,411	169,020	296,357	1.17	1.18	2.00	2.07
Washington	b 35,000	112,615	958,111	1,425,509	b 1.30	1.50	2.74	2.97
Oregon	b 160,000	307,031	805,979	1,197,109	b 1.65	1.76	2.57	3.16
California	1,713,431	2,864,571	5,187,162	5,801,759	2.93	3.31	4.29	4.08

a In 1893–94. *b* Approximately. *c* In 1889–90. *d* In 1894–95.

TABLE 17.—*The school expenditure of 1895–96, classified.*

State or Territory.	Paid for sites, buildings, furniture, libraries, and apparatus.	Paid for teachers' and superintendents' salaries.	All other current expenditures, principally for maintenance.	Total expenditure, excluding payment of bonds.
1	2	3	4	5
United States	$32,408,270	$116,377,778	$35,667,732	$184,453,780
North Atlantic Division	16,107,841	38,252,602	13,328,100	67,688,543
South Atlantic Division	1,226,576	8,505,125	1,374,457	11,106,158
South Central Division	1,208,631	10,898,412	1,187,403	13,294,446
North Central Division	12,126,785	49,790,057	16,935,423	78,852,265
Western Division	1,738,437	8,931,582	2,842,349	13,512,368
North Atlantic Division:				
Maine	296,951	1,107,818	233,829	1,638,598
New Hampshire (1893–94)	163,691	622,944	134,168	920,803
Vermont	189,371	599,069	279,287	1,067,727
Massachusetts	2,905,483	*a* 6,990,037	1,933,671	11,829,191
Rhode Island	508,435	884,935	235,219	1,628,589
Connecticut	516,692	1,748,475	531,664	2,796,831
New York	6,599,428	13,619,228	2,955,174	23,173,830
New Jersey	830,865	3,057,860	1,082,719	4,971,444
Pennsylvania	4,096,925	9,622,236	5,942,369	19,661,530
South Atlantic Division:				
Delaware (1889–90) *a*	*b* 23,795	225,000	26,205	275,000
Maryland	406,643	1,853,045	274,663	2,534,531
District of Columbia	166,398	714,367	169,604	1,050,369
Virginia	170,105	1,443,774	205,684	1,819,563
West Virginia	223,071	1,112,513	458,065	1,793,649
North Carolina	53,172	705,416	58,974	817,562
South Carolina	26,180	458,788	44,860	529,828
Georgia	125,295	1,486,423	75,191	1,686,909
Florida	31,917	505,799	61,211	598,927
South Central Division:				
Kentucky	415,357	2,372,214	131,474	2,919,045
Tennessee (1894–95)	128,401	1,321,379	138,114	1,587,894
Alabama (1893–94)	*c* 18,230	618,668	*c* 26,461	663,359
Mississippi (1894–95)	37,314	1,108,013	127,173	1,272,500
Louisiana	130,926	803,151	322,519	1,256,596
Texas	256,346	3,404,054	336,378	3,996,778
Arkansas	127,031	1,054,364	51,591	1,232,986
Oklahoma	95,026	216,569	53,693	365,288
North Central Division:				
Ohio	1,121,487	8,317,424	2,888,008	12,326,919
Indiana	*d* 1,556,551	4,767,531	*a* 778,792	7,102,874
Illinois	3,542,701	9,958,935	2,699,485	16,201,121
Michigan (1894–95)	976,440	3,963,082	1,488,481	6,428,003
Wisconsin	732,653	3,394,486	2,549,685	6,676,824
Minnesota	966,891	3,279,123	954,192	5,200,206
Iowa	746,945	5,205,287	1,946,792	7,899,024
Missouri	1,454,349	4,205,122	1,035,032	6,694,503
North Dakota	182,353	586,774	356,766	1,125,893
South Dakota (1893–94)	184,900	914,046	588,972	1,687,918
Nebraska	339,451	2,261,007	775,327	3,375,785
Kansas	322,064	2,937,240	873,891	4,133,195
Western Division:				
Montana	203,769	418,841	120,566	743,176
Wyoming	29,118	153,269	28,948	211,335
Colorado	343,500	1,319,921	720,762	2,384,183
New Mexico	18,321	142,130	21,792	182,243
Arizona	23,416	152,438	38,155	214,009
Utah	142,942	515,829	190,959	849,730
Nevada	20,203	164,827	21,928	206,958
Idaho	32,828	218,728	44,801	296,357
Washington	140,079	769,150	516,280	1,425,509
Oregon	173,845	784,968	238,296	1,197,109
California	610,416	4,291,481	899,862	5,801,759

a Approximately.
b Includes city of Wilmington only.
c Report incomplete.
d In 1893–94.

TABLE 18.—*(1) Expenditure per pupil (based on average attendance); (2) average daily expenditure per pupil; (3) percentage analysis of school expenditure.*

State or Territory.	Average expenditure per pupil (for the whole school year).				Average daily expenditure per pupil.		Percentage of the total expenditure devoted to—		
	For sites, buildings, etc.	For salaries.	For all other purposes.	Total per pupil.	For salaries only.	Total.	Sites, buildings, etc.	Salaries.	All other purposes.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
					Cents.	*Cents.*			
United States	$3.32	$11.94	$3.66	$18.92	8.5	13.5	17.6	63.1	19.3
North Atlantic Division	6.73	15.98	5.57	28.28	9.1	16.1	23.8	56.5	19.7
South Atlantic Division	.98	6.80	1.10	8.88	6.3	8.2	11.0	76.6	12.4
South Central Division	.67	6.07	.67	7.41	6.5	8.0	9.1	82.0	8.9
North Central Division	3.18	13.07	4.45	20.70	8.6	13.7	15.4	63.1	21.5
Western Division	3.49	17.96	5.72	27.17	12.6	19.1	12.9	66.1	21.0
North Atlantic Division:									
Maine	3.13	11.67	2.47	17.27	8.6	12.7	18.1	67.6	14.3
New Hampshire (1893–94)	3.90	14.83	3.19	21.92	11.9	17.6	17.8	67.7	14.5
Vermont	4.09	12.95	6.04	23.08	8.4	15.0	17.7	56.1	26.2
Massachusetts	9.03	a21.73	6.02	36.78	a11.7	19.8	24.6	a59.1	16.3
Rhode Island	12.19	21.23	5.64	39.06	11.0	20.2	31.2	54.3	14.5
Connecticut	5.33	18.04	5.49	28.86	9.6	15.4	18.5	62.5	19.0
New York	8.55	17.64	3.83	30.02	9.3	15.8	28.5	58.8	12.7
New Jersey	4.72	17.38	6.16	28.26	9.0	14.6	16.7	61.5	21.8
Pennsylvania	5.10	11.99	7.40	24.49	7.5	15.4	20.8	48.9	30.3
South Atlantic Division:									
Delaware (1889–90) a	b1.21	11.45	1.33	13.99	6.9	8.4	b8.7	81.8	9.5
Maryland	3.30	15.04	2.23	20.57	8.3	11.3	16.0	73.1	10.9
District of Columbia	5.18	22.22	5.27	32.67	11.8	17.4	15.8	68.0	16.2
Virginia	.81	6.89	.99	8.69	5.8	7.3	9.3	79.3	11.4
West Virginia	1.58	7.89	3.25	12.72	7.1	11.5	12.4	62.0	25.6
North Carolina	.23	3.04	.26	3.53	4.7	5.4	6.5	86.3	7.2
South Carolina	.15	2.70	.26	3.11	3.8	4.4	4.9	86.6	8.5
Georgia	.49	5.85	.30	6.64	5.3	6.0	7.4	88.1	4.5
Florida	.48	7.65	.93	9.06	7.5	8.9	5.3	84.5	10.2
South Central Division:									
Kentucky	1.45	8.27	.46	10.18	7.2	8.9	14.2	81.2	4.6
Tennessee (1894–95)	.38	3.91	.40	4.69	4.2	5.1	8.1	83.2	8.7
Alabama (1893–94)	c.10	3.34	c.14	3.58	4.6	4.9	c2.7	93.8	c4.0
Mississippi (1894–95)	.18	5.47	.63	6.28	5.2	6.0	2.9	87.1	10.0
Louisiana	1.14	6.96	2.80	10.90	6.9	10.7	10.4	63.9	25.7
Texas	.58	7.73	.77	9.08	8.4	9.8	6.4	85.2	8.4
Arkansas	.74	6.13	.30	7.17	8.8	10.3	10.3	85.5	4.2
Oklahoma	2.67	6.08	1.51	10.26	7.6	12.8	26.0	59.3	14.7
North Central Division:									
Ohio	1.88	13.91	4.83	20.62	8.4	12.4	9.1	67.5	23.4
Indiana	d3.88	11.87	a1.94	17.69	8.3	12.4	d21.9	67.1	a11.0
Illinois	5.20	14.61	3.96	23.77	9.3	15.1	21.9	61.5	16.6
Michigan (1894–95)	3.01	12.21	4.58	19.80	7.7	12.5	15.2	61.6	23.2
Wisconsin	2.70	12.53	9.41	24.64	7.8	15.4	11.0	50.8	38.2
Minnesota	4.19	14.22	4.14	22.55	10.1	16.0	18.6	63.1	18.3
Iowa	2.16	15.08	5.64	22.88	9.4	14.3	9.5	65.9	24.6
Missouri	3.33	9.64	2.37	15.34	6.9	11.0	21.7	62.8	15.5
North Dakota	4.74	15.25	9.27	29.26	14.2	27.2	16.2	52.1	31.7
South Dakota (1893–94)	3.39	16.77	10.81	30.97	12.3	22.6	11.0	54.1	34.9
Nebraska	1.94	12.93	4.44	19.31	8.1	12.2	10.1	67.0	22.9
Kansas	1.27	11.62	3.47	16.36	9.7	13.6	7.8	71.1	21.1
Western Division:									
Montana	10.48	21.54	6.20	38.22	14.4	25.6	27.4	56.4	16.2
Wyoming	3.78	19.90	3.77	27.45	22.1	30.5	13.8	72.5	13.7
Colorado	5.50	21.15	11.54	38.19	13.2	23.9	14.4	55.4	30.2
New Mexico	1.15	8.92	1.37	11.44	9.8	12.6	10.1	78.0	11.9
Arizona	3.06	19.95	4.99	28.00	15.7	22.1	10.9	71.2	17.9
Utah	3.13	11.30	4.18	18.61	7.4	12.2	16.8	60.7	22.5
Nevada	3.80	31.03	4.13	38.96	21.1	26.5	9.8	79.6	10.6
Idaho	1.35	9.02	1.85	12.22	8.7	11.8	11.1	73.8	15.1
Washington	2.22	12.17	8.16	22.55	13.6	25.3	9.8	54.0	36.2
Oregon	2.82	12.72	3.86	19.40	11.7	17.8	14.5	65.6	19.9
California	3.32	23.31	4.88	31.51	13.4	18.1	10.5	74.0	15.5

a Approximately. *b* Includes city of Wilmington only. *c* Report incomplete. *d* In 1893–94.

TABLE 19.—*(1) School expenditures per capita of population; (2) same per capita of average attendance.*

Year.	Expended per capita of population.						Expended per pupil.					
	United States.	North Atlantic Division.	South Atlantic Division.	South Central Division.	North Central Division.	Western Division.	United States.	North Atlantic Division.	South Atlantic Division.	South Central Division.	North Central Division.	Western Division.
1870–71	$1.75	$2.38	$0.63	$0.73	$2.14	$2.15	$15.20	$18.31	$10.27	$9.06	$14.87	$21.87
1871–72	1.83	2.40	.68	.81	2.31	2.27	15.93	18.86	10.46	9.08	16.36	23.57
1872–73	1.84	2.44	.68	.74	2.31	2.42	16.06	19.89	9.25	8.39	16.53	25.04
1873–74	1.88	2.51	.76	.68	2.38	2.40	15.85	19.89	9.01	7.55	16.57	24.36
1874–75	1.91	2.55	.80	.73	2.36	2.76	15.91	20.17	8.98	7.51	16.69	26.85
1875–76	1.85	2.45	.79	.55	2.37	2.78	15.70	19.14	8.65	6.70	16.91	26.35
1876–77	1.72	2.29	.72	.51	2.21	2.61	14.64	17.89	7.68	6.25	15.93	24.69
1877–78	1.67	2.15	.70	.56	2.14	2.73	13.67	16.55	7.21	5.98	15.08	25.82
1878–79	1.56	2.03	.63	.55	2.00	2.53	12.97	16.05	6.76	5.65	14.22	23.39
1879–80	1.56	1.97	.68	.55	2.03	2.41	12.71	15.64	6.60	5.40	14.39	22.59
1880–81	1.63	2.08	.72	.58	2.09	2.54	13.61	17.14	7.22	5.72	15.19	23.81
1881–82	1.70	2.11	.78	.64	2.19	2.59	14.05	17.35	7.63	6.25	15.79	24.32
1882–83	1.80	2.22	.82	.68	2.34	2.74	14.55	18.17	7.46	6.17	16.69	25.39
1883–84	1.88	2.25	.84	.74	2.48	2.83	14.63	18.37	7.44	6.26	16.90	24.69
1884–85	1.96	2.38	.88	.82	2.53	2.90	15.12	19.19	7.32	6.74	17.53	26.31
1885–86	1.97	2.36	.88	.87	2.54	2.88	15.06	19.11	7.33	6.93	17.45	25.52
1886–87	1.97	2.35	.90	.87	2.55	2.76	15.07	19.38	7.33	6.88	17.45	24.85
1887–88	2.07	2.48	.95	.87	2.68	2.96	15.71	20.60	7.61	6.60	18.29	27.38
1888–89	2.17	2.59	.98	.94	2.76	3.28	16.55	21.64	7.77	7.12	19.30	29.37
1889–90	2.24	2.76	.99	.97	2.81	3.37	17.23	23.58	7.78	7.28	19.70	30.57
1890–91	2.31	2.79	1.06	1.04	2.85	3.78	17.54	23.66	8.52	7.78	19.42	33.42
1891–92	2.40	2.94	1.07	1.06	2.94	4.03	18.20	24.89	8.74	7.82	20.13	33.55
1892–93	2.48	3.04	1.10	1.06	3.07	3.97	18.58	25.91	8.65	7.72	20.62	33.57
1893–94	2.51	3.17	1.12	1.08	3.10	3.53	18.55	26.44	8.60	7.63	20.91	29.09
1894–95*a*	2.59	3.33	1.13	1.09	3.19	3.61	18.98	26.84	8.59	7.69	21.60	28.91
1895–96*a*	2.63	3.53	1.15	1.04	3.18	3.53	18.92	28.28	8.88	7.41	20.70	27.17

a Subject to correction.

PART I.

		Page.
CHAP. I.	Laws relating to city school boards	3
II.	The English education bill of 1896	79
III.	Education in Great Britain and Ireland	123
IV.	Education in central Europe	137
V.	Music in German schools	187
VI.	The American common school in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania during the first half century of the Republic	219
VII.	The American common school in the Southern States during the first half century of the Republic	267
VIII.	Public, society, and school libraries in the United States	339
IX.	Library legislation in the United States	523
X.	Comparative study of popular education among civilized nations	601
XI.	Education in France	611
XII.	Education in Mexico and Central America	641
XIII.	The fifth international prison congress	669
XIV.	The letters of Rabbi Akibah	701
XV.	Commercial education in Europe	721
XVI.	Early educational life in middle Georgia	839
XVII.	Horace Mann	887
XVIII.	Correlation of studies	929
XIX.	Educational directory	939

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

LAWS RELATING TO CITY SCHOOL BOARDS.[1]

1. *General Remarks.—The typical city system; Selection of members of school boards; Some notable systems; Control of revenues; The superintendent; Selection of teachers.*
2. *Detailed descriptions of the school systems of New York City; Chicago, Ill.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Brooklyn, N. Y.; St. Louis, Mo.; Boston, Mass.; Baltimore, Md.; San Francisco, Cal.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Cleveland, Ohio; Buffalo, N. Y.; New Orleans, La.; Pittsburg, Pa.; Washington, D. C.; Detroit, Mich.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Minneapolis, Minn.; St. Paul, Minn.; Denver, Colo.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Charleston, S. C.; Hartford, Conn.; Savannah, Ga.*
3. *Tabular summary of school laws relating to the foregoing cities.*

If it were required to describe the typical organization of an American city school system, the following might be given: A board of education is created by law whose members are elected by the people, serve without pay, and have full legal power to establish, maintain, and control free public schools for all children of school age in the limits of the city.

Each year they make estimates in detail of the amounts of money required for the schools during the next coming year, which estimates are submitted to the city council. That body appropriates money for those purposes named in the estimates which they think necessary and proper in view of all other needs of the city's government, and of the expected revenue from the taxes which they consider it expedient to levy. The money once appropriated is controlled by the board of education who buy sites, build and repair schoolhouses, purchase supplies, hire and pay the necessary officers and teachers.

They make regulations for the management of the system and employ as their principal executive officers a secretary and a superintendent, the former to look after the details of their business affairs and the latter to have especial care of all matters relating to instruction. The superintendent is presumably an experienced educator, well versed in all that pertains to school management, and a thorough student of

[1] By James C. Boykin.

pedagogy on its philosophical side; he is selected, moreover, with reference to his administrative ability. The course of study is largely the handiwork of the superintendent and embodies his ideas.

The teachers are appointed by a committee of the board, acting with the superintendent. New teachers must be graduates of the city normal school or of an institution of equal or higher grade. If the latter, they must pass an examination before the committee.

The schools themselves are, (1) elementary, with a course of study covering eight years; (2) high, with a four-year course, and (3) a normal school with a year of professional study for intending teachers. A child is supposed to begin the course at six years of age and to complete it at eighteen, but in practice the average is about a year greater than this.

Evening schools are maintained during the winter months, and there may be kindergartens and a separate manual-training high school, but these, though growing in popular favor, are not yet sufficiently numerous to have a place in the type system.

It may be that the system described has not a single example in the United States which combines all the details mentioned exactly as they are set forth. The number of possible variations are as great as the combinations on the chess board, and in regard to every feature there are instances of radical divergence from the type described; but in a general way it may be taken as representative of the systems of the majority of American cities.

MEMBERS OF SCHOOL BOARDS.

In regard to the number of members of the board there is not nor can there be any uniform rule. It is sometimes held that there should be some relation between the size of the city and size of the board, but whether this is necessary depends wholly on the extent to which executive powers are confided to paid subordinates, who are supposed to be trained experts in their particular lines. The New York board controls the schools of over a million and a half of people, yet it numbers only 21 members, while Pittsburg, with a population of about a quarter of a million, has 37 members in a central board and 222 in local boards. There are 7 members of the Minneapolis board, while Hartford, with only a third as many inhabitants, has 39 school visitors and committeemen. Such contrasts are numerous.

The methods of selecting the members of the governing boards are exceedingly varied.

Ward politics is a matter constantly before the mind of school lawmakers, and any amount of inventive genius has been exercised to devise a way of choosing school boards that would make it impossible for the ward boss to interfere. Incompetent principals and teachers chosen to "encourage" political henchmen; contracts corruptly given to fatten the treasuries of partisan organizations; assessments of

teachers for campaign funds; unseemly intrigues, strifes, and bickering within the schools themselves by adherents of different parties; the son of some local heeler allowed to be habitually unruly, to the detriment of general school discipline, because the teacher fears for his position if he attempts to assert his authority—all these evils and more are feared by those who have seen the results when local politics has had undue influence.

Where there is a school board clothed with due authority, whose members are not influenced by political considerations, these things can not be. Hence the solicitation for a board "above politics."

The first boards were chosen at popular elections and the members were ward representatives. This has not always worked well. The local feeling in members has sometimes prevented them from appreciating any interests other than those of their own districts; local politicians of small caliber have crept in from out-of-the-way wards, and have made things very unpleasant in various ways. To avoid these things, in many cities the board is elected from the city at large and not as representatives of any particular locality. In other places the mayor of the city appoints the board, often with the advice and consent of the council. But, alas for human devices, instances have often occurred in which both these methods of election have proved to be as objectionable as ward elections, for there are big politicians as well as little politicians, and the big ones are no more disinterested than the little ones; the city machine may dictate the board members at large just as the ward machine may elect the board members from the wards. And mayors are not always above appointing their personal and political friends, even if they are not the most desirable men for the places; so these plans also have been discarded in some places, as in Philadelphia, where the board is appointed by the judges of the superior court, and in New Orleans, where they are in part appointed by the governor of the State and in part elected by the city council.

All of these schemes come from efforts to take the schools "out of politics." But after all there is but one way to do that, and that way is by the creation of a general sentiment demanding clean and honest administration of the schools, without regard for any consideration save their best good. With such a sentiment the worst law, apparently, may be satisfactory; without it the best law may fail. Examples to prove this are not hard to find. The law that relates to Savannah, Ga., would probably be the very last to be copied by a modern city school lawmaker. There we have a unique instance of a board that is a self-perpetuating close corporation, handling public funds, holding public property in their own corporate name, and managing public schools. This would be considered nowadays a very dangerous power to put in the hands of what is practically a private corporation; but the Savannah board was established in 1866, and during the entire thirty years that have passed no change has been made in the law

governing them save to extend the field of their operations. The members have usually been professional and business men, and have always been of high standing in the community. The list has embraced Jews, Protestants, Catholics, Democrats, Republicans, and Independents, but it appears that no action of the board has ever been tainted with a reasonable suspicion of improper motives.

Washington, D. C., is often described as the best governed city in the United States, yet there is probably no place on the face of the earth where men are governed by written laws in which the laws themselves are in a more chaotic condition than in the District of Columbia. The laws that regulate the school trustees are past finding out, as the portion of this chapter which relates to the details of the Washington system shows. Nevertheless the schools are harmoniously and successfully conducted, and deservedly stand high among the systems of the country. Incidentally I might mention that the force of an adverse public sentiment has been sufficient to utterly overthrow two entirely different systems of government in the District within the last thirty years.

On the other hand, another city might be mentioned in which a half dozen reasonably good laws have been in force in the last thirty years and not one of them has succeeded in giving the city a system free from the evil eye of the politician. But until recently evidences of any general interest in the management of the schools were hard to find. A gentleman prominent during the last year or two in the agitation for school reform, according to his own account, had practiced law in the same city for twenty-six years before he had ever been conscious of seeing a public school building. His explanation of the unsatisfactory condition of the schools was that the indifference which he himself had felt was general among a very large proportion of the best class of citizens. If good citizens turn the administration of the laws over to schemers and self-seekers, how can even the best of statutes accomplish good results?

But while it is true that the public opinion behind a law is the principal factor in the success of its operation, the importance can not be overestimated of so constructing the statutes as to provide for those times which may come to any city when the public shall become less watchful through long security, or when the chosen officers shall be beguiled by influences not of the best.

SOME NOTABLE SYSTEMS.

In some cities that relic of rural school organization, the local trustee system, is still retained. In Hartford, Conn., the organization is nothing more nor less than that of every country township in the State, and a very complicated organization it is. The ward trustees are even more powerful in some respects in Pittsburg, Pa., than in Hartford, for there they may levy taxes for the purposes which they control, while

in Hartford the district taxes are laid in district meetings. The central board in Pittsburg have more complete control over the high school than do the school visitors of Hartford, but on the other hand the superintendent is appointed by the school visitors of the latter city, while all the trustees vote for the corresponding officer in the former. Philadelphia also retains its ward trustees, though their powers are somewhat less extensive than in Pittsburg.

In all three of these cities the central authorities examine and license teachers, while the local boards select and appoint them.

It has been only within the last few months that the local trustees were overthrown in New York City, and this year is the first in their history in which all the common schools have been controlled by a single board.

There are comparatively few plans of organization now in operation which are not the products of evolution, but in a few notable instances schemes have been brought into being and enacted into law which had little or no local precedent on which to build. The most conspicuous of these in late years has been the so-called "federal system" of Cleveland, Ohio. The provision of a legislative body without executive functions, and of a single executive officer who is directly and solely responsible to the people for the administration of the schools, are novelties in American city school organization, and up to this time the example of Cleveland remains unique. The plan has met with considerable favor. It received the indorsement of the subcommittee of five of the National Educational Association's famous committee of fifteen, and will undoubtedly influence school legislation in the future. Unquestionably as long as the director is a paragon and his principal appointee, the superintendent, is above criticism, such a system as this will be conspicuously successful. But time, and time alone, will show the results of one-man power in school management during revulsions of popular favor causing sudden radical changes, or relaxations of public watchfulness resulting in the election of men of doubtful fitness. These things sometimes occur and such possibilities must always be taken into consideration.

School district No. 1, Arapahoe County, Colo., which embraces the greater part of Denver, is another Minerva among school organizations, and its system has been widely copied, especially in the West, with modifications to suit local conditions. The school board is supreme in school matters and owns no allegiance to any other local authority. There are but six members, and two are elected each year for three years at a special election. In the twenty years that the system has been in operation it has been unusually successful. The policies of the board have been subjected to no sudden deleterious changes, and the progress of the schools have been uniform and consistent. But as Cleveland has had only one director under its present system, so this district of Denver has had but one superintendent, and that a strong man who

exercises great influence in shaping the course of the schools' affairs. In neither case, therefore, can the excellence of the schools be necessarily ascribed to the system as such. To say that it was the system of organization that made it possible for these good men to retain their positions so long, and that therefore the system itself is responsible for the good schools, would be erroneous. Other superintendents now in office have held on for just as many years or more under systems that are conceded to be bad.

The present laws that relate to the school committee of Boston contain nothing especially remarkable, but their history is full of things which it would be well to avoid. The primary schools were managed prior to 1855 by a committee which had grown from 36 to 190 members. They filled their own vacancies and were generally a law unto themselves. At the same time there was a general school committee of 24 members, 2 elected by the people of each of the twelve wards, and when the primary school committee was abolished the general committee was increased to 72, or 6 members from each ward. With the annexation of more territory to the city the school committee grew to 116 members. It was so unwieldy as to interfere with the proper prosecution of business, and in 1875 the number was cut down to 24, elected from the city at large. They had formerly no authority to determine the location or character of the schoolhouses, that power being exercised by the city council until 1875. Then the school committee were given a voice in the matter, but the division of authority was equally unsatisfactory in practice, and in 1889 the entire control of the erection of buildings was turned over to the school committee, though the money must first be appropriated by the council.

The mayor is ex officio a member of the board of education in some places, as in Atlanta, Ga., and in others he is ex officio its president. The latter was formerly the case in Washington and in Boston. A rather unusual provision is made in a few cities, of which Rochester, N. Y., and Detroit, Mich., are examples, by which the approval of the mayor is necessary to acts of the board of education. In cases of this kind the board may generally override the mayor's veto by a two-thirds vote.

In one city in the United States there is a school system in which there is no school board, namely, Buffalo, N. Y. All school legislation there is done in the city council, and the city superintendent, an officer elected by the people, is the head of the city department of education.

Though there is no exact parallel to the Buffalo plan of organization, there are other cities in which the school board is the creature of the city council and is so subordinate as to have no authority whatever save that which the council choose to delegate. Precisely this is the case in Atlanta, Ga. The mayor and council have legal authority to maintain a system of public schools and to "provid\ for appropriate agencies to regulate, improvise, and carry on said system of schools and render the same efficient." All the rest is in their discretion. To

their credit be it said, however, the mayor and council have provided a board of education with very full powers, practically the only power retained being the appropriation of money. It is a matter of pride to the city that the board of education has always been composed of men of high character, that they have the hearty support of the rest of the city government, and that they are permitted to perform their duties without vexatious interference.

Substantially the same power over the schools is given to the council of Baltimore, Md., though the city school board is provided for by State law. The board of St. Paul, Minn., has been since 1891 constituted somewhat similarly, though their functions are more minutely specified by law. The St. Paul board have full power to appoint teachers and to divide between them the money appropriated for salaries, but in Baltimore nearly every act of the board may apparently be reviewed, altered, or annulled by the council.

The contrast between the Minneapolis and the St. Paul boards is striking. Though the two cities are practically one, on one side of the river that divides them the board has very large powers, even to the right to levy its own taxes, while on the other side the board is not even a corporation, and can not hold property.

CONTROL OF REVENUES.

The best criterion of the power of a school board is the degree of their independence in money matters. If they must prepare detailed estimates that may be refused as a whole or in any item by some other body, their functions are so restricted as to be almost entirely ministerial. They can not introduce any novelty or provide for any extension without the concurrence of the authority which holds the purse strings. This is usually the state of affairs, and as tending to conservatism and economy it has its advantages when a board develops an inclination to foster expensive fads. But that can seldom be charged; it more often happens that the board is deprived of funds urgently required to provide for the actual needs of the children in the way of buildings and teachers.

The powers of the Western cities in this respect are usually much more extensive than those of the East. St. Louis, Denver, and Minneapolis are types of cities whose school boards enjoy the right to levy whatever tax they require without submitting their estimates to any other body. The maximum that may be levied is, however, always limited by State law.

In Milwaukee, Wis., a variation is introduced by which the school board determines the amount of the levy unless the city council decide otherwise by a two-thirds vote. In Detroit all money asked by the board for current expenses must be granted if it does not exceed a certain fixed sum per pupil, but if that is not sufficient the council decides

whether the desired funds shall be appropriated. Estimates for buildings and sites must run the gauntlet of both the council and the city board of estimates.

THE SUPERINTENDENT.

The selection of the city superintendent is another point upon which there are interesting differences of practice. He is usually elected by the school board, but in San Francisco, Buffalo, and some other cities he is a city officer and is elected at a popular election. A man must be a good politician as well as a good educator to succeed in obtaining office under these conditions, and the field of choice is necessarily narrowed to men well known and popular in the city. Such a thing as securing as superintendent a man who had made his reputation in another city would be out of the question. Philadelphia secured both Mac Alister and Brooks from other places; Cleveland, Ohio, brought Draper from New York and Jones from Indianapolis, and so many others of the most successful superintendents have found their widest fields in places far distant from the scene of the beginning of their careers; but this style of selection is not for San Francisco or Buffalo. Nevertheless the list of superintendents of those cities embraces several names prominent in educational circles.

In some of the New Jersey cities the same plan of the popular election of superintendents prevails, and the result has been in many cases the choice of men without even the pretense of an expert knowledge of school matters. The law undoubtedly contemplated that the superintendent elected should perform the usual duties of the office, but this has not proved advisable in some instances. In one city the board of education has appointed a supervising principal, who is to all intents and purposes the superintendent in the ordinary sense of the term, while the superintendent, officially so called and elected as such by the people, is but little more than the treasurer and maker of reports.

The most powerful city superintendent in the country, so far as the law can make him so, is Mr. L. H. Jones, of Cleveland, Ohio. With absolute control over all that relates to instruction, he has the full power of examination, appointment, and removal of teachers. He himself is the appointee of one man, the school director, though he must be confirmed by the school council. It remains to be seen whether time will prove this plan to be wise. It may or may not lead to more frequent and sweeping, and therefore harmful, changes in policies and personnel than does the usual practice of making the superintendent amenable to the government of a continuous board. The same man has been director since the beginning of the present system four years ago, and both the superintendents whom he has appointed have been not only men of marked ability, faithfulness, and probity, but have been believers in the same general educational policies; so that "the Cleveland plan" has not yet been put to any real test.

In Washington, D. C., the same authority which appoints the members of the school board also appoints the superintendent, and the latter does not depend for his official position upon the former. The relations between the board and the superintendent have been in the main cordial and harmonious, but at one time a bitter controversy arose between the first superintendent and the board, which was very demoralizing to the schools. The board earnestly sought to change the method of choosing the superintendent, urging that if he were their own appointee such disputes would be impossible. They failed in this, but secured the removal of their antagonist.

SELECTION OF TEACHERS.

Next to the actual instruction of pupils, the selection of teachers is the most important duty connected with the schools. A certificate of fitness of some description is always required before appointment, and that certificate is, or should be, good evidence that the holder will perform reasonably satisfactory service. Selection from certificate holders would therefore seem to be attended with but little risk. But the examination for the certificate is at best only a partial test, and many pass it who could scarcely be rated as mediocre teachers, and occasionally some may fail who are capable of doing good work in the schoolroom. The examination is a help in the work of selection, but no more. It narrows the field, but does not designate the individual.

Commonly the examination and choice of teachers are given to the school boards, and the details are matters of local regulation. No matter what the rules might be, the judgment of the superintendent is, under normal conditions, treated with a deference that practically amounts to putting the choice in his hands. It has been said of one superintendent that he has planned every schoolhouse built and has selected every teacher appointed in his city for the last twenty years. And nominally his duties include neither. This, if literally true, is exceptional, but it is natural and proper that the man who directs the work of the teachers and is to a great extent responsible for its character should have a voice in their selection. In many cases the choice rests wholly with the superintendent. The absolute control exercised over examination and appointment by the superintendent at Cleveland has already been mentioned. The same power as to appointment rests with the superintendent at Buffalo, but there is an examining board appointed by the mayor, whose tests candidates must meet before they are eligible for appointment. In some places, as in New York and Cincinnati, the superintendents nominate the teachers and boards make the appointments. The superintendent is nearly always one of the examining board or committee.

If the reports of the central boards of the cities concerned be true, and there is no reason to think they are not, the appointments made

by local trustees in cities in which there are such officers are not always of the best. District committees at Hartford have often employed persons as teachers and then sent them to the school visitors to be examined; and one case is mentioned in a recent report of a person who was found teaching in the schools without a license, and was directed by the visitors to present herself for examination. It was only after repeated attempts and by the exercise of great leniency because of a desire for harmony that she was able to pass at all.

This merely illustrates the difficulties that are liable to arise when separate boards have concurrent jurisdiction over the same subject.

CONCERNING THE DETAILED DESCRIPTIONS.

In the following pages I have presented the details of the systems of 23 cities so far as they are set forth in the school laws. I have shown the historical development of the systems of New York and Washington, in the first case because of the interest which has been aroused by the recent reorganization of the schools, and in the second because that was the only way in which a just comprehension of the system could be obtained.

The arrangement of the cities is in order of their size. All those having over 200,000 inhabitants are included, and some smaller cities are given because of especial features in each case that make them interesting specimens of school organization.

The epitome in tabular form at the end of the chapter will be convenient for comparison.

New York City.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

The constant tendency of legislation relating to the control of the schools of New York City has been in the direction of centralization of authority.

In the infancy of the system, fifty years or more ago, each ward or district was practically supreme in the administration of its own schools. The local trustees selected their own teachers, subject to the approval of the inspectors, who were also ward officers, chose their own course of study, and decided upon the methods of school organization.[1] They purchased their own supplies and sent the bills to the board of education, who exercised no control over their expenditures, but simply divided the school moneys between the several wards in proportion to the number of children in school.

At this period, that is, under the law of 1844, which was the first under which the system was effectively organized, each ward elected at a special election two commissioners, two inspectors, and five trustees. One commissioner and one inspector were elected each year to serve two years, and one trustee was elected each year to serve five

[1] Public Education in New York City, Boese, page 70.

years. All the commissioners in the city composed the board of education, but the inspectors and the trustees were purely local officers, the latter having practically all the power in relation to the management of the schools, and the former auditing the bills and performing certain visitorial functions.[1] The commissioners were ex officio members of the boards of trustees of their respective wards, and largely controlled the expenditure of the money allotted by the board of education to the ward schools. In feeling and in practice they, too, were more local than general officers, so that there was nobody who made it his especial business to look after the school system of the city as a whole.[2] There was a "county superintendent," it is true, who was appointed by the county board of supervisors and who was amenable to the rules and regulations of the State superintendent. But his powers and duties were not such as to give him any authority over the schools,[3] and his influence in unifying the schools was not appreciable, even if any attempt was made to accomplish such a result.

The special election feature failed to be successful in practice. The interest of the people could not be sufficiently aroused to "bring out the vote," and in 1851 special elections were discontinued, and since that time all popular voting for school officers has been done at general city elections.

A city superintendent was provided for by the same law, to be appointed by the board of education, to whom the power was given to fix and pay his salary. Among his duties were the licensing of teachers in conjunction with the inspectors, and for cause he had the power to annul licenses. But this was of little account, for there was nothing to prevent the trustees from employing a teacher without a license, if they chose, until the board of education in 1854 passed a regulation preventing such employment.

Serious defects in time became apparent in the system. The shifting of population produced great inequalities in the population of the several wards and gave the more southerly wards undue predominance in the board.[4] Great differences became manifest in the efficiency of the schools of the various wards. Some trustees were negligent and others were even unduly ambitious in advancing the interests under their charge. Irregularities of various kinds were brought to the surface,[2] and, since the laws did not clearly define the functions of the several classes of officers, conflicts of authority inevitably followed.

The revision of 1864.—There could be but one outcome to such an unsatisfactory state of affairs, and in 1864 a law was passed greatly strengthening the board of education and enlarging the powers of the inspectors.

The division of the city into wards, then 22, was still recognized in

[1] Act of May 7, 1844, in Manual of the Board of Education of 1850.

[2] Public Education in New York City, page 94.

[3] Act of May 7, 1844.

[4] Thirty-seventh Annual Report Board of Education, 1878, page 26.

the new law in the election of trustees, five of whom were to be elected for and by each ward, one each year, for a term of five years.

But for commissioners and inspectors the city was divided into seven school districts, in each of which one commissioner was elected every year for a three-year term. The number of members of the board of education was, therefore, fixed at 21 instead of 44, as before. The election of inspectors by the people was discontinued, and they were to be appointed by the mayor with the confirmation of the board of education. There were three for each district, and their term of service was fixed at three years, one being appointed each year. The commissioners were no longer to be ex officio members of the board of trustees, the expectation being that if they were separated from the administration of local affairs they would better realize their duties to the whole city.

The appointment of principals and vice-principals was made subject to the confirmation of the board of education, but the appointment of other teachers and of janitors remained in the control of the trustees as fully as before. Power was given to the board of education to remove any school officer for immoral or disgraceful conduct in any manner connected with his official duties, and this power was utilized on several occasions.

The source of support of the schools remained as before, namely, taxes laid by the county board of supervisors at the demand of the board, within specified limits. Nor was there any change in the method of the distribution of money between the wards on the basis of the number of pupils in school, though the limits of age were extended.

Attacks on the board.—Great hopes were entertained of the effects of the new scheme of organization, but dissatisfaction soon appeared, and a vigorous attempt was made in 1867 to procure the passage of a law entirely changing the management of the schools. A bill was introduced in the legislature which contemplated the abolishment of the board of education, the inspectors, and the trustees in toto, and the substitution in their stead of a commission of seven persons to be appointed by the governor with the confirmation of the senate, to be called the metropolitan board of instruction. This board was to exercise the powers of all the school officers whom it was expected that it would supplant, and its members were to hold office for eight years and receive salaries of $5,000 each per annum.

In support of this bill it was charged that the existing system had failed to accomplish the objects for which it was established; that the teachers appointed by the trustees were incompetent and inefficient; that the rules and regulations of the existing board had failed to secure proper discipline and an economical and judicious expenditure of the public money; and that the entire administration of the systems imperatively demanded a change in the officers and agents to whom it was confided.

The charges were denied, and were disproved to the satisfaction of the legislative committee in charge of the matter, and the bill failed.[1] The taking away of all semblance to local control was the strongest objection to the proposed scheme and should of itself have been sufficient to defeat it.

But charges against the board continued to be frequently reiterated. It was said that the board did not practice due economy; that they neglected to provide means for primary education while spending large sums upon a course of instruction carried far beyond what was necessary or proper in a common school; that they fostered a system of cramming, and that they neglected or excluded the poor; that they did not pay sufficient attention to the sanitary surroundings of the pupils. The board met all these charges with elaborate statistics and arguments, justifying their expenditures and explaining their official actions.[2]

District representation abolished.—The opponents of the existing system prevailed, however, and on April 30, 1869, an act passed the legislature which effected a complete revolution in the constitution of the board. The principle of district representation was renounced, and the mayor was directed to appoint 12 commissioners of common schools to form a board of education with all the powers and duties of the former board. The principle of minority representation was to be observed in making these appointments.

These commissioners were to hold office until December 31, 1871, and after that time the 12 commissioners were to be elected by the people. No voter was to have the privilege of voting for more than 7 commissioners, and the 12 who received the highest number of votes were to be declared elected. The term of office specified was three years.[3]

A city department of education.—But before the time set for holding the election thus provided for, the law was repealed by the act of April 18, 1871, which established an additional department of the city, called the department of public instruction. To this department were transferred all the powers and duties of the board of education, and at its head was a board of 12 commissioners appointed by the mayor, who was directed to recognize the principle of minority representation in his appointments. Their term of office was five years.

All laws providing for the election of local trustees were repealed by the same act and they were to be appointed by the mayor. The provision requiring confirmation of inspectors by the school commissioners was also repealed. An equally important change was in reference to finances, for the power of the board of education to fix the amount of

[1] Twenty-sixth Annual Report Board of Education, New York City, 1867, page 26, and Report of the City Superintendent, 1867, page 11.

[2] Twenty-seventh Annual Report Board of Education, New York City, 1868, page 27 et seq.

[3] Acts of 1869, chapter 437.

school tax to be levied by the county board of supervisors was taken away and the newly created department was prohibited from incurring any expense unless an appropriation therefor had previously been made by the city council. The duty of making the estimates of sums necessary for conducting the several boards and departments of the city was given to the mayor, the comptroller, the commissioner of public works, and the president of the department of public parks. The aggregate amount fixed by these officers was required to be levied and collected as a tax by the county board of supervisors.

As will be seen, the whole administration of the law was practically put in the hands of one man—the mayor of the city—for the appointment of all school officers was put into his hands. The effect of this was to make the school system a part and parcel of local politics, and the schools were in danger of becoming "an instrument of partisan aggrandizement and power."[1]

The board of education revived.—This was plainly seen by the legislature, and the act of 1871 was repealed within two years of its passage. The department of public instruction was abolished by the act of March 30, 1873, and the board of education was again brought into being.

The number of school commissioners was once more fixed at 21, but there was no requirement this time for district representation. They were to be appointed by the mayor for three-year terms, one-third of the number being appointed annually.

The inspectors then in were all legislated out of office, and the mayor was required to appoint 3 for each school district, their terms of office to be so arranged by lot that one-third should expire each year. Appointments after the first year were to be made for three years.

The appointment of the ward trustees was taken from the mayor and for the first time given to the board of education. Their power in relation to teachers received an important restriction, for the appointment of principals and vice-principals was given practically without reserve to the board of education. The right to make a nomination, indeed, still rested with the trustees, but if the board did not appoint the person so nominated within twenty days, the sole power of appointment lay with the board.

The board of estimate and apportionment was also created in 1873, and the present method of determining the amount of money to be allotted to the several city boards was then inaugurated.

The duties and relations of the several classes of school officers as then constituted were thus summarized by the president of the board, Mr. William Wood, in the report of the board for 1878:

> The immediate supervision of the schools in the respective wards is given to the trustees, who appoint teachers, nominate principals to the board of education for approval, and, subject to general rules prescribed by that board, provide books, fuel, and all other supplies, select and recommend school sites, and, under the authority

[1] Thirty-seventh Annual Report of the Board of Education, 1878, page 28.

of the central board, secure proposals, award contracts, and audit and certify bills for the payment of the cost of repairs, etc., as provided by law. Their power of expenditure of money, although limited, gives them a fund for the incidental expenses of the wards, beyond which an appeal to the board almost invariably insures an appropriation for every reasonable demand. Cases of embarrassment have sometimes arisen where trustees have exceeded their proper limits, but they have been infrequent.

The inspectors have the general oversight of the schools in their districts. They must approve the removal of teachers before the same can take effect, and countersign all bills and pay rolls. They serve as an advisory branch of the local boards. The board of education is the legislative body which regulates and supervises the whole.

The "revolution" of 1896.—This remained the system of organization for twenty-three years, for after 1873 no important change was made until 1896, when another "revolution" took place.

For years there had been a growing conviction that the ward trustee system was not compatible with the best interests of the schools. The difficulty of securing for so many offices men with sufficient knowledge of the proper conditions of school work who would be uninfluenced by the clamors of local politics was held to be insurmountable under the conditions that prevailed in New York City.

In 1893 a commission was appointed by the mayor, with legislative sanction, to draft a scheme of reorganization. After an exhaustive investigation, the commission proposed a plan by which the inspectors were to be abolished, the trustees deprived of all but visitorial functions, and the board of education clothed with enlarged powers. The board was to be composed of 21 members appointed by the mayor as before, but their duties were to be performed very largely through a board of 20 division superintendents acting under a city superintendent who was to have full control of the educational administration of the schools.

In the meantime the "reform movement" directed against the entire municipal régime then in power arose, flourished, and succeeded in obtaining possession of the city government. Reform in the schools was one of the planks in its platform, and after consideration of the bill prepared by the commission it was adopted and introduced in the legislature by Mr. Pavey, whence it became known as the "Pavey bill." Its passage was never accomplished, the strenuous opposition of the teachers of New York City having much to do with its defeat, which occurred in the spring of 1895.

The board of education then took their turn at bill making, and a measure bearing the prestige of their approval was introduced at the legislative session of 1896. It was known as the "Straus bill," from the name of him whose ideas entered most largely into its composition. In it the local trustees still shone resplendently, and their numbers were even increased, though in some respects the bill was admitted by all to be an improvement over the old system.

But against the trustees war to the knife had been declared in other

quarters, and in February, 1896, a "citizens' committee of one hundred" was organized, with an imposing list of prominent names, to fight the Straus bill and to secure, if possible, the passage of one along the lines of the defeated Pavey bill.

Senator Pavey about the same time introduced a new bill, which in brief terms abolished the local trustees and transferred their duties to the board of education, without changing the composition of the board in any way.

The entire matter was finally referred to a small subcommittee of the senate, whose investigations and deliberations resulted in the bill which finally passed. Its provisions are sketched in the succeeding paragraphs.

The old board of education remains unchanged and they have reelected the superintendent, Mr. John Jasper, who has held the office for seventeen years. The district inspectors and the ward trustees as formerly constituted have been abolished entirely, and the administration of the schools has been given wholly to the board of education and the superintendents appointed by them. The inspectors provided for are without real authority and possess functions that are visitorial and, to use the word in a new sense, reportorial only.

The pendulum has swung from complete decentralization in 1846 to complete centralization in 1896.

LAWS NOW IN FORCE.[1]

The board of education consists of 21 commissioners of common schools, appointed by the mayor of the city. Their term of office is three years, and one-third the number are appointed annually. Vacancies are filled by the mayor by appointment for the unexpired term. The commissioners may hold no office of emolument under the city, county, State, or National Government, except the offices of notary public, commissioner of deeds, or in the National Guard.

Organization.—The board must organize annually by the election of one of its members as president, to hold the office for one year.

They may appoint a city superintendent of schools and a superintendent of school buildings, each to hold office for six years; as many assistant superintendents of schools as they may deem necessary, for terms of six years each, one-sixth, as nearly as may be, to be elected each year; and a clerk of the board of education, a deputy clerk, a deputy superintendent of buildings, such supervisors of special branches and as many assistant clerks and other officers as may be necessary, all of whom serve during the pleasure of the board and perform such duties as the board might specify. The compensation of all these officers is determined by the board. The superintendent of schools and assistant superintendents may be removed for cause by a vote of two-thirds of all the members of the board.

[1] Act of 1896.

Revenues.—The amount of tax levied and the sum appropriated to the use of the schools, as well as to the other departments of the city government, are determined by the city board of estimate and apportionment, consisting of the mayor, comptroller, president of the board of aldermen, and the president of the department of taxes. Each of the several city boards, including the board of education, send annually to the board of estimate and apportionment a detailed estimate in writing of the amount of expenditure required in their respective departments. Duplicates of these departmental estimates are also submitted to the board of aldermen. The board of estimate and apportionment prepare in detail such a provisional estimate as they deem advisable as to the aggregate amount to be allowed to each department, and this provisional estimate is submitted to the board of aldermen, who make such objections or rectifications as they see fit. The board of estimate and apportionment then consider the suggestions of the board of aldermen and after such consideration prepare the final estimates. Time is given to allow the taxpayers of the city to be heard, and then the final estimate is duly signed and the amounts therein are thereby appropriated to the several purposes named therein.[1]

Property.—Title to school property vests in the mayor, aldermen, and commonalty of the city of New York, but suits are brought in the name of the board of education.

In case of the discontinuance of the use of any school site or building, the property is sold by the proper municipal authorities and the proceeds are at once appropriated to the board of education for the purpose of purchasing other property or erecting other buildings.

The board of education may dispose of such personal property as the superintendent shall certify to be no longer required. The proceeds must be paid into the city treasury and at once appropriated to the board of education.

Powers and duties.—The board of education have full control of the public schools and of the public-school system of the city, subject only to the statutes of the State. They have power to establish new schools; to discontinue any school; to consolidate schools; to lease, purchase, or acquire, by condemnation proceedings, sites and buildings for school purposes; to erect school buildings; to make additions, alterations, and repairs to the same; to provide all necessary furniture, heating and ventilating apparatus, and fixtures, and to make proper regulations, contracts, or agreements in relation to any such matters; to provide and maintain one or more high schools, and they may appoint principals and teachers and make all needful rules and regulations for the same; to adopt and enforce by-laws, rules, and regulations for the government of the board, its committees or officers, or of the schools; to appoint principals and other teachers on the written nomination of a majority of the board of school superintendents, and they may, upon the recommendation of the city superintendent, transfer principals from a school

[1] Consolidation act of 1882.

that has been discontinued to any other in which a vacancy exists, and to prescribe the manner of advertising for and making contracts to be entered into by the board of education. They have control over the hall of the board of education, and may make all necessary alterations and repairs.

The board of education may remove from office any school officer proved to have been pecuniarily interested in any contract with the board, or guilty of immoral or disgraceful conduct. Any commissioner or inspector may be removed by the mayor, after due hearing, for official misconduct or neglect, inability to perform the duties of the office, or any conduct which tends to discredit the office or the school system.

Inspectors.—The city must be divided by the board of education every five years into not less than 15 school inspection districts as nearly equal as possible in population.[1] For each of these districts there is a board of school inspectors of five members, who are appointed by the mayor, and whose term of office is five years, one inspector being appointed each year. Any vacancy is filled by the mayor for the unexpired term. The inspectors must be residents of the districts for which they are appointed.

The several boards of inspectors of common schools organize each year by the election of a chairman and a secretary, and they must meet as often as may be necessary. It is their duty to examine at least once a quarter all the schools of the respective districts in regard to attendance of pupils and of teachers, studies, progress, and discipline of pupils, the cleanliness, safety, warming, ventilation, and comfort of the school premises, and violations of the sectarian-teaching law, and to call attention of the board of education without delay to every matter requiring official action. They must make quarterly written reports to the board of education.

The city superintendent has the general direction of all classes, pupils, principals, and other teachers, and is directly responsible to the board of education. It is the duty of the city superintendent and the assistant superintendents to visit every school and inquire into all matters relating to the conduct of the schools, to advise and counsel with the inspectors, and to report monthly to the board of education. They must report all violations of the law in relation to sectarian teaching. Except in special cases all reports in behalf of the board of superintendents must be in the name of the city superintendent.

Board of superintendents.—The city superintendent of schools and the assistant superintendents of schools together constitute the board of school superintendents. This board must meet at least twice a month, and it is their duty to recommend to the board of education, from time to time, modifications of the course of study, the length of sessions, to nominate principals and other teachers, to report upon such other matters

[1] The number of districts which the board has formed in pursuance of this requirement is 35.

as appertain to the conduct of instruction throughout the schools of the city, to keep a record of the service, efficiency, and faithfulness of teachers, to examine applicants for teacherships, and to issue licenses to those qualified, to examine candidates for the position of principal who are proposed for such examination by a member of the board of education or who may be entitled to such examination under rules prescribed by the board of education as to previous experience or other qualifications. Teachers and principals must be selected from those who have passed the proper examination.

Promotion and removal of teachers.—The board of superintendents may advance teachers as regards pay or grade of instruction according to rules prescribed by the board of education, the said rules to be based on merit and length of service. The board of superintendents may remove any teacher with the written approval of the majority of the inspectors of the district, but the teacher so removed may appeal for reinstatement to the board of education. Any principal may be removed by vote of three-fourths of the board of education, upon the recommendation of the board of superintendents.

Janitors are appointed by the board of education on the nomination and with a certificate of qualification of the superintendent of school buildings; they may be removed by the board of education on the recommendation of the same officer.

The city colleges.—The College of the City of New York and the Normal College of the City of New York are not controlled by the board of education as such, but the members of the board with the president of each institution compose the board of trustees for that institution.

Chicago, Ill.[1]

The board of education is composed of 21 members, appointed by the mayor with the advice and consent of the common council, for a term of three years, 7 being appointed each year. Vacancies are filled for the unexpired term by the mayor with the advice and consent of the council.

Any person who has resided in the city for more than five years next preceding his appointment is eligible to membership.

Organization.—The board must organize each year by the election of a president and a secretary, the former being one of their own number, and must appoint such other officers and employees as they may deem necessary, and must prescribe their duties, compensation, and terms of office.

The board of education must keep a faithful record of their proceedings, and the yeas and nays must be recorded on all questions involving the expenditure of money.

Finances.—All moneys raised by local taxation for school purposes,

[1] Compiled from Illinois School Law, 1895–96, page 52 et seq.

or received from the State common school fund or from any other source for school purposes must be held by the city treasurer as a special fund for school purposes subject to the order of the board of education, upon warrants to be countersigned by the mayor and the city clerk. The board of education may not expend more than the amount received from the State school fund, the rental of school property, and the amount appropriated by the city council for school purposes. The board have no authority to levy or demand the levy of any tax. All real estate is held by the city in trust for the use of the schools, and no sale of real estate or interest therein may be made except by the city council upon the written request of the board of education.

Powers and duties.—The general laws make all boards of education bodies corporate and politic, with right to sue and be sued.

The board of education have charge and control of the public schools of the city, and have the power, with the concurrence of the city council, to erect or purchase schoolhouses and keep them in repair; to buy or lease sites and grounds; to issue bonds for purchasing school sites, erecting or repairing schoolhouses; to borrow money on the credit of the city.

The board of education have sole power to furnish schools with the necessary fixtures, furniture, and apparatus; to establish and maintain schools; to rent buildings or rooms for their own use or for the use of the schools; to employ teachers and fix their compensation; to prescribe the books to be used and the studies to be pursued; to divide the city into school districts as circumstances may require, and generally to possess all rights, powers, and authority required for the proper management of the schools; to expel any pupil guilty of gross disobedience or misconduct; to dismiss any teacher when in their opinion the interests of the schools require such dismissal; to apportion pupils to the several schools; to lease school property, and to loan moneys belonging to the school fund.

It is the duty of the board of education to take entire superintendence and control of the schools of the city; to examine all persons offering themselves as candidates for teachers, and when found well qualified to give them certificates gratuitously; to visit all schools as often as once a month; to establish and uniformly enforce proper rules and regulations; to take charge of schoolhouses, furniture, and grounds and keep them in good condition; to provide fuel and other supplies; to inquire into the progress of scholars and the government of the schools; to prescribe and enforce the methods and course of instruction; to make to the city council from time to time suggestions relating to the schools and the school fund; to recommend the establishment of new schools and districts, and to report such other facts as may be required; to prepare and publish an annual report.

None of the powers conferred upon the board of education may be exercised except at a regular meeting of the board.

The First School District of Pennsylvania (Philadelphia).[1]

THE BOARD OF PUBLIC EDUCATION.

The board consists of 37 members, one chosen from each ward of the city by the judges of the court of common pleas for the city and county of Philadelphia. Their term of office is three years, the terms of one-third the members expiring each year. Vacancies in the board are filled by the same judges for the unexpired term. No person is eligible to membership who is related to either of the appointing judges by consanguinity or marriage, who does not possess the qualifications to serve as a member of the State senate, or who is a member of the city councils.

The board must meet for organization the first Monday in January of each year, and elect a president and such other officers as they deem necessary, to hold office for one year. They must meet thereafter at least quarterly, all meetings being open to the public.

They must keep regular minutes of their meetings, and must publish a statement annually of the amount of expenditures and of the number of children educated in the public schools.

The board is a body corporate and politic.

Finances.—The title to all school property, real and personal, is vested in the city of Philadelphia. All moneys due to the board of education must be paid into the city treasury, and all sums expended by the board of education are paid by the city treasurer upon orders drawn under appropriations regularly made by the city councils.

The city councils fix the rate and levy all city taxes, and direct the amount to be applied to school purposes. But after the appropriation has been made the councils have no further control of the money. Contracts, details of construction, and money expenditures are for the determination of the board. Contracts for the erection of a new building may be made only after due advertising for proposals and public opening of bids.

A copy of the specifications for general repairs to schoolhouses and contracts made for the same must be furnished to the board of directors of the section in which the work is to be done, and before the bill for the repairs may be paid the president of the proper board of directors must certify that the work has been done in accordance with the specifications and contract.

No member or officer of the councils or of any of the city boards may be interested in any contract with any branch of the city government.

No contract may be made without previous appropriation by the city councils, and no expenditure may be made in excess of the proper appropriation. All work, labor, materials, supplies, stationery, printing,

[1] Compiled from Digest of the Laws and Ordinances Relating to the Public School System of the City of Philadelphia, 1888.

fuel, etc., required must be advertised for and contracts let to the lowest responsible bidder in the presence of the president of the board of education and the committee of councils on education; and the city comptroller may not countersign any warrant unless he has been furnished with a copy of the advertisement, of the schedule of bids, and of the contract under which the warrant was drawn.

Powers and duties.—The board of education have power to determine the number of schoolhouses to be erected in each ward, to establish a model school for the training of teachers, and to provide books for pupils. They have the general superintendence over all schools and make necessary rules and regulations. It is their duty to examine all accounts of money disbursed in erecting and maintaining the schools of the city. They have power to distribute the duties of the directors of the schools for all the wards of the city.

The board of education are authorized to establish schools for children under 5 years of age, but the directors of the several school sections are not required to admit children into the public schools who are under 6 years old. The board of education may establish, maintain, and control a central high school, and they have the same power to confer academical degrees, honorary and otherwise, as that held by the University of Pennsylvania.

The board of education must conduct night schools for male adults during January, February, March, October, November, and December of each year. They may also establish night schools for females, fix the time for opening and closing all night schools, determine the age at which pupils may attend, and make the regulations under which the school directors of the school sections or wards may appoint visitors of the said night schools.

The board of education may organize and maintain a school for deaf-mutes, said school to be a part of the public-school system; but the total expense incurred therefor may not exceed $150 for each child for any one year.

The board of education may not change any text-book used in the schools oftener than once in three years. Neither the superintendent nor any of his assistants may be pecuniarily interested in any text-book used in the schools during his or her employment.

It is the duty of the board of education to provide suitable fire escapes for all school buildings of over two stories.

Physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of stimulants and narcotics, are among the studies required to be taught in the schools, and no teacher may be employed who is not competent to teach these subjects.

The board of education may resort to condemnation proceedings when necessary to secure property required for school purposes.

SECTIONAL BOARDS OF DIRECTORS.

In addition to the board of education for the whole city, there is in each ward or school section a board of school directors of 13 members, 12 of whom are elected by the people for a term of three years, one-third being elected each year. The thirteenth member is the member of the board of education representing that ward, who is ex officio a member of the sectional board and is entitled to all the privileges of such membership. School directors must reside in the ward for which they are elected, and removal therefrom vacates the office. Vacancies are filled by the remaining members till the next municipal election. Any board may declare vacant the seat of any of its members who neglects or refuses to perform the duties of membership.

The sectional boards have the power to erect and establish as many schools in their respective sections as may be determined upon by the board of education; must appoint principals and teachers, provide all things necessary for conducting the schools, and superintend and direct the said schools. The several boards must meet at least once a month, must keep minutes of their proceedings, and must divide themselves into as many committees as there are schools in the ward, so that each committee shall have the management of one school only. The committees also keep minutes, and report to the directors whenever required by the directors. The directors must report to the board of education every six months. The sectional boards elect their own presidents and secretaries, the latter being paid $100 each per year.

The board of education may assign to the several sectional boards such proportion of the whole appropriation as is represented by the amounts asked for as "general items" to be expended by them, subject to the approval of the bills by the board of education.

No section may contract any bill exceeding $100.

The sectional directors serve without compensation, but are exempt from militia, jury, and similar duties. Service on these boards does not prevent one from holding any other office at the same time.

The board of education must establish a system of examination of all persons desiring to become teachers, and no person may be appointed as teacher who does not hold a certificate of qualification issued by the board of education. The exclusive right to appoint teachers in the ward schools belongs to the sectional boards. The normal, high, and manual training schools are wholly within the control of the board of education.

The sectional boards must certify to the board of education from time to time the names and grades of all qualified persons employed as teachers, and the list must be certified by the board of education to the city controller.

Brooklyn, N. Y.[1]

The board of education consists of 45 members, who serve without compensation and whose term of office is three years, 15 being appointed by the mayor of the city each year. Vacancies caused by death, resignation, or otherwise are also filled by the mayor.

The board elect a secretary, a superintendent of public instruction, and one or two assistant superintendents for a term of three years each. The treasurer of the city is ex officio treasurer of the board, and receives to the credit of the board all school moneys received from the State appropriation, the county board of supervisors, and from the city tax collector. The money so received and credited is disbursed only upon the order of the board of education.

The board have entire charge of all the public schools of the city and of the school moneys raised for the support of the same. They determine the number and location of the schools, but no expenditures for the purchase of ground or the erection of schoolhouses may be made without the approval of the city council. The title of all property acquired for school purposes is vested in the board of education. The board, with the mayor of the city, may sell any real property which may be declared by resolution to be not needed for school purposes.

The board of education have power to acquire by condemnation land needed for school purposes when the owners of such land do not consent to sell the same or when the price can not be agreed upon.

The funds for building purposes and for the support of the schools are kept separate, and transfers of moneys from one fund to the other are not lawful.

The board of education must make returns annually to the common council of its receipts and expenditures, specifying those on account of the general and special funds, respectively, with such other details as the common council may require. The amount to be raised by taxation is determined by the common council and is levied and collected in the same manner and at the same time as the taxes for other city purposes. The collector pays the determined amount to the city treasurer, to the credit of the board of education, out of the first moneys collected.

The whole city is a school district for all purposes of taxation, for the purchase of school sites, the building and repair of schoolhouses, and for the support of schools, but may be divided by the board of education into as many districts as there are schools, for the purpose of determining the limits within which children may attend such schools.

The board have power to establish and maintain schools for colored children, evening schools, normal schools, kindergartens, and manual

[1] Compiled from the special and general school laws relating to the city of Brooklyn, in the Report of the City Superintendent of Public Instruction for 1895, pages 205 et seq.

training schools or shops, and to employ a physician to vaccinate school children; they have full control of the public school teachers' retirement fund; they must provide free instruction in industrial or free-hand drawing in at least one department of the schools; they prescribe what text-books shall be used in all schools, but a text-book once adopted may not be superseded within five years; they must provide United States flags for every school building and must cause them to be displayed during school hours.

The control of the Truant Home of the city is vested in the board of education, and they are also charged with the enforcement of the compulsory-attendance law.

The orphan asylum societies of the city participate in the distribution of school moneys, and the board of education exercises a general supervision over the schools of said societies.

St. Louis, Mo.[1]

All free white persons residing in the limits of the city of St. Louis are constituted a body politic and corporate, under the name of "The Board of President and Directors of the St. Louis Public Schools," and by that name may sue and be sued; purchase, receive, and hold property, real and personal; may sell or lease the same, and may have a common seal.

The powers of the corporation are vested in a president and directors, who must be free white males, at least 21 years of age, and residents and taxpayers in the city for the two years preceding their election. No person holding any other position under the city of St. Louis, elective or appointive, and no person interested in any lease from the board, may be a member of the board of school directors.

The number of members of the board of directors is 21, 7 of whom are elected on general ticket at large by the qualified voters of the city, and 14 are elected by districts by the qualified voters of those districts, and must be residents of the districts which they severally represent.

The 14 districts are defined by the city circuit court, and must be composed of contiguous wards and of as nearly equal population as practicable.

The term of office is four years, and the election biennial. Four of the members at large are elected at one election and three at the next, and seven of the district representatives on the board are elected at each biennial election.

If a vacancy occurs among the district representatives by reason of death, resignation, expulsion, or removal from the city, the vacancy is filled for the unexpired term by an election by the voters of that district, to be held in such manner as may be provided by the board; but

[1] Compiled from city charter of 1876, Revised Statutes of Missouri, 1889, pages 2170 et seq., the acts of May 13, 1887, and of March 20, 1893.

if the vacancy is among the members at large, it is filled by an election held by the school board itself till the next general school election, when the remainder of the unexpired term, if there be any, is filled by election in the city at large. Whenever any election for school directors has failed to be held by reason of the neglect of the board of directors, the circuit court must, upon petition of five citizens, order the said election, appoint judges of election, and issue certificates of election to the persons elected.

The board of directors must elect one of their number to be president, and must appoint a secretary, a treasurer, and such other officers as they deem necessary, and prescribe their duties and compensation. No director may receive any compensation for his services.

There must be four stated meetings of the board every year, the times and places to be prescribed by the board, and the president or any three members may call special meetings. A majority of all the members elected constitute a quorum. Members of the board, the secretary, and the treasurer must, before entering upon the discharge of their duties, take an oath to well and faithfully perform the same.

There must be levied and collected annually on all taxable real and personal property of the city a tax of not more than one-half of 1 per cent, which tax must be paid to the corporation and used and applied by the corporation to the purposes of its creation.

The officers of the city of St. Louis charged with duties in connection with the assessment and collection of taxes perform the same duties in regard to taxes levied by the board of president and directors of St. Louis public schools. The collector of the city must collect all taxes levied by the board, must give bond to them for the faithful performance of said duty, and must account for and pay over to the board all school taxes collected by him. His compensation for his duties in this connection is at the same rate as for similar service in behalf of the general city taxes. If he fail to make the bond required the board must proceed to elect his successor in the same manner as if he had resigned. The board determines the rate of taxation for each year by resolution, a copy of which, duly certified, is delivered to the collector and to the register of the city on or before August 1 each year.

The title to all school lands and public school property in the city is vested in the board of president and directors. It is their duty to control and manage all lands granted by the Congress of the United States to the inhabitants of St. Louis for school purposes, or the funds arising from the same. They may lend money arising from the sale or lease of such lands upon good security, either real or personal, until it becomes proper, in their opinion, to invest such money otherwise for the purpose of education. No director may borrow money or purchase or lease land from the board.

The board of president and directors have power to judge of the qualifications and elections of members; to prescribe the time, place,

and manner of conducting such elections; to compel the attendance of absent members; to punish disorderly conduct at the board; to expel a member by a two-thirds vote; to make rules for their own government; to have charge and control of the public schools and all property appropriated to the public schools of the city; to make rules, ordinances, and statutes for the management of such schools and property, and to do all lawful acts which may be proper and convenient to carry into effect the objects of the corporation.

They must cause a record to be kept of their proceedings, and must lay the same before the general assembly of the State whenever required, and before a general meeting of the inhabitants of the city whenever 100 qualified electors make written application for the same. At least once a year they must cause to be published a detailed report of the operations and condition of the schools.

The board of president and directors must make suitable provision for the education of colored children, and may maintain a high school and a normal department for them.

No director may be interested in any contract with the board, under penalty of dismissal.

Boston, Mass.[1]

The school committee is composed of 24 members, 8 of whom are elected each year by the qualified voters of the city to serve three years.

It is the duty of the clerks of the several wards to make returns to the city clerk of the votes cast for members of the school committee, and after the entry by the city clerk of said returns in an official book kept for the purpose it is the duty of the board of aldermen to examine and compare them and to cause certificates of election to be issued to such members of the school committee as appear to have been chosen; but the school committee is the final judge of the qualifications and elections of its own members.

The school committee must meet and organize on the second Monday in January in each year. A majority of all the members chosen constitute a quorum. They must choose a secretary, not of their number, an auditing clerk, and such other subordinate officers as may be expedient, define their duties, fix their compensation, and may remove them at pleasure. Vacancies in the school committee caused by refusal of a member elect to accept, by resignation, change of residence, or otherwise, are filled by the board of aldermen and the remaining members of the school committee in convention assembled. A majority of the ballots of persons entitled to vote are necessary to election. The term of office of a member so elected is only for the remainder of the municipal year, and the remainder of the unexpired term, if such there be, is then filled by election of the people.

[1] Compiled from the special acts relating to the Boston school committee, in Boston School Document No. 1, 1895, from The Public Statutes of Massachusetts relating to Public Instruction, 1892, and from Massachusetts School Legislation, 1893, 1894, 1895.

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 upon 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 present 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 make such appropriations as they see fit.

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 commencement 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 may not expend or contract to expend any more money for these purposes than the city council has appropriated therefor.

The school committee must elect a superintendent of schools and a board of supervisors, consisting of not more than 6 members, 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.

No member of either branch of the city council may hold the office of superintendent or of supervisor or be a member of the school committee.

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 schools; 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.

Baltimore, Md.[1]

Statutory provisions.—The statutes of the State give full power to establish, conduct, and regulate a system of free public schools to the

[1] Compiled from extracts from the Baltimore City Code in the Report of the Board of School Commissioners, Baltimore, Md., 1894, page 170 et seq.

mayor and city council, who may delegate supervisory powers and control to a board of public school commissioners.

To the board of commissioners power is given by law to examine, appoint, and remove teachers, prescribe their qualifications, fix their salaries, subject to the approval of the mayor and council, and to select text-books. They must report annually to the State board of education.

The mayor and council are authorized to levy and collect taxes to defray all the expenses incurred for educational purposes by them. The State treasurer pays to the city council that proportion of the free school fund to which the city is entitled; funds from intestates' estates which remain undistributed for want of legal representatives are paid to the board of commissioners.

No teacher may admit a pupil who has not been vaccinated, under penalty of fine.

Physiology and hygiene, with special reference to stimulants and narcotics, must be taught to all pupils of sufficient capacity.

This is the extent to which the State has prescribed the school system for Baltimore. All the rest has been done by the city government.

City ordinances.—The mayor and council have provided by ordinance that the board of commissioners shall consist of 22 persons, one selected from each ward for a term of four years, one-fourth the whole number being elected every year. They are elected by the first and second branches of the city council in convention assembled. Removal from the ward from which he was elected vacates the office of any commissioner. The mayor is ex officio a member of the board of commissioners. The city council may expel a member for neglect of duty or for conduct unbecoming a school commissioner.

Vacancies in the board are filled by the city council; but if a vacancy occur during the recess of the council it is the duty of the board to fill the same as soon as convenient, the person elected serving until the next meeting of the council.

The school commissioners must organize annually and elect a president and a secretary. The secretary serves for one year, performs the duties fixed by the board, and receives $2,000 a year, payable monthly.

In all cases a majority of the commissioners constitute a quorum. The board must appoint a suitable person, who must be a resident of Baltimore, as superintendent of public instruction. His term of office is four years, unless sooner removed by the board, and his compensation is fixed by the board subject to the approval of the city council.

The superintendent, in conjunction with a committee of three members of the school board, must examine applicants for teacherships and if necessary reexamine teachers already employed.

The board must also appoint an assistant superintendent of public schools, at a salary of $2,000, whose term of office is concurrent with that of the superintendent, and whose duty it must be to aid the superintendent in the supervision of the schools, paying especial attention

to the primary schools. The board must appoint also a suitable person, a citizen of Baltimore, as superintendent of supplies. It is his duty, under instructions of the board of school commissioners, to have control of all repairs, furniture, heating apparatus, fuel, and incidental supplies of the schools, and to perform such other duties as the board may require. His salary is $1,800 per annum.

The city register is custodian of the funds of the school board and disburses the same on the order of the president, countersigned by the secretary.

The board of commissioners of public schools have charge of all public schools in operation in the city, and it is their duty to employ teachers and fix their salaries, subject to the approval of the mayor or council, to prescribe the course of study and text-books, make by-laws for their own government, and rules and regulations for the schools, and to report regularly to the mayor and council. The board are given charge of school buildings and may make necessary repairs not to exceed $300 in cost.

No member of the board may be employed by the board or be interested in any contract for the schools. Important contracts for supplies must be let after proper advertisement for bids, and are awarded by a board consisting of the city comptroller, the city register, and a committee of the school board, the committee of the school board having but one vote and the two city officers one vote each.

The school board may not exceed in their expenditures the amounts appropriated therefor by the city council. Lawsuits on behalf of the schools are instituted in the name of the city and only by direction of the mayor.

The city council has given authority to the school commissioners to grant certificates of graduation from the Baltimore City College and from the high schools.

The school commissioners must organize and maintain separate schools for colored pupils, the teachers to be of the colored race if they be shown by examination to posses the necessary moral and intellectual qualifications. But in no case may white teachers be employed in the same school with colored teachers.

Libraries for the free use of pupils must be maintained at the Baltimore City College and at each of the female high schools.

The school commissioners must maintain a manual training school for white pupils and one for colored pupils.

Parents of any child suffering from a contagious disease must notify the principal of the school which said child has attended, and the principal must exclude that child from school until the attending physician certifies that all danger of contagion has passed.

The board must purchase American flags for all buildings and cause the same to be displayed during all sessions of the schools except on inclement days.

The board must introduce physical training as a regular course of study in the schools, and must employ a suitable male teacher for the same at a salary to be fixed by the board, subject to the approval of the city council. Ten minutes each day must be given to calisthenics.

The board must issue the necessary directions to the teachers of the grammar schools to read to their pupils on the Friday preceding all public holidays the Declaration of Independence of the United States.

City and County of San Francisco, Cal.[1]

The city and the county of San Francisco are coterminous and are under the same government.

The board of education consists of 12 members, called school directors, elected by the people from the city at large. Their term is two years, but they organize annually by the election of a president from their own number.

The superintendent, who is elected by the people, is ex officio a member of the board, but may not vote.

Vacancies in the board of education are filled by the superintendent, with the consent of the majority of the directors then in office. Such appointees hold office till the next following municipal elections. Vacancies in the office of superintendent are filled by the board of education till the next regular election.

The board of education annually reports to the city and county board of supervisors an estimate of the amount of money required for all purposes in the conduct of the schools during the coming year; but the aggregate amount must not exceed $35 per pupil in average daily attendance. The board of supervisors are authorized and empowered to levy and collect the amount of the tax determined by the board of education. But the whole amount of tax that may be levied for all municipal purposes is limited to $2.35 on each $100 of assessed valuation, and the estimate of the board of education therefore appears to be subject to reduction by the supervisors.

If the money received and collected in any year be insufficient for the necessary current expenditures of the schools, the board of education must certify the fact of such deficiency to the board of supervisors of the city and county, and the latter must supply the necessary funds, being authorized to raise the money by loan or otherwise in anticipation of the annual tax. Money for building or repairing schoolhouses may not be so raised except in case of fire or other unforeseen calamity.

All moneys received or collected on account of public education in the city and county of San Francisco are deposited in the city treasury, and payments are made upon drafts signed by the president of the board of education and the superintendent, and countersigned by the auditor of the city and county.

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[1] Compiled from "Acts relating to the government of the city and county of San Francisco, 1887," and later acts specified.

The board of education may sue or be sued, may receive, purchase, and hold in fee, in trust for the city and county of San Francisco, any property, real or personal, that may be acquired for the use of the schools. They may sell such personal property as may not be required, but can not sell real estate. If they decide to abandon for any reason a school site or building, they withdraw entirely from control of the property, which is then treated as a part of the general property of the city, and sold as such, the proceeds, however, going to the school fund.

School bonds, when required for school purposes, and not to exceed $100,000, may be issued by and over the signatures of the mayor, auditor, and treasurer of the city and county.

The board of education are empowered to maintain public schools; to employ and dismiss teachers, janitors, and census marshals, and to fix their salaries; to regulate the grade of schools, determine the course of study, and make necessary rules and regulations; to require the attendance of witnesses in case of investigation of charges against any employee of the board; to provide fuel, light, water, and all necessary supplies; to provide and furnish school buildings and control the use of the same; to establish a special school for depraved children. They must purchase supplies by contract made after due advertisement and bid; make reports to the State superintendent of public instruction, and to the board of supervisors of the city and county; provide evening and normal schools; require records and reports by principals of schools; provide for uniform classification of studies, pupils, and salaries.

In all schools having more than two teachers beginners must be taught by teachers who have had at least two years' experience or by normal-school graduates. Such teachers must rank in point of salary with those of the assistant teachers in the highest grade in the grammar schools.[1]

There is a city board of examiners, consisting of the city superintendent and four other members, residents of the city, who must be experienced teachers, and who are elected by the city board of education and hold office for two years.

The board of examiners must meet and hold examinations for the granting of teachers' certificates semiannually, and may hold monthly and special meetings if they so determine. All meetings must be public, and a record of their proceedings must be kept in the office of the superintendent.

For cause the board of examiners may recommend to the board of education the revocation of any certificate previously granted.[1]

The superintendent, the county treasurer, and the chairman of the board of supervisors constitute the board of trustees of the teachers' annuity and retirement fund, and provide for the disbursement of the same and designate the beneficiaries thereof.[2]

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[1] Act of March 23, 1893. [2] Act of March 26, 1895.

CINCINNATI, OHIO.[1]

The board of education consists of 30 members, one from each ward. Each member must be an elector of the ward for which he is elected, and removal from the ward forfeits the membership of the member so removing. The term of service is three years.

Vacancies in the board are filled by the board until the next annual election.

The board of education annually determine by estimate, as nearly as practicable, the entire amount of money required for the schools, and certify the same to the county auditor. The auditor must levy the entire tax called for, and the county treasurer collects it in the same way and at the same time with the State and county taxes. The levy, however, must not exceed 5 mills on the dollar of assessed valuation, including 1 mill that may be levied for kindergartens. The city treasurer is ex officio treasurer of the board of education.

The board is a body politic and corporate, with the power to sue and be sued, hold or sell property, etc.

Contracts relating to schoolhouses and involving $1,500 or more may be made only after advertisement and competitive bids. Resort may be had to condemnation proceedings in case of disagreement as to price of property necessary to the use of the schools. Property no longer required for school purposes may be sold by the board of education, and, if exceeding $300 in value, must be advertised and sold at public auction.

The board have full control of the public schools of the district, with power to appoint a superintendent, assistant superintendent, superintendent of buildings, janitors, and other employees, and fix their salaries, which may be increased but may not be diminished during the term for which the appointment is made; but no appointment may be made for a longer time than three years, that being the term of members of the board.

The members of the board may not, as individuals or as local committees, exercise supervisory authority over the schools of the several wards or have the selection or nomination of teachers. The city superintendent of public schools appoints all teachers, with the consent of the board, and either he or the board of education may remove for cause; but any teacher removed by the superintendent may appeal to the board for reinstatement.

The board of education must appoint a board of examiners, consisting of 3 or 6 persons [it consists of 6] for a term of three years, one-third being appointed each year. Two of the members must be experienced teachers. No teacher may be appointed without a certificate of fitness from this board or from the State board of examiners.

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[1] Compiled from laws relating to the schools of Cincinnati, published in Report of the City Public Schools, 1893-94, pages 218 et seq., and the act of April 14, 1896.

Appointments as teachers are first for the period of one year; when made the second time they are for two years; and when made the third time, they are for four years. After teachers have served seven successive years in the city their next appointment holds good during good behavior.

The board of education must establish a sufficient number of schools to provide for the free education of the youth of school age in the city, and must provide evening schools when requested to do so by 25 or more persons of school age who can not attend the day schools. They must provide for the physical training of all pupils, and must cause the German language to be taught in any school when requested by 75 freeholders representing 40 pupils who desire to study the English and German languages together. The board may loan text-books free to pupils, and levy therefor such additional taxes as may be necessary; may provide for holding teachers' institutes yearly; may establish and maintain public kindergartens for children between 4 and 6 years of age, and may levy a tax of 1 mill therefor; may appropriate not exceeding $1,200 a year for school libraries and philosophical and other apparatus.

The board must require teachers and superintendent to keep such records and make such reports as may be necessary, and must prepare and publish annually a report of the condition of the schools. They must also report annually to the county auditor, who in turn reports to the State commissioner of common schools.

An enumeration must be taken annually, under the direction of the clerk of the board, of all children between 6 and 21 years of age, and a report of the enumeration must be made to the county auditor.

The board of education and the truant officers and superintendent appointed by them are charged with the enforcement of the compulsory education law.

The teachers' pension fund is under the management and control of a board of trustees composed of seven members, two of whom are elected by the board of education, one by the union board of high schools, three by the teachers of the city schools, and the superintendent, who is ex officio a member.

The high schools of the city are controlled by a separate board, called the union board of high schools. Teachers in these schools are appointed by the superintendent, with the advice and consent of the union board. High-school teachers are appointed for one year, but after five years' service they hold their positions during good behavior. They may be removed by the superintendent for cause, with the approval of the majority of the union board of high schools.

If so requested by the trustees of any orphan asylum, infirmary, or children's home established by law in the city, the board of education must establish a school especially for the inmates of said institution, and have control of same, but may incur no expense therefor except in the payment of teachers.

CLEVELAND, OHIO.[1]

The board of education consists of a school council and a director. Legislative power is vested in the school council, which consists of seven members elected by the qualified electors of the city. Their term of service is two years, four members being elected one year and three the next. The council elect their own president and clerk, the former being a member of the council and the latter not a member.

Legislation is by resolution, each resolution being submitted to the school director. His signature to the resolution, or his failure to return it to the council with his objections at their next meeting, makes it operative. But if he return it to the council at their next meeting with objections, the resolution fails, unless it is approved by two-thirds of all the members of the council, in which case it takes effect without the signature of the director. The approval of the director may be withheld from any part of a resolution appropriating money without affecting the remainder of the resolution.

The council have the power of providing for the appointment of all teachers and employees, of prescribing their duties, and of fixing their compensation.

The school director is elected by the electors of the city at large for a term of two years. He devotes all his time to the duties of the office and receives $5,000 a year, giving a bond of $25,000.

The director is the executive officer of the schools and performs all the duties usually assigned to boards of education in the cities of the State except as otherwise indicated herein. With the approval of the council he appoints a superintendent of public instruction, who serves during good behavior and may be removed for cause by the director. The superintendent has sole power to appoint and discharge all assistants and teachers authorized by the council. All other employees of the board of education are appointed by the director.

The director must attend all meetings of the council and may take part in the deliberations, but may not vote. The superintendent reports annually or oftener to the director, and the director reports to the council. The city auditor and city treasurer act respectively as auditor and treasurer of the board of education, and receive no additional compensation for doing so, though the clerical assistance necessary is furnished by the board.

The board of education have sole control of all moneys raised for school purposes and the title to all school property vests in them. They make an estimate each year of the amount of money required for the conduct of the schools and certify the same to the proper county officers, who must levy and collect the full amount required, provided it does not exceed 7 mills on the dollar of assessed valuation. The director may

[1] Compiled from Handbook of the Board of Education, 1893–94, page 96, and State laws

make contracts and purchases not involving over $250 without advertisement or written contract, but beyond that sum contracts are made after due advertisement and are signed by the school director and approved by the council.

Vacancies in the directorship or in the school council are filled by the council till the next municipal election, when the vacancy is filled by election for the unexpired term.

The director or any member of the council may be impeached for malfeasance in office by proceedings in the county probate court.

BUFFALO, N. Y.[1]

There is no board of education in Buffalo, but the department of public instruction is one of the ten city departments, and the city superintendent is its head.

The city has legal power to establish, maintain, and regulate public schools.

The city is from time to time divided by ordinance into school districts, in each of which there must be maintained one or more primary or grammar schools. Such schools are open and free to all persons between 5 and 20 years of age residing in their respective districts. The city may also maintain and regulate one or more high schools and schools for manual and technical training.

The schools share in the apportionment of the school moneys of the State, and the amounts which fall to the share of Buffalo are paid to the proper city officers. All expenses of the school department are included in and paid out of the general fund.

The city comptroller is authorized to embrace in his estimates a sum not exceeding $150,000 annually to be used solely for the purchase of school lots and the erection, enlargement, repair, and furnishing of school buildings. An additional amount not exceeding $300,000 may be raised for the erection and furnishing of school buildings by the sale of bonds by a two-thirds vote of the common council.

The board of public works have charge of the construction, alteration, and repair of school buildings.

The superintendent of education, an officer elected by the people on the general ticket for a term of four years, is the head of the department of public instruction. He must give bond conditioned on the proper performance of his duties. If a vacancy occur in the office it is filled by the common council at a joint session, called by the mayor, of the two boards composing the same.

The superintendent must from time to time recommend to the common council the course of study to be pursued in the different public schools, and such measures as will, in his judgment, increase the usefulness and efficiency of the schools. He selects all new teachers to be

[1] Compiled from the revised charter of Buffalo, 1891, and amendments of April 12, 1893, and May 27, 1895.

employed from the lists certified to him by the board of examiners. He must hire all teachers for the period of time and at the compensation and upon the conditions provided by ordinance. He must see that the courses of study and systems of education established by ordinance are observed. If none be so established he must direct the courses of study and systems of education to be pursued. The teachers are subject to his orders and direction. He may suspend, and for cause and after a hearing, with the concurrence of the mayor, dismiss any teacher. He must annually make a comprehensive report to the common council of the condition of the schools. He must appoint a citizen well versed in the German as well as the English language to superintend the teaching of the German language in the schools, and who must also act, when not otherwise employed, as secretary to the superintendent.

The board of examiners consists of five citizens of Buffalo appointed by the mayor for five years each, their terms of office being so arranged that one is appointed each year. The mayor may at any time suspend any member, and for cause and after a hearing may remove him. Vacancies are filled for the unexpired term by the mayor. The examiners must meet monthly, and their officers are a chairman and a secretary. It is their duty to visit and inspect all the schools at least once in each term.

The teachers are divided into three grades, namely, high-school, grammar-school, and primary-school grades. The superintendent must designate the subjects and the scope of the examination for teachers in each grade, and the examinations are conducted by the board of examiners. Those applicants who pass the examination are certified to the superintendent as eligible for appointment, and from that list the superintendent selects new teachers. The board of examiners must make annual report to the common council in regard to the condition of the schools as ascertained by their inspection, the operation of the system of examinations, and any suggestions they deem proper for the more efficient accomplishment of the purposes of their appointment.

All expenses of the board of examiners are paid by the city and included in the expenses of the school department.

The Parish of Orleans (New Orleans), La.[1]

The board of directors consists of 20 members, of whom 8 are appointed by the governor of the State, with the approval of the State board of education, and 12 are elected by the city council of New Orleans. The term of office is four years, one-fourth the number being selected each year. Vacancies among the appointees of the governor are filled by the governor, and vacancies among those elected by the city council are filled by that body. The mayor, the treasurer, the comptroller of the city, and the superintendent of city schools are

[1] Compiled from act No. 81, 1888, in relation to free public schools, and to regulate public education in the State of Louisiana, and from acts No. 136, and No. 158, 1894.

ex officio members of the board, and are entitled to participate in its deliberations, but may not vote. No school director may receive compensation for his services as director.

The board must organize within ten days after its appointment, with the election of a president and a vice-president, chosen from its members, and a secretary, who may not be a member. The treasurer of the city is ex officio treasurer of the board, and the city attorney acts as its attorney. The board of directors is a body corporate, with power to sue and be sued. Eleven members constitute a quorum.

The secretary may receive a salary to be fixed by the board. In addition to the duties of his office which the board may prescribe, he must make quarterly reports to the State superintendent, keep the accounts of the board, and report to the board at each monthly meeting the current expenses for that month.

The treasurer of the board holds office for four years, or during his term as city treasurer. He may be removed after due trial before the board for neglect of duty or malfeasance in office, and in case of removal by the board they must elect a treasurer, who may not be a member of the board.

All public schools of the city, and the property and appurtenances thereof, are under the direction and control of the board of directors. They fix the salaries of the teachers, porters, and porteresses, of the secretary and employees, and of such assistant superintendents as they may deem necessary.

They must limit their annual expenses to their annual revenue. They must prescribe rules for the examination of candidates for teacherships, and no teacher may be employed who has not a certificate of qualification; must elect teachers in order of their merit as shown by examination; hold regular monthly meetings; declare vacant the seat of any member guilty of neglect or of conduct unbecoming a member, and must report each vacancy to the authority by which the expelled member was appointed.

They may establish normal and evening schools. They may appoint a competent and experienced educator as superintendent, at a salary of $2,500 a year, and for a term of four years, unless removed for cause after an impartial hearing.

It is the duty of the superintendent to aid the directors in organizing the schools and improving the methods of instruction therein, in examining candidates for teacherships, in conducting periodical examinations of pupils for promotion, and in maintaining general uniformity and discipline in the management of all the schools. He must make reports to the board of directors and to the State board of education, and whenever notified to be present he must attend the meetings of the State board of education.

The board of directors must present to the common council of the city each year a full report of the condition and operations of the schools

and a detailed exhibit of their receipts and expenditures, and their report must be accompanied by a certified statement of the average daily attendance of pupils during the year, and of the average expense per capita of their instruction. It is the duty of the common council in making up the budget of their annual expenses to include therein the amount necessary to meet the expenses of the schools, as shown by the statement of the board of actual attendance and cost of instruction, with such additional allowance for probable increased attendance and contingent expenses as may seem just and reasonable to the city council, and a sum sufficient to keep in repair all schoolhouses and school grounds belonging to the city. But the aggregate amount appropriated must not exceed the estimate of the board of directors, nor may the amount appropriated by the city be less than $250,000 per annum.

A tax of 1 per cent has been imposed by State authority on all taxable property in the city for the purpose of liquidating the debt of the city. By an act passed in 1894 the board of liquidation, in charge of this matter, were directed to pay to the board of school directors from this tax each year such a sum as will, with the amounts appropriated by the city council, reach a total of $337,500.

PITTSBURG, PA.[1]

CENTRAL BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The city of Pittsburg constitutes an independent school district.

Whenever it becomes necessary under the law, each of the school boards of the respective subdistricts[2] of the city elect one person to serve as a member of the central board of education of the city, which person so elected must be at the time of his election a citizen of the subdistrict for which he is chosen, but he is not disqualified by reason of membership in the local board.

Annually, within twenty days of February 1, the members of the central board meet and organize by choosing a president, a secretary, and a treasurer. The first named must be of their own number, but the other two officers may or may not be, at the discretion of the members thereof.

Members of the central board hold their offices for the term of three years, and the terms are so arranged that one-third expire annually. Vacancies caused by death, resignation, removal from the subdistrict, or otherwise are filled for the unexpired term by election by the proper local board of directors. Seats of members who neglect or refuse to perform their duties may be declared vacant by the board.

The president presides at the meetings of the board, authorizes the secretary to call special meetings whenever he deems them necessary,

[1] Compiled from Digest of the Acts of the Assembly relating to Pittsburg, 1804–1886, page 198 et seq., and from subsequent acts specified.

[2] There are 37 subdistricts and consequently 37 members of the central board of education.

issues the duplicates and warrants for the collection of school taxes, takes the bond of the treasurer, signs all warrants on the treasurer, as well as the reports of the State superintendent, and does all other acts lawfully pertaining to his office.

The secretary keeps minutes of the meetings of the board, prepares duplicates of school taxes, keeps account of all abatements and exonerations, prepares reports, prepares and attests all warrants on the treasurer, and performs all other duties pertaining to the office. He receives a salary fixed by the board.

The treasurer gives bond for the faithful performance of his duties, receives all State appropriations, district taxes, and other school funds of the district, and pays therefrom all warrants drawn on him by the board, signed by the president and attested by the secretary. He is allowed to retain for his services a sum not over 1 per cent on the money received and paid out by him.

In the absence or refusal to serve of the president or secretary, the board may appoint a president or secretary pro tempore. The board must hold at least one stated meeting per month, and a majority of the members elected constitute a quorum.

The central board of education must ascertain the amount necessary for conducting the schools and certify the same to the councils on or before the second Monday in January in each year, and the councils must add the amount so certified to the aggregate of taxes required for the city, and they must appropriate the same for the schools.

All warrants drawn upon the city treasurer upon such appropriation must be signed by the president and the secretary of the central board of education, and must be submitted to the city comptroller, whose only duty in connection therewith is to countersign the warrant and to enter it in the proper account.

The central board are entitled to receive that part of the State common-school fund which is annually apportioned to the city of Pittsburg.

They may borrow money, not to exceed $50,000, to erect schoolhouses or purchase sites, and may borrow an additional $50,000 and issue bonds for the same.

If the central board neglect or refuse to levy the proper taxes or fail to perform their legal duties, the court of quarter sessions of the county, upon complaint of six taxable citizens and upon due proof, may declare vacant the seats of the delinquent members or member, and may appoint others in their stead to serve till the next annual election of the central board of education.

The board as a body corporate have power to sue and be sued; to purchase and hold such real and personal property as may be necessary for the establishment and support of the mechanical art schools, high school, and schools for colored pupils, and may sell and dispose of the same when no longer necessary; to have a common seal; to make by-laws, rules, and regulations.

The central board have power to purchase ground, erect or repair buildings, to purchase furniture, apparatus, books, and other personal property for the high school and schools for colored pupils; to determine the number of teachers in all schools, and to fix and pay their salaries; to determine the books used, and the course of study pursued in all schools. Text-books may not be changed oftener than once in six years. Physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of stimulants and narcotics, must be taught.

The central board must purchase text-books and loan the same free to all pupils. They must continue and maintain one high school for pupils of both sexes, and one or more separate schools for colored pupils; no distinction may be made on account of the race or color of any pupil. They may maintain a normal department in connection with the high school, and may establish and maintain one or more schools for instruction in mechanic arts and kindred subjects, and instruction may be given in the evening as well as in the day.

The central board must exercise a general supervision over the high school, the mechanical art schools, and the schools for colored pupils, and must, by one or more of the members, visit said schools at least once a week. They may at any time examine, or cause to be examined, any or all of the teachers in the high school and the schools for colored pupils, and may issue certificates setting forth the branches which said teachers are qualified to teach. They have the appointment of all teachers in the high school and schools for colored pupils and of teachers of all special branches in the ward schools, and may dismiss them for cause at any time.

The central board must make an annual report through the city superintendent to the State superintendent.

BOARDS OF DIRECTORS OF SUBDISTRICTS.

Each of the wards of the city constitutes a subschool district, but a subdistrict may be subdivided, or two of them may be consolidated by the central board of education, upon the petition of the proper boards of directors, provided the city councils by an ordinance declare the subdistrict so made to be a separate election district.

In each subdistrict there is a board of directors of six members, elected by the people of the several subdistricts. The term of office is three years, and two directors are elected each year.

The several subdistrict boards have power to fill any vacancy caused in their number by removal, death, resignation, or otherwise until the next organization of the board. They may declare vacant the seat of any member who neglects or refuses to attend to his duties as member.

If all or a majority of the members of any board of directors refuse or neglect to perform their lawful duties, the county court of quarter sessions, upon complaint of six taxpayers, and upon due proof, may declare their seats vacant and appoint others in their stead, to serve until the next annual organization of the board.

Each board of directors must organize annually by the election of a president and a secretary, who must be members of the board, and a treasurer, who may or may not be a member. The duties of these officers are those usually performed by such officers. The treasurer must give sufficient bond, and is allowed to retain for his services a sum not over 2 per cent of all money received and paid out by him.

Each board of subdistrict directors must hold at least one stated meeting a month; a majority of the members constitute a quorum.

The several boards of the subdistricts may levy annually a special tax upon the assessed property of their respective wards not exceeding the amount of the regular annual school tax for the year, to be applied to the purchase of ground, the erection or repair of buildings, furniture, apparatus, books, stationery, fuel, and janitors. The central board of education must be notified of the amount of tax so levied, and the said amount is levied and collected in the same manner as the regular school tax.

Any one of the subdistrict boards may borrow money to the amount of $50,000.

The several boards of directors of subdistricts have the power to purchase ground, to erect, enlarge, and repair school buildings, to purchase furniture, apparatus, books, stationery, and fuel, to pay janitors in their respective districts, to borrow money and to provide for the payment thereof with its interest, and to levy taxes for such purposes.

The title of all real and personal property of the subdistrict schools is vested in the several boards of directors, and they may sell or dispose of the same whenever they deem advisable.

The boards of directors may obtain by condemnation land required for school purposes when the same can not be secured by agreement with the owners. They appoint the teachers and exercise a general supervision over the schools of their respective subdistricts, and must by one or more of their members visit each of said schools at least once a month.

In order to enable the central board of education to make the required reports to the State superintendent, the subdistrict boards of directors must make annual reports to the central board.

Free evening schools must be maintained by the subdistrict boards for not less than four months a year when requested to do so by 20 or more pupils.

No member of any school board may hold any office of emolument under said board.[1]

The city superintendent is elected for a term of three years by a convention of all the school directors in the city, called for the purpose by the president of the board of education.

The president and the secretary certify to the State superintendent the name and address of the person elected city superintendent,

[1] Act of May 10, 1893.

together with the amount of compensation fixed upon. If no valid objection is received by the State superintendent within thirty days, he commissions the superintendent for the term for which he was elected.

The salary of the superintendent is paid by the central board of education in the same manner as the salaries of teachers are paid.

The superintendent must either by himself or by such person or persons as he may appoint examine all persons who may apply for appointment as teachers, and must give to each one found qualified a proper certificate. No teacher may be employed without such certificate.

District of Columbia. (Washington City.)

The organization of the District of Columbia is unique, and the school system presents so many peculiarities that its features can not be satisfactorily shown without a brief statement of the circumstances that led up to the present conditions.

Prior to 1871 the District was composed of three distinct corporations, independent of each other but all amenable to the control of the Congress of the United States. These corporations were the city of Washington, the city of Georgetown, and the levy court, which governed the county, or that part of the District which lay outside the limits of the two cities. The city of Washington was the most populous and most important of the three corporations.

Schools in the city of Washington.

The first act of the city of Washington relative to schools was passed in 1804 by the city council, and established "a permanent institution for the education of the youth of the city of Washington." Superintendence of the schools was placed under the direction of 13 trustees, 7 of whom were elected annually by the councils and 6 were chosen by those who contributed $10 for the promotion of schools, each contributor having as many votes as he had contributed sums of $10.

In 1816 the city was divided into two districts with separate boards of trustees, who were elected in part by the city councils and in part by contributors as before.

The first real attempt to inaugurate a public-school system in the modern sense was that of 1844, the schools having been previously in the nature of charity schools. The schools were then put in charge of a board of trustees of 12 members elected by the city councils, 3 from each of the 4 school districts, the members from each district constituting a subboard for that district. The method of appointing the trustees was changed in 1858, the mayor receiving authority to appoint with the advice and consent of the board of aldermen. By the same act of the city council the mayor was made ex officio president of the board of trustees, and the appointment of the secretary and the treasurer of the board was also given to him.

In all this time the real control of the schools was in the hands of the

city government, to whom Congress had given power "to provide for the superintendence of the public schools and to endow and collect taxes for the same."

The trustees of the schools received limited powers from the city councils, but the latter reserved the right to suspend or revoke any of those powers and to exercise supervision over all the acts of the board, even to the minutiæ of school discipline. The power of making all appropriations, of electing the officers of the board and of altering its organization, of determining the grade and number of schools, and of fixing the salaries of the teachers was retained by the city councils.[1]

The superintendent.—Provision for a superintendent of public schools was made in 1869, and his salary was fixed at $2,500 a year. He was appointed by the mayor, with the advice and consent of the board of aldermen, was directed to preside at the meetings of the board in the absence of the mayor, and was entitled to vote on all questions before the board. Later in the same year the power and importance of the office were curtailed, and the superintendent was made practically the executive officer of the board. It was then made his duty to carry into execution the rules and regulations of the board of trustees; to visit the schools, that he might obtain, as far as practicable, a personal knowledge of the condition of all the schools and be able to suggest improvements and remedy defects; to pay particular attention to the classification of pupils, and assist the board of trustees in establishing a uniform system of instruction; to advise teachers as to the best method of instruction and discipline, and to carefully observe the manner in which they conducted their schools. Whenever he found any teacher incompetent, he was required to report the same to the subboard of that district. To him was given, under rules established by the trustees, the general superintendence of all the schools of the corporation. He was required to devote his whole time to the duties of his office and keep himself acquainted with the progress of the public-school system in other places, that he might be able to suggest appropriate means for the advancement of the public schools of the city. He might attend any of the meetings of the board and speak on all questions.

No enumeration of the duties of the superintendent has since been made, and presumably these requirements are still in force.

The relations between the first superintendent appointed and the board were neither amicable nor harmonious, and the board in 1870 requested the council to change the method of appointing the superintendent by giving that duty to the board. The request was not granted in the terms in which it was preferred, but a change was soon afterwards made in the office of superintendent. The new appointee was acceptable to the board and the question of a change in the manner of appointment was not agitated further.

[1] Report of the Board of Trustees, 1866-1870, page 10.

Colored schools.—In 1862 the colored schools of Washington and Georgetown were organized by act of Congress under a separate board of trustees of three members, one appointed each year for three years by the Secretary of the Interior. These trustees were to receive a share of all moneys appropriated for schools in proportion to the number of colored children to the whole number of children.

The number of trustees was increased from three to nine in 1873 and their appointment was given to the governor of the District.

The superintendency of colored schools was established in 1867.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENT.

The three distinct corporations, namely, the city of Washington, the city of Georgetown, and the levy court for the county of Washington, were abolished in 1871, and in their stead was substituted a single Territorial government, having a governor and a legislative assembly. Congress made it the duty of that assembly to maintain a system of free schools in the District, but provided that all the acts of the old corporations should remain in force till repealed.

In August, 1871, the legislative assembly enacted that there should be three boards of school trustees in the District, one for Washington, one for Georgetown, and one for the county.

The board of trustees for the city of Washington was to be composed of 20 members, 5 from each of the 4 school districts of the city. That of Georgetown was to have "2 members from each of the council districts of the city" [it had 5 members in 1873], and the board of the county was to have 7 members. These were all to be appointed by the governor for a term of two years each.

This act, with another act passed two days later, provided for a s uper intendent of schools, a secretary and treasurer for each of the three school organizations, who were also to be appointed by the governor.

All these trustees and officers were directed to perform the duties of their respective offices, and all laws and ordinances of the three old corporations were declared to be in force in the respective localities except so far as they might have been affected by the acts of the legislative assembly.

The act of Congress of 1862 establishing a board of trustees for colored schools of course remained in force, so that there were still four school boards in existence, each independent of the others.

The Territorial government was fruitful in schemes for the physical improvement of the city. The board of public works dominated all the other branches of the government, and their vigorous measures and unusual expenditures necessitated heavy taxation and produced wide-spread dissatisfaction. Congress was forced to apply a heroic remedy, and once more made a radical change in the form of government.[1]

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[1] The City of Washington: Its Origin and Administration, Porter, page 30 et seq.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE COMMISSIONERS.

The Territorial government was abolished in 1874 and in its stead there was inaugurated a government by a commission of three persons, appointed by the President, in whom all the powers and duties of the former governor were vested. Since that time all legislation for the District of Columbia has been done in the Congress of the United States, the executive power being given to the three Commissioners of the District. This arrangement was only provisional at first, but in 1878 a permanent government was established along the main lines of the act of 1874.

In the original act of 1874 establishing the commission they were authorized to abolish any office, to consolidate two or more offices, reduce the number of employees, remove from office, and make appointments to any office authorized by law.

Under the authority thus given the Commissioners abolished the offices of secretary and treasurer of all the four school boards in the District, transferring all their duties, so far as they related to the disbursement of money to the comptroller of the District. They also ordered that the purchase of supplies be made by the comptroller and auditor of the District, subject to the approval of the Commissioners.

On August 8, 1874, the same authority consolidated the four school boards into one board of 15 members, 9 of whom were to be residents of Washington, 3 of Georgetown, and 3 of the county. A month later the number was increased to 19, 2 additional members being appointed from Washington and 2 more from the county.

The laws defining the powers and duties of the four former boards continued to apply to the new board in the performance of their functions for the four classes of schools. More specific reference to the differences in these will be mentioned in subsequent paragraphs.

The new board made no radical changes in the school affairs. The same person had already been made superintendent of the white schools of Washington, of Georgetown, and of the county; there was another superintendent for the colored schools of Washington and Georgetown, and these men continued their former duties. The colored schools of the two cities were continued as a practically separate organization.

In the act of Congress of 1878 providing a permanent government for the District the board of school trustees was abolished and all powers and duties formerly exercised by the old board of trustees were transferred to the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, to whom were given authority to employ such officers and agents and to adopt such provisions as might be necessary to carry into execution the powers and duties imposed.

The Commissioners were directed to appoint from time to time 19 persons, actual residents of the District of Columbia, to constitute the trustees of the public schools of the District and to serve without

compensation for such terms as the Commissioners might fix. These trustees were to have the powers and perform the duties in relation to the care and management of the public schools which were then authorized by law.[1]

In 1882 the number of trustees was reduced to 9, and in 1895 it was increased to 11, its present number, that the Commissioners might appoint women on the board, as they were given authority to do.

The trustees are now appointed for varying terms, fixed by the Commissioners at the time of appointment. Their terms have ordinarily been fixed at three years, but of late the Commissioners have been making appointments for one year only. They may be removed at any time by the appointing power.

The superintendents are appointees of the Commissioners, and may be removed at any time, that power having been given by law to the mayor and having descended through the governor to the present Board of Commissioners.

The arrangement made by the board of trustees in respect to colored schools in 1874 continues to the present day, and there are two separate and distinct school systems in the same territory, having the same board of trustees, but with different officers and separate organization in every respect that relates to instruction.

The powers and duties of the present board of trustees are not clearly defined. The law of 1878 was peculiarly constructed. It gave to the District Commissioners all the powers of the old board of trustees, and in the very next paragraph gave to the new board of trustees the powers and duties relating to the care and management of the schools then authorized by law.

This apparent contradiction has at different times given rise to difficulty and misunderstanding. In 1885–86 the then Commissioners advanced the theory that the trustees were merely their agents, and as such were responsible to them. They claimed and exercised the right to control even such minutiæ as the assignment of teachers and their transfer from school to school. In this they were supported by an opinion by the attorney for the District, who held that "whatever is necessary in the way of classification of pupils, grading schools, numbers to each teacher, hours of assembling and length of session, the whole matter of discipline of schools, examination, promotion, criticism of teachers and methods of teaching, the courses of study, the books to be used, and perhaps other matters pertaining to the welfare of the schools are among the powers and duties of the trustees." But, he said, their duties pertain "exclusively to the working power of the educational machinery, which they neither supply, maintain, nor repair. Upon these important matters, supply and repair, their action is advisory only." The Commissioners proposed to issue regulations of their

[1] Act of June 11, 1878, in Supplement to Revised Statutes of the United States, 1874–1891, pages 178, 179.

own in regard to the schools, which would definitely fix the status of the trustees, but never proceeded further than to make a few "suggestions." Both the Commissioners and the trustees desired nothing more than the good of the schools, and their correspondence on the subject was without acrimony. A conference brought about an understanding, and no definite or final conclusion was reached as to the respective powers of the two bodies.

But it is very certain that "the powers and duties relating to the care and management of the schools" possessed by the former boards were continued in the new one by the law of 1878, and it remains to discover the laws that defined those powers and duties. But even when they are discovered it would require a judicial decision to determine which of them belong to the trustees under the "care and management" clause.

The consolidated board of trustees of 1874 were governed by the laws covering the several boards which they succeeded. There is no doubt about that. But the search for the laws of the ancient boards is by no means easy in the present condition of affairs. It appears from a careful search, however, that the board of 1874 were governed in their relations to the white schools of Washington by the laws of the corporation of Washington passed in 1858, reenacted with two additions in 1869; in their relations with the white schools of Georgetown by an ordinance of the corporation of Georgetown passed in 1842; in their relations with the white and colored schools of the county by an act of Congress passed in 1864, and in their relations with the colored schools of Washington and Georgetown by an act of Congress passed in 1862.

The Georgetown ordinances of 1842 gave to the then "board of guardians" full power "to provide for the keeping of schools and to manage the same for the public interest, to make such by-laws and regulations as they may deem best for the government of the schools, to elect and appoint the respective and necessary teachers from time to time, and fix their compensation."[1]

Teachers were required to report quarterly to the board of guardians and annually to the corporation through the board of guardians. It was made the duty of teachers to receive all children that might be sent to them by any member of the board of guardians, or by the trustees of the poor, any of whom were authorized to grant certificates of admission.[2]

The Washington board of 1858 received power to appoint all teachers authorized by law, and to change them at pleasure; to prescribe the course of studies and the books to be used, no book to be changed except by a vote of two-thirds of the whole board, and the books in all schools to be uniform; to make and execute by-laws, rules, and regulations for the management of the schools as they may deem necessary

[1] AtLee's History of the Public Schools of the City of Georgetown, page 7.
[2] Idem, page 8.

and proper, a copy of which must occupy a conspicuous place in each schoolroom, and to alter, amend, and abrogate them at pleasure; to transact all business relating to the schools, subject to the laws of the corporation. They were required to cause an annual examination of all public schools to be made each July; to make an annual report to the common council; to divide themselves into as many subboards as there were school districts, for the exercise of a practical supervision over the schools, subject to the control of the board of trustees. The subboards were required to meet regularly once a month at least and to cause records to be kept by the principal teachers. All white children between 6 and 17 years old were to be admitted into the schools, provided their parents or guardians were bona fide residents of the city. The male and female pupils were required to be kept separate, as far as practicable, during school hours and to have different places assigned to them for recreation.[1]

The act of the city councils of September 7, 1869, made it the duty of the board of trustees to fix upon the time and manner of school examinations and promotions, to select annually one of their number from each school district to be a committee for the examination of teachers, assisted by the superintendent, and to hold semiannually, in conjunction with the superintendent, a teachers' institute.[2]

The duties of the school board of the county were written at a much later date than were those of the city boards, and have a more modern flavor. They were: to regulate the number of children to be taught in each school; to select, upon a thorough examination, such teachers as are competent, giving to each a certificate of qualification, without which no teacher is entitled to receive pay; to fix their salaries and terms of service; to suspend or expel incorrigible pupils; to prescribe the course of study and the text-books to be used * * * and generally to prescribe rules and regulations for the management, good government, and well-ordering of the schools, and to make an annual report. Any white resident was privileged to place his child or ward in any of the schools, with the consent of the board; and any colored resident had the same privilege with respect to colored schools.[3]

The trustees of the colored schools of the cities were directed to exercise the same functions and have the same supervision over the schools under their charge as were exercised over the public schools of the two cities by the trustees thereof by virtue of the laws and ordinances in force in the two cities, respectively.[4]

These, then, are presumably the laws which still govern the board of trustees. If there are any of later date I have not succeeded in finding them. It is very probable that even some of the present

[1] Fifteenth Annual Report of the Board of Trustees of Public Schools of the City of Washington, 1858–59.

[2] Twenty-third Annual Report of the Board of Trustees, 1866–1870, page 138.

[3] Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, 1873, page 32.

[4] Idem, page 34.

trustees themselves are not aware of the differences in their powers in relation to the schools of the several localities, for time has so welded together the various elements of the system that it is now one homogeneous whole. Expediency first and custom afterwards prescribed that all schools should be treated alike, and the restrictions that relate to one section were and still are voluntarily applied by the board to all sections by means of regulations; for example, all teachers in the elementary schools not graduates of the city normal schools must have passed an examination and have received a certificate of fitness, though this is not required by law except for the teachers of the county; the legal provision requiring a two-thirds vote of the board to change a text-book applies only to Washington, but it is applied by regulation to the whole District, and text-books are uniform in all schools of like grade; the division of the board into subboards, too, is required for Washington only, but it is applied in practice to the entire District. But there are now ten "divisions" and only eleven trustees, so that but one division has more than one trustee, and the legal requirement for monthly meetings of the subboards has necessarily become a dead letter.

Neither law nor custom requires that a trustee shall be a resident of the division for which he acts, but in a general way it is recognized as desirable that it should be so, and assignments are usually made with that in view.

The peculiar relations of the District of Columbia to Congress has brought about the custom of legislation by appropriations. Congress has exclusive control of the District and is its only legislative body. When any extension of the school system is desired, therefore, the request for it is ordinarily in the form of an application for an appropriation, which, if granted, carries with it the authority for the extension. It was thus that the free text-book system was inaugurated, that the fourth year was added to the high-school course, and, in fact, that all important extensions have been secured.

The board of trustees annually submit estimates covering all their needs to the District Commissioners, who are in turn required by law to submit to the Secretary of the Treasury annually an itemized statement and estimate of the amount necessary to defray the expenses of the government of the District of Columbia for the next fiscal year. The Secretary of the Treasury must carefully consider all the estimates and must approve or disapprove, or suggest such changes as he may think the public interest demands. He must cause a statement to be made of the amount approved by him and the fund to which each item belongs, which statement must be certified by him and delivered, together with the original estimates, to the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, who must transmit the same to Congress. To the extent to which Congress approves such estimates Congress appropriates the amount of 50 per cent thereof, and the remaining 50 per cent

of such approved estimates are levied and assessed upon the taxable property and privileges of the District other than the property of the United States and of the District of Columbia.

The rate of taxation for all purposes for any one year may not exceed $1.50 on every $100. All taxes collected are paid into the Treasury of the United States, and the same, as well as the appropriations made by Congress as aforesaid, are disbursed for the expenses of the District on itemized vouchers, which must have been audited and approved by the auditor of the District of Columbia and certified by the Commissioners, or a majority of them.[1]

MISCELLANEOUS LAWS RECENTLY PASSED.

The District Commissioners must report to Congress at each regular session in the Book of Estimates an estimate of the number of teachers required in each of the grades and classes of schools in the District, the amount of salary, the employment, place, and title of employment of each of the teachers in each and all the grades and classes of the schools in the District.[2]

In assigning salaries to teachers no discrimination may be made between male and female teachers employed in the same grade of school and performing a like class of duties.[3]

No school official, teacher, or trustee may receive any pecuniary benefit on account of school supplies or text-books purchased for the use of the schools.[4]

The study of the nature and effects of alcoholic drinks and narcotics must be taught in all public schools of the District of Columbia.[5]

The Commissioners, in making purchases of sites for schools must do so without the employment of agents, and in no case may commission be paid to more than one person or firm greater than the usual commission.[3]

Before the purchase by the board of trustees of any lands and premises for school purposes the title must be certified as good by the attorney for the District. The purchase must be made in the name of and the title vested in the District of Columbia.[6]

The Commissioners of the District of Columbia have power to condemn land for school sites. Application for such proceedings must be filed in the supreme court of the District of Columbia.[7]

The plans and specifications for buildings are prepared by the inspector of buildings of the District of Columbia, and must be approved

[1] Act of June 11, 1878, in Supplement to the Revised Statutes, 1874–1891, page 173 et seq.

[2] Act of March 3, 1891.

[3] Act of March 2, 1889.

[4] Act of August 7, 1894.

[5] Act of May 2, 1886.

[6] Order of Commissioners, September 24, 1874.

[7] Act of August 6, 1890.

by the Architect of the Capitol and the Commissioners of the District of Columbia; the buildings are constructed by the Commissioners of the District in conformity therewith.[1]

The inspector of buildings of the District of Columbia has authority and control over and supervision of the construction and repairs of all school buildings.[2]

The public school buildings may not be used for any purpose not directly connected with the public school system of the District.[3]

Detroit, Mich.[4]

The city of Detroit is one school district, and the schools therein under the direction of the board of education are free to all children residing in the city between the ages of 5 and 20 years, inclusive.

The board of education consists of 16 school inspectors, to be elected one from each ward in the city at the spring election held every alternate year. The term of each inspector is four years, and one-half the whole number are elected at each biennial election. The votes cast for school inspectors are deposited in ballot boxes separate from those used for other than city officers, and the elections are held and the votes canvassed in the same manner as in other city elections. Women are qualified to vote for school inspectors and are eligible to hold that office.

In case of any vacancy by death, resignation, or otherwise, the mayor may nominate and the common council may confirm the nomination of a suitable person to fill such vacancy until the next regular election for members of the board, when his successor must be elected.

Removal of an inspector from the ward for which he is elected does not vacate his office if he still reside in the city. The mayor and the recorder of the city are ex officio members of the board, and have the right to seats at meetings for the purpose of deliberation, but have no vote.

The board of education may, by a two-thirds vote, and after due hearing, expel any member for malfeasance or willful neglect of the duties of the office.

No inspector may receive any compensation during his term of office either as inspector or for services rendered the board in any capacity, and no inspector may be interested directly or indirectly in any contract made with the board.

Any person elected to the office of school inspector who neglects or refuses to serve without sufficient cause is liable to a fine of $10, to be used for the public library; but no one may be compelled to serve two

[1] Act of August 6, 1890.

[2] Act of March 3, 1879.

[3] Act of March 3, 1893.

[4] Compiled from acts relative to free schools in the city of Detroit, in Rules of the Board of Education, 1895, page 37 et seq.

terms in succession. The board may make all necessary rules of proceedure and may punish unexcused absence from meetings by a fine of not over $5 for each offense. The board may meet from time to time and a majority of the members form a quorum. They may elect one of their own number president and in the absence of the president may choose a president pro tempore.

The board of education is a body corporate and may sue and be sued, and may hold, sell, and convey real and personal property as the interests of the schools may require.

The recorder's court has jurisdiction of all suits wherein the board may be a party and of all prosecutions for violations of its by-laws and ordinances.

The board must elect a superintendent of public schools to hold office for three years, at a salary to be fixed by the board, but not to exceed $4,000 a year. They may appoint a secretary to hold office during the pleasure of the board, and may prescribe his duties and compensation. The superintendent may be directed by the board to fill the office of secretary, but he is not entitled to extra compensation for so doing. The board must also appoint a treasurer, to have the keeping of all moneys belonging to the schools. He must give such bond as the board may require, and may not pay out the school moneys except by the authority of the board.

Every resolution or proceeding of the board of education whereby any liability or debt may be created or involving the expenditure of money or disposal of property must be presented to the mayor. If the mayor approve the proceeding he must sign it, and it thereupon goes into effect. If he does not approve, he must return it to the board in five days with his objections. The board must thereupon reconsider the proceeding, and if two-thirds of all the members agree to adopt the same it goes into effect. If the mayor neither signs the proceeding nor returns it to the board with his objections in five days, it goes into effect without his signature. It is the duty of the board of education to apply for and receive from the county treasurer all moneys appropriated by the State for primary schools and district library of the city, and to designate a place where the library may be kept.

The board have authority to make by-laws and ordinances relative to taking the census of all children in the city between the ages of 5 and 20 years. They may appoint one or more persons to take such census, and may prescribe their duties and compensation. The result of the census must be reported annually to the common council, and such report is conclusive as to the number of children for purposes of taxation. It is the duty of the board of education to annually prepare and submit to the common council an estimate of the amount of taxes deemed necessary for all school expenditures during the ensuing year. The estimates must specify as nearly as possible the amounts required for teachers' salaries, purchase of lots for buildings, erection of buildings, repairs, fuel, and general current expenses.

These estimates are treated as of two classes. The full amount required for the first class, including the estimates for all purposes except the purchase of lots and the erection of buildings, with the necessary outbuildings, fixtures, and furniture, must be placed upon the general city tax rolls, and levied and collected the same as other city taxes, the proceeds to be disbursed by the board of education for the maintenance of schools and for no other purpose; provided that the amount of such estimate and tax must not be less than $4 for every child in the city between 5 and 20 years of age, nor more than $5 unless the common council approve of such excess.

The estimates of the second class, that is, for the purchase of lots, the erection of buildings, and purchase of fixtures and furniture therefor, must be submitted to the board of estimates of the city as well as to the common council. A tax may be levied to raise only such part of these estimates as the board of estimates and the common council may approve. The proceeds must be paid to the treasurer of the board of education, to be used only for the purposes for which the tax was levied. The common council may issue the bonds of the city in lieu of levying a tax to raise the whole or any part of the amount required by the estimates of the board of education.

All taxes levied for schools must be set forth in the assessment rolls apart from all other city taxes. The board of education may from time to time borrow money for temporary purposes not exceeding in all $15,000.

The board of education have authority to make by-laws and ordinances relative to the making of all reports to State and other officers required by law; relative to the visitation of schools; relative to the length of time school shall be kept, which must not be less than three months in a year; relative to the employment and examination of teachers, their powers and duties; relative to regulation of schools, and the books to be used therein; relative to the appointment of necessary officers and prescribing their powers and duties; relative to anything whatever that may advance the interests of education, the good government and prosperity of the free schools of the city, and the welfare of the public concerning the same.

The board must publish annually a detailed report of the schools.

Any nonresident paying school taxes on real estate in the city may send any scholars who are members of his own family to the schools of the city, and the amount he has paid for school taxes may be deducted from the tuition fees chargeable to his children as nonresidents.

The common council have power to pass ordinances for the maintenance of order in and about the public schools and to prohibit and prevent injury to school property.

The board of education may submit to the voters of the city any measure for adoption which does not come under the general power or authority of the board if they deem such measure just and proper toward

the prosperity and advancement of education in the free schools of the city. If the majority of the voters of the city either adopt or reject the proposed measure the board of education must abide by the result.[1]

It is the duty of the board of education to enforce the compulsory attendance laws; to provide flags for all schoolhouses and cause them to be displayed during school hours.

The board of education must establish a public school-teachers' retirement fund, to be administered by a board of trustees consisting of the board of education, the superintendent of schools, and two representatives selected by the teachers. This fund consists of all money deducted from the salary of any teacher on account of absence, or any other reason; donations, bequests, etc., on account of the fund; money obtained from miscellaneous sources, or appropriated or raised with the approval of the common council and the board of estimates; percentages not to exceed 1 per cent deducted from the salaries of teachers; interest derived from said moneys.

The board of education must establish and maintain a district library, but they may elect a board of commissioners to whom the care of the funds and property of the library may be transferred. A special library tax of one-fifth of 1 mill on the dollar must be levied each year with other city taxes and paid over to the commission.

MILWAUKEE, WIS.[2]

The public schools are under the general management, control, and supervision of a school board, consisting of two persons from each ward,[3] appointed by the aldermen of such ward[4] subject to confirmation by the common council. The members of the board hold their offices three years unless sooner removed.

A president is elected by the board, and must be a member thereof. A majority of the members constitute a quorum.

The board appoints biennially a secretary, who gives bond, performs the duties usual to the office, and takes a school census yearly.

The members of the board must take the official oath and be subject to the same restrictions and liabilities as aldermen, and are exempt from jury duty. The seat of a member absent without satisfactory excuse from four successive meetings must be declared vacant and the common council proceed to elect his successor. The council may remove any member for cause.

The school board must report to the common council each year the amount of money required for the support of all the public schools

[1] This provision was passed with special reference to the question of free textbooks.

[2] Compiled from act of April 27, 1891, in Wisconsin City Charters and Amendments, 1891, page 1248, and from other acts specified.

[3] There are 18 wards, and consequently 36 members of the school board.

[4] There are 3 aldermen from each ward.

during the next fiscal year, and the council must levy and collect a tax in addition to the general tax at the same time and in the same manner as other city taxes, which, with other funds provided for the same purpose, shall be equal to the sum required by the school board; but the council may, by a two-thirds vote, levy a tax for a greater or less amount.

The school tax and the school fund of the city may not be used for any other purpose than the payment of the salaries of the superintendent of schools, of the secretary of the board, of the teachers and other employees, and the current expenses of the schools, including the purchase of supplies, apparatus, and fuel, and the ordinary repairs of school furniture. All school moneys of the city are paid to the city treasurer and disbursed by him on the order of the president and secretary of the board countersigned by the city comptroller. The school board may not in any one year incur any expense or contract any debt greater than the amount subject to their order without an ordinance of the council.

All school property is the property of the city, and no lot may be purchased and no building may be erected without an ordinance or resolution by the common council. All deeds of conveyance and leases are made to the city.

The board of public works have special charge and superintendence of schoolhouses, and make all repairs, alterations, and improvements upon them and upon the premises thereof. Whenever such repairs or alterations or improvements are deemed necessary by the school board, it is their duty to report the same to the common council for their action.[1] The board of public works also advertise for bids, let contracts, and supervise the work of building new houses. The common council are authorized to levy and collect taxes for the purchase of sites and the erection of school buildings.[2]

The school board are authorized and required, subject to the approval of the council, to establish as many new schools as may be necessary for the accommodation of the children of the city, and the council must erect, purchase, or hire buildings and furniture and lots for such schools.

The school board have the power to employ the janitors necessary for schoolhouses, and to fix their compensation; to define the boundaries of school districts in the city; to prescribe the text-books to be used, but may not change them oftener than once in five years. The text-books and the system of instruction must be as nearly as possible uniform for the whole city. They may adopt and enforce by-laws, rules, and regulations for their own government and for the organization, discipline, and management of the schools.

The school board must elect by ballot biennially a learned and

[1] Acts of 1882, chapter 324.

[2] Act of March 11, 1881.

experienced person as superintendent of schools for a term of two years unless sooner removed. His salary is fixed by the board, but may not exceed $4,000 per annum. He must appoint, subject to the approval of the board, an assistant superintendent, to hold office during the term of the superintendent unless sooner removed, and whose salary may not exceed $2,000.

In connection with a committee of the board and subject to confirmation by the board, the superintendent examines, certificates, classifies and employs teachers, and may dismiss them for cause. The secretary of the board must file annually with the city comptroller a certified list of all teachers employed, with their salaries.

Any officer of the board may be dismissed by the board by a two-thirds vote for cause after due hearing.

The school board must report annually to the common council.

Minneapolis, Minn.[1]

The board of education of the city of Minneapolis consists of seven school directors. They are elected by the people at the biennial State election and as a part of the general election, but a separate ballot box is provided. The term of office of each director is six years, two being elected at each biennial election, except that every sixth year three are elected. Every school director before entering upon his duties must take an oath to support the constitution and laws of the State and to perform the duties of his office to the best of his ability.

In case of the death, resignation, or removal from the district of any school director the vacancy may be filled for the unexpired term by election at the next annual election.

The time and place of the meetings of the board are appointed by the board. The officers consist of a president and a secretary, who must be school directors. The city treasurer and the city comptroller are treasurer and comptroller, respectively, of the board. The secretary and the treasurer are bonded officers. Election of officers is held annually.

The board of education is a legal corporation, has a common seal, 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 of education.

The board of education is authorized and empowered to levy such taxes as will raise sufficient sums of money for all school purposes; but the aggregate levy of such taxes must not exceed 4 mills on the dollar of assessed valuation. The board must make return of its 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

[1] Compiled from the charter of the board of education, published in the Report of the Board of Education for 1894–95, pages 163 et seq.

county taxes, and the full amount of money collected must be paid to the city treasurer, to the credit of the board of education.

The board may purchase real estate for school purposes whenever six directors vote to make such a purchase, and may sell and convey the same whenever five directors vote to do so. They may not issue any bond, promissory note, or other obligation to pay money unless the same shall become due and be paid not later than the July 1 next following, and then for no greater sum than can be paid out of the regular revenues of the board.

The board of education may acquire real estate by condemnation proceedings whenever they deem it expedient, and the title acquired by such proceedings is an absolute estate in fee simple.

The board of education have entire control and management of all common schools in the city. They are entitled to demand and receive all moneys that accrue to the district for school purposes under any law of the State or otherwise, and may appropriate and use such moneys for the support and maintenance of the schools as they may deem best. They may hire or erect and maintain schoolhouses, but no building may be erected on land not held in fee simple. They may employ superintendents and teachers, and make rules and regulations for the government of the schools and for the employment and examination of teachers and prescribing their powers and duties; and prescribing the grading, and classification of pupils and their management, and the course of instruction and the books to be used, and other matters pertaining to the government and welfare of the schools. They may also make by-laws for their own government.

St. Paul, Minn.[1]

The board of school inspectors consists of seven persons, appointed by the mayor. Their term is three years, and two are appointed every year, except every third year, when three are appointed. Vacancies are filled by the mayor for the unexpired term. The president, vice-president, and secretary are elected by the board to serve for one year, and the superintendent of public schools to serve two years.

The board is not a corporation, and can not 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.

The expense of the public schools is limited to the amount appropriated by the common council, and the amount of school tax laid by the council may not be greater than $2\frac{1}{2}$ mills nor less than 2 mills on the dollar of all property on the assessment roll. All school moneys appropriated to the city of St. Paul from State or county funds are paid to the city treasurer. The treasurer and comptroller of the city of St. Paul report to the board of inspectors through their secretary every month the amount of funds in the city treasury set apart by the council for educational purposes.

[1] Compiled from act of March 20, 1891, in Report of 1894-95, page 114 et seq.

The board of inspectors are required to make a detailed report of the progress and operations of the schools to the mayor every month, which report is transmitted to the council. They must also make a report each year to the mayor, specifying in detail the salaries desired to be paid to the teachers during the coming year. The mayor transmits the same to the council, who may reduce the total amount to be paid, but may not raise it, nor may they fix the salary of any teacher. The board of inspectors report annually upon the need of new buildings, specifying as nearly as possible the cost of the sites required as well as the probable cost of suitable buildings to be erected. If the condition of the school fund justifies it, the council, by a three-fourths vote, may order the mayor and the president of the board of school inspectors to proceed to obtain such site and erect a suitable building thereon, in accordance with plans and estimates to be provided by the board of inspectors.

In erecting buildings the mayor and the president of the board of inspectors must advertise for proposals for furnishing material and labor, and contracts are let to the lowest bidder, said contracts being between the contractor and the city of St. Paul; all payments are made from the city treasury. Whenever any school building is ordered to be erected by the common council a building inspector is appointed by the mayor and confirmed by the council, whose duty it is to inspect the work upon the building, and who must report that the work has been done according to the plans and specifications before any requisition may be drawn for payment. When the building is completed he must make a final report to the council, specifying fully the kind and amount of material that has been used and the manner in which the building has been erected.

The board of school inspectors do not purchase their own supplies, but each year they make a statement of what is desired for the ensuing year, and a committee, consisting of the mayor of the city, the president of the common council, and the city treasurer, advertise for and purchase them.

The board of inspectors may make no debts except for the monthly salaries of teachers and for current expenses in the case of school buildings, and then only to the extent and in the manner herein specified. They have the care, custody, and control of schoolhouses, and appoint janitors and watchmen for the same. The police department of the city is especially charged with the protection of school property in every respect. The title to all property pertaining to the public schools of the city is vested in the city of St. Paul in trust for the uses and purposes of education solely.

The board of inspectors have full power to employ and dismiss teachers, and the city council have no control over them in that respect. Teachers serve during the pleasure of the board of inspectors, and after one year of successful service are not subject to annual elections.

No member, officer, or employee of the board may be a party to or interested directly or indirectly in any contract with the board of inspectors or the city of St. Paul.

The board of inspectors may make rules to enforce the attendance of children between 8 and 16 years old who may be enrolled in the schools as pupils.

District No. 1, Arapahoe County (Denver), Colo.[1]

There are three separate school organizations in the limits of the city of Denver, known, respectively, as Districts No. 1, No. 2, and No. 17, Arapahoe County. These districts are not only distinct from each other, having different boards and officers, but all are entirely independent of the city government.

The following refers to District No. 1, which comprises a population of about 75,000, or over half the inhabitants of the city.

The board of education consists of six directors, elected by the qualified voters of the district, to serve three years, two being elected each year. Vacancies are filled by the board till the next ensuing election. The directors must organize within ten days after their election by choosing a president, who must be one of their number, a secretary who may be one of their number, and a treasurer, who may not be of their number. All of these serve for a term of one year. The board is a body politic and corporate, and may contract or be contracted with, sue or be sued, and may receive any gift, grant, or devise made for the use of the schools of the district.

The president presides over all meetings of the board when present, signs all orders on the treasurer, and appoints such committees as he may deem expedient.

The secretary must keep a record of the proceedings of the board, make all the reports required by law of secretaries of district boards, make all necessary reports to the board, and perform such other duties as may be required by the board. His compensation is fixed by the board.

The treasurer takes charge of all moneys belonging to the district and disburses the same on the order of the president of the board, countersigned by the secretary. He must keep account of all receipts and expenditures, render such statements as the board may require, and give bond for the faithful discharge of his duties.

The board of education must hold regular meetings monthly, and may hold special meetings when necessary, but no business may be transacted at such special meetings except that for which the meeting was called.

The board of education have the power to levy a special tax of not over 3 mills on the dollar on the taxable property of the district for

[1] Compiled from the school charter in the report of the Board of Education, 1893–94, page 87 et seq.

the purpose of building schoolhouses in the district. Such tax must be made by a two-thirds vote of the members of the board, and must be collected by the county collector at the same time and in the same manner as county taxes, and, when collected, it must be paid to the treasurer of the board.

The board of education must also annually determine what sums of money will be required in addition to their quota of the State school fund for the current expenses of the schools for the ensuing year, and they report the sum so required to the board of county commissioners, who must levy and collect the same as a tax upon all taxable property of the district. But such tax must not exceed 3 mills on the dollar of assessed valuation. The money, when collected, is paid to the treasurer of the board of education.

The title to all lands, houses, and other property used for school purposes in the district is vested in the board of education, and they have full power to sell, lease, and convey any such lands and tenements if they deem it expedient.

The board of education have entire control and management of all public schools and school property of the district; they have the power to make and enforce necessary rules and regulations; to purchase books and apparatus; to select and purchase sites; to hire or erect buildings and keep them in repair; to employ teachers; to fix the salaries of superintendent, secretary, and teachers; to determine what branches of instruction shall be taught; and to determine on what terms pupils living outside the district shall be admitted to the schools.

The board of education must annually elect a superintendent of schools to serve one year from the time of his appointment. It is his duty to have oversight of all public schools in the district; to examine applicants for teacherships, and grant certificates to those found qualified; to visit the schools, observe the discipline, mode of teaching, progress of pupils, and such other matters as he may deem of interest, and to report thereon to the board of education, and to perform such other duties as the board may prescribe.

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.[1]

The city is divided into eleven school districts by the board of school commissioners, and the qualified electors of each district elect one school commissioner to serve for three years, the terms being so arranged that one-third of the whole number of commissioners are elected each year.

The number and boundaries of the districts may be changed by the board of school commissioners at any time, and if the number is increased

[1] Compiled from act of March 3, 1871, relating to all cities of 30,000 or more inhabitants, in Statutes of Indiana, Revision of 1876, page 817 et seq., and from subsequent acts specified. At the time of the passage of this law Indianapolis was the only city in the State having the population named.

each additional district is entitled to elect one school commissioner. Vacancies occurring at any time prior to the annual election are filled by the board till the next annual election.

The election takes place annually on the second Saturday in June, and on the first Monday in July following the school commissioners assemble and organize by the election of a president, a treasurer, and a secretary, all of whom must be of their own number. Meetings are held at such times as the board may determine, and a record must be kept of all their proceedings. The members serve without compensation. The board of school commissioners are authorized—

(1) To district the city for the purpose of electing school commissioners and for general school purposes.

(2) To levy all taxes for the support of the schools in the city, in addition to the State taxes; but no such tax may exceed 25 cents on each $100 of taxable property for purchasing grounds, building schoolhouses, and furnishing supplies therefor, or 25 cents on each $100 for the payment of teachers.

(3) To levy a tax of not over 2 cents on $100 for the support of free libraries; to disburse all revenue so raised in the purchase of books, fitting up suitable rooms, and for the salaries of librarians; to make and enforce the proper regulations relating to said libraries.

(4) To cause to be examined all teachers applying for positions in the schools of the city and to license those found qualified.

(5) To purchase grounds, construct school buildings, employ and pay teachers and superintendents, and to disburse through their treasurer all school and library moneys.

(6) To require of their treasurer a sufficient bond for the proper performance of his duties.

(7) To determine the course of instruction and regulate the government and discipline of the schools.

(8) To issue bonds not to exceed in the aggregate $100,000.

All levies of taxes made by the board of school commissioners are certified to the proper city officers and collected at the same time and in the same way as other city taxes, the proceeds being delivered to the treasurer of the school board, which officer also receives all school moneys to which the city is entitled from county and State taxes and apportionments.

The board of school commissioners may establish as a part of the system of common schools of the city a system of industrial and manual training, wherein shall be taught the practical use of tools and mechanical implements, the elementary principles of mechanical construction, and mechanical drawing. They may levy a tax of not over 5 cents on each $100 of taxable property for the purpose.[1]

[1] Act of March 7, 1891.

CHARLESTON, S. C.[1]

The city is divided into six school districts, each embracing two wards, and at every municipal election (i. e., every four years) there is elected by the legal voters of each district one school commissioner. The six school commissioners so elected, with two appointed by the governor[2] for the same term upon the recommendation of the board of trustees of the High School of Charleston and two others similarly appointed upon the recommendation of the board of trustees of the College of Charleston,[3] constitute the school board of the city of Charleston.

The commissioners so elected and appointed may assemble at any time and elect a chairman, a clerk, and a superintendent of city schools, whose terms of office, duties, and compensation are prescribed by the board; but their terms of office may not exceed that of the board electing them.

Vacancies in the board caused by death, resignation, departure from the State, or refusal to qualify are filled by the board from the same wards in which they occur.

The city treasurer must annually levy and collect, at the same time as the city taxes, a tax of 1 mill on the dollar on all taxable property in the city;[4] and the county treasurer must pay over to the city treasurer the portion of the State school taxes to which the Charleston school district is entitled, and all of said taxes are deposited in the treasury as public money, to be paid out on the warrant of the city board of school commissioners. The said moneys are to be applied to the support of the city schools and to the repairs of the city school buildings.[5]

The city treasurer is entitled to receive out of the school moneys $500 a year for receiving and disbursing the school fund.

The school board are empowered, and it is their duty, to determine the studies and books to be used in the city schools; to cause examinations to be made of teachers; to elect and dismiss teachers, prescribe their duties and terms of office, and to make rules for the government of the schools; to fill vacancies among their own number; to grant diplomas in the normal school department, which entitle holders to become teachers; to make an annual report to the State superintendent; to take charge of all school property belonging to or used by the city and to keep the same in order; to select by competitive examina-

[1] Compiled from the Revised Statutes of South Carolina, 1893, sections 1091–1894.

[2] The governor has the right to refuse to appoint commissioners nominated as above should he see fit to do so, but no governor has as yet exercised the right.

[3] These institutions are in part supported by the city, and the city council name some of the trustees.

[4] The tax of 1 mill on the dollar specified by law can not be increased or reduced either by the city council or the school commissioners. It can be changed only by the legislature.

[5] New school buildings are erected by the commissioners with funds raised by special tax, which must be authorized by the legislature in each case.

tion such meritorious boys as desire a more liberal education and are unable to pay for the same, to recommend them to be received into the High School of Charleston, and to pay their tuition fees if admitted. Such pupils are entitled upon graduation to free honorary scholarships in the College of Charleston.

HARTFORD, CONN.[1]

The schools of Hartford are still conducted under general laws designed primarily for rural communities. They have no connection with the city of Hartford as such, but are affairs of the town (or township) of Hartford and of the districts into which the town is divided. There are 10 of these school districts, varying greatly in size, population, and wealth, and consequently in the efficiency and relative cost of their schools.

The town has the power to form, unite, alter, and dissolve school districts within its limits, and may abolish all school districts and itself assume control of all the schools, constituting one school district; but this consolidation may be accomplished only by the majority of the votes cast at an election duly held to decide the question. Consolidation has several times been submitted to a vote of the people and has each time been voted down by large majorities. At the last election, held in 1874, out of about 7,000 votes cast the majority against consolidation was over 2,500. The stronger districts are opposed to giving their money to aid in the support of schools in the weaker districts, and the weaker districts seem to desire to retain the direct management of their own affairs, for in only 1 out of the 10 districts did consolidation receive a majority of the votes.

The direction of the affairs of the schools is divided between (1) the legal voters of the town in town meeting assembled, (2) the selectmen of the town, who are officers with general duties, (3) the town board of school visitors, (4) the joint board of selectmen and school visitors, (5) the high-school committee, (6) the legal voters of the respective districts in district meeting, and (7) the district committees.

The powers and duties of these several bodies are not defined with sufficient precision to prevent misunderstandings and conflict of authority, as an examination of the school reports shows; but such difficulties do not appear to have been serious enough to interfere with the harmonious conduct of the schools, and have not been greater than in some other places having less complicated arrangements. They have certainly not been sufficient to cause a popular demand for a change strong enough to alter the system.

Public schools must be maintained for thirty-six weeks in each year in every school district in which the number of persons between 4 and

[1] Authorities: Laws of Connecticut relating to schools, 1894; public acts relating to education, 1895; the several reports of the board of school visitors.

16 years of age is 50 or more, and at least thirty weeks in other districts. In said schools there shall be taught, by teachers found duly qualified by the school visitors, reading, spelling, writing, English grammar, geography, physiology, and hygiene with special reference to stimulants and narcotics, and such other studies, including training in manual arts, as may be prescribed by the board of visitors.

The schools must be open to all children over 4 years old in the respective districts without discrimination on account of race or color; but children under 5 may be excluded whenever the board of school visitors so determine. In practice, children residing in one district and attending school in another pay tuition.

THE TOWN.

High schools.—The town may [and does] maintain schools of high grade, and for such purpose may purchase, hold, and convey property, build schoolhouses, lay taxes, and adopt regulations for the management of such schools. The town may choose by ballot a committee of five residents of the town who have all the powers and duties in relation to such schools that district committees have in relation to district schools. No voter may vote for more than three members of the high-school committee, and the five persons receiving the highest number of votes are elected. If the town fail to elect a high-school committee, the school visitors must appoint such committee.

The board of school visitors must prescribe rules for admission of pupils to the high school, for their studies, books, and classification; examine and certificate teachers for the same; revoke certificates of incompetent teachers, and visit the school at least twice each term.

Evening schools.—The town must establish and maintain public evening schools; the board of school visitors have supervision over them. The board of visitors must annually certify to the comptroller of the State the average number of pupils attending evening schools within the current school year and the comptroller thereupon draws his order on the State treasurer in favor of the board of visitors, for the use of schools, in the sum of $2.25 for each pupil so certified, and the State treasurer must pay the same on presentation. Evening schools to be entitled to this distribution must have been open for at least seventy-five evenings during the school year. The school visitors must report annually to the State board of education concerning evening schools.

Kindergartens.—The town or any district may maintain kindergarten schools for pupils over 3 and under 7 years of age. In Hartford the kindergartens are supported by the respective districts.

Miscellaneous provisions.—The town at its annual meeting may direct the board of school visitors to employ special teachers of music for all districts, their salaries to be paid by the town, and it may direct the school visitors to provide at the expense of the town the text-books and supplies for the use of pupils.

Women are entitled to vote at school elections and are not debarred by their sex from membership in the board of school visitors or the district committees. Separate ballot boxes must be provided for women's ballots at all elections in which they may vote.

Other business transacted by the town at town meeting is mentioned in different connections in succeeding paragraphs, especially in relation to finances.

THE SELECTMEN.

The selectmen have the management of any property pertaining to the schools and belonging to the town, and must lodge with the treasurer all bonds and securities not intrusted to others by the grantor, and all moneys which they may receive for the use of the schools.

It is the duty of the selectmen to cause the boundary lines of school districts to be entered on the records of the town; to designate the time, place, and object of holding the first meeting in any new district; to provide each schoolhouse in the town with a United States flag, to be displayed every school day when the weather will permit. The name, number, and limits of every school district must be entered on its records and on the records of the town.

The selectmen of the town define boundaries of districts when not clearly settled and define boundaries of new districts. When the selectmen can not agree, the town may appoint three indifferent persons for that purpose.

At least fifteen days' notice must be given when it is proposed to alter the boundary of any district. Appeal may be had to the superior court by any district aggrieved by any action of the town in this connection.

JOINT BOARD OF SELECTMEN AND SCHOOL VISITORS—FINANCES.

The selectmen and the school visitors must meet annually as a joint board and prepare estimates of the cost of each and all the schools for the next school year, and they must at once notify the several district committees of the amounts so fixed. These estimates must be presented to the town at the next annual town meeting, together with a report of the expenses of the last year.

The rate of taxation and the sum of money to be appropriated for schools are determined by the town in town meeting. The joint board of selectmen and school visitors must divide between the several districts each year the moneys appropriated by the town for wages of teachers, fuel, and incidental expenses, and must notify each district committee of the amounts apportioned to them.

If the amount spent in any district exceed the amount fixed upon for that district by the joint board, the said board must meet to decide whether the expense was necessary. If they decide that it was necessary, the selectmen must draw an order on the town treasurer to pay the

same; if not, the amount must be paid by the district unless the town order otherwise.

The town is not required to expend more for school purposes than is produced by a tax of 1 mill on the dollar. But the full sum must be paid to the several school districts in proportion to the number of school children in the several districts.

When the cost of the schools in any district is greater than the sum received from the town, the excess must be met by a tax laid by the district.

The joint board of selectmen and school visitors have power to appropriate money for the purchase of books and apparatus for the public school of the town. The money is expended by a committee of the school visitors; the State contributes annually $5 for each 100 pupils in the schools, to be used for the same purpose.

The moneys apportioned to Connecticut in the distribution by the United States of the surplus in 1837 was divided between the towns of the State, and forms what is known as the "town deposit fund." The principal of this fund must be kept intact and the income used solely for the support of schools.

Each district committee, or their clerk, must annually make an enumeration of all children belonging to the district, and must make return of the same to the school visitors. If the district committee fail to do this, one of the school visitors must make the enumeration.

The school visitors must examine and correct the returns and forward them to the State comptroller.

The State school moneys are divided between the districts on the basis of the enumeration, but no district may receive State money unless the school visitors certify that schools have been kept therein in accordance with law. No district may receive money from the State or town unless it has a schoolhouse satisfactory to the school visitors.

No schoolhouse may be built except according to a plan approved by the school visitors and by the building committee of the district, nor at an expense greater than the sum appropriated therefor by the district.

School districts have the right of condemning land required for school purposes.

THE BOARD OF SCHOOL VISITORS.

There is for the town a board of school visitors of nine members, three of whom are elected each year in town meeting by the legal voters of the town for a term of three years. The election is by ballot, each voter being allowed to vote for two members only, the three persons receiving the highest number of votes being declared elected. In case of a tie, that person whose name is first on the greatest number of ballots is elected.

Should any vacancy occur, the remaining members of the board may fill it till the next annual election, when the ballots must distinctly specify the vacancy to be filled.

The board of school visitors must annually choose from themselves a chairman and a secretary. The chairman of the board of school visitors, or, in case of his absence or inability to act, the secretary, must call a meeting of the board at least once in six months, and whenever the chairman deems necessary, or is requested in writing to do so by three members. If no meeting is called within fourteen days after such request, one may be called by three members, by giving written notice to the others.

The secretary must keep a record of the proceedings of the board and make to the town and to the State board of education annual written reports.

The board of school visitors must prescribe rules for the management, studies, classification, and discipline of the public schools, and, subject to the control of the State board of education, the text-books to be used. The board of school visitors may not change any text-book used in the schools except by a two-thirds vote and after one week's notice. They must, as a board, or by a committee appointed by them, examine all persons desiring to teach in the public schools and give to each person found qualified a certificate, authorizing the holder to teach in any of the schools of the town, or only in the district specified, for such time as may be stated in the certificate. They must revoke the certificate of any teacher found incompetent to teach or to manage a school. No teacher may be employed who has not received a certificate of approbation of the school visitors, and no teacher is entitled to receive pay who does not properly keep a school register.

If the town so direct, the board of visitors must employ the teachers for all its public schools, after consulting the several district committees; but the town has not so directed, and the employment of teachers is still in the hands of the district committees.

The board have authority to require that every child shall be vaccinated before entering school, and if the parents of any child are not able to pay for the same the town must bear the expense, on the recommendation of the board.

It is the duty of the board of school visitors to make rules for the school libraries provided in part by the State and to approve the books selected therefor; to fill vacancies in district offices, fix sites, and approve plans for schoolhouses, and superintend the high school; to enforce the laws relating to the employment of children and to compulsory education; to receive reports from school district officers; to inspect school buildings and to approve sites and plans for new buildings; to examine the returns of enumeration of persons 4 to 16 years of age made by district committees and forward the same to the State comptroller, certifying at the same time what schools have been kept according to law; to meet with the selectmen of the town each year as a joint board to prepare estimates to be submitted to the town meeting, to fix the amount of the town appropriations to be apportioned to the

school district, to report the cost of the schools to the town meeting, and to pass upon expense of districts in excess of amount appropriated by the town; to give certificates to the selectmen as to whether the district schools have been kept according to law; to regulate, in connection with district committees, the admission of nonresident pupils; to pass upon the union of small schools; to investigate the sanitary condition of schoolhouses. The board of school visitors must make returns annually to the State comptroller of the number of persons 4 to 16 years of age in the town, and the president and secretary must draw on the comptroller for the amount of State school money due the town.

At the close of each term the school visitors must certify to the town selectmen whether each school has been kept according to law.

The board annually assign the duty of visiting the schools of the town to one of their number, who is called superintendent of public schools. He must visit the schools, examine the schoolhouses and outbuildings, school register, and library, and investigate the studies, discipline, mode of teaching, and general condition of the schools. He must submit annually to the board a written report of the several schools, with plans and suggestions for their improvement. The compensation of the superintendent is fixed by the town.

The board of school visitors have authority to appoint a person not of their own number to be superintendent of schools, his salary to be fixed by the town; but up to this time the superintendent has been a member of the board of visitors.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Each school district is a body corporate and has the power to sue and be sued, to purchase, hold, and convey real and personal property for school purposes; to build, hire, and repair schoolhouses, and supply them with fuel, furniture, etc.; to establish schools; to purchase apparatus; to maintain a school library; to employ teachers, except when the town may direct the school visitors to employ the teachers, and must pay the wages of teachers employed by the district committee; to lay taxes and borrow money for all the foregoing purposes; to make regulations for establishing and conducting schools not inconsistent with the regulations of the town.

Each school district must hold an annual meeting each June for the choice of officers and for the transaction of any other business relating to schools. Special meetings may be held whenever duly called.

District meetings must be held in the district, preferably in the district schoolhouse, and due notice must be given of each meeting.

Every meeting may choose its own moderator.

In districts in which there are four hundred or more children enumerated, when one-third of the voters present at any district meeting so request, any question pending before the meeting must be submitted to a ballot of the voters of the district. In such case due notice must

be given, and the balloting must occur within one week, the ballot boxes being open from 9 a. m. to 5 p. m. The result must be ascertained and declared by the chairman of the meeting. Upon the request of 20 voters all elections for district officers must be by ballot, as described. If a district fail to elect any of its officers at its annual meeting, or if a vacancy occur, the school visitors of the town fill the vacancy till the next district meeting.

In case of the refusal or neglect of a district to employ a teacher or keep open a school, the school visitors of the town may open a school in that district at the expense of the town.

DISTRICT COMMITTEES.

Each school district must choose, by ballot, at the annnal meeting a committee of three persons, a clerk, a treasurer, and a collector. Districts having not less than 200 enumerated children may elect the members of their committees for three years, choosing one each year. In such case, vacancies in the district committee are filled by the remaining members till the next annual district meeting.

The committee of every district must give due notice of all meetings of the district. They may call a special meeting at any time, and must call one at the request of ten voters of the district. It is their duty to appoint teachers unless the town otherwise directs; to provide suitable schoolrooms and furnish fuel; to visit the schools; furnish books for pupils unable to buy them; to suspend or expel pupils guilty of incorrigibly bad conduct; to give such information and assistance to the school visitors as they may require; to report annually to the school visitors; to cause an enumeration to be made annually of all the children in the district between 4 and 16 years of age.

The City of Savannah and the County of Chatham, Ga.[1]

The board of education is a self-perpetuating close corporation. In the acts establishing the public-school system, nine persons were designated by name who, with the "commissioners of the Massie school" appointed under the ordinances of the city, constituted the board of public education of the city of Savannah and the county of Chatham, and under that name they were created a body politic and corporate with perpetual succession of members. They received full power to establish and modify from time to time a plan and system of education for all children in the city and county between the ages of 6 and 18 years, and to superintend the same; to appoint, suspend, and remove teachers, and provide schoolhouses; to make by-laws, rules, and regulations for their own government and for the government of the teachers and schools; to designate and elect officers of the board, and to fill vacancies (except among the commissioners of the Massie school) in any

[1] Compiled from acts of 1866 and of 1878 and city ordinances of 1866 and 1895, in school reports of 1866 and 1895.

manner whatever caused, either among officers or members of the board; to acquire, hold, or sell real or personal property, and to have the usual powers and privileges of corporations necessary for carrying out the purposes of their creation. They receive all money allotted to the county of Chatham from the State school fund, all the county educational funds, and such sums as may be appropriated by the city council of Savannah for schools, and expend the same at their discretion; but the money appropriated by the city council may not be used for the county schools.

The Massie school referred to in the acts mentioned was established in 1855, as the result of a legacy of $5,000 to the city council in trust for the maintenance of common schools of the city.

The city ordinances provide that there shall be three commissioners of the Massie school, to be appointed annually by the mayor, subject to the confirmation of the council. The mayor himself must be one of the three unless he is already a member of the board of education. The other two may be selected either from the board of aldermen or from the citizens at large, or from both. They unite with and form a part of the board of education, and are subject to its by-laws, rules, and regulations.

Summary of laws relating to the school boards of certain cities.—Part I.

	City.	Population in 1890.	Name of school board.	Number of members.	How chosen.	Selected from the city at large, wards, or districts.	Term of office.	Vacancies in the board are filled for the unexpired term by—
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	New York, N. Y....	1,515,301	Board of education ...	21	Appointed by the mayor.	At large	3 years; one-third appointed annually.	Mayor.
			35 boards of school inspectors.	5 each.	.....do	Inspection districts, defined by board of education.	5 years; one appointed each year.	Do.
2	Chicago, Ill.....	1,099,850	Board of education...	21	Appointed by the mayor, with the approval of the city council.	At large	3 years; one-third appointed annually.	Mayor, with approval of council.
3	Philadelphia, Pa....	1,046,964	Board of public education.	37	Appointed by the judges of the court of common pleas.	Wards.....	.....do	Judges of court of common pleas.
			37 boards of directors of sections, or wards.	13 each.	12 elected by the people; member of board of education for the ward is ex officio member of the sectional board.	Sections, or wards...	3 years; one-third chosen annually.	Board of directors in which vacancies exist.
4	Brooklyn, N. Y	806,343	Board of education...	45	Appointed by the mayor.	At large	3 years; one-third appointed annually.	Mayor.
5	St. Louis, Mo	451,770	Board of president and directors of St. Louis schools.	21	Elected by the people...	7 at large; 14 from districts defined by courts.	4 years; one-half chosen at each biennial election.	If among members at large, by board till next general election; if among district members, by a special election in the district.
6	Boston, Mass	448,477	School committee.....	24	.....do	At large	3 years; one-third elected each year.	Election by board of aldermen and school committee in joint convention.
7	Baltimore, Md	434,439	Board of commissioners of public schools.	22	Elected by city council.	Wards.....	4 years; one-fourth elected each year.	City council.
8	San Francisco, Cal..	298,997	Board of education of the city and county of San Francisco.	12	Elected by the people...	At large	2 years; all chosen at the same time.	City superintendent, with approval of board of education till next municipal election.
	Cincinnati, Ohio	296,908	Board of education ...	30	.....do	Wards.....	3 years; all elected at the same time.	Board of education.

10	Cleveland, Ohio	261,353	.....do	1 director; 7 members of school council.	.....do	At large	2 years; 3 councilors elected one year and 4 the next.	School council till next municipal election.
11	Buffalo, N. Y.	255,664	No school board; the schools are controlled by city council directly.					
12	New Orleans, La	242,039	Board of directors	20	8 appointed by the governor of the State; 12 elected by the city council.	At large	4 years; one-fourth chosen annually.	Governor or city council; i. e., authority which made appointment vacated.
13	Pittsburg, Pa	238,617	Central board of education.	37	Elected by the several boards of directors of subdistricts, or wards.	Subdistricts, or wards.	3 years; one-third elected annually.	Board of directors of subdistrict in which vacancy occurs.
			37 boards of directors of subschool districts.	6 each.	Elected by the people of the several subdistricts.	..... do	.....do	Board in which vacancy occurs.
14	Washington, D. C.	230,392	Board of trustees of public schools.	11	Appointed by the Commissioners (or general executive officers) of the District of Columbia.	At large	Varies; determined by Commissioners.	Commissioners of the District of Columbia.
15	Detroit, Mich	205,876	Board of education	16	Elected by the people	Wards	4 years; one-half elected at each biennial election.	Mayor, with the confirmation of city council.
16	Milwaukee, Wis	204,468	School board	36	Appointed by the aldermen of the several wards, subject to the confirmation of the city council.	.....do	3 years; all chosen at the same time.	City council.
17	Minneapolis, Minn	164,738	Board of education	7	Elected by the people	At large	6 years; 2 elected at each of two successive biennial elections, and 3 at the next.	Election by the people.
18	St. Paul, Minn	133,156	Board of school inspectors.	7	Appointed by the mayor	.....do	3 years; 2 appointed each year, except every third year when 3 are appointed.	Mayor.
19	Denver, Colo., district No. 1 (the city is divided into three separate districts).	*a* 75,000	Board of education of school district No. 1, Arapahoe County.	6	Elected by the people	.....do	3 years; one-third elected annually.	Board of education until next election.
20	Indianapolis, Ind	105,436	Board of school commissioners.	11	.....do	Districts defined by school commissioners.	.....do	Board of school commissioners until next election.

a District.

Summary of laws relating to the school boards of certain cities.—Part I—Continued.

	City.	Population in 1890.	Name of school board.	Number of members.	How chosen.	Selected from the city at large, wards, or districts.	Term of office.	Vacancies in the board are filled for the unexpired term by—
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
21	Charleston, S. C.....	54,955	Board of school commissioners.	10	6 elected by the people; 4 appointed by the governor of the State, 2 of whom are nominated by the trustees of the Charleston High School and 2 by the trustees of the College of Charleston.	6 elected from districts, each comprising 2 wards; 4 appointed at large.	4 years; all chosen at the same time.	Board of school commissioners.
22	Hartford, Conn	53,230	Board of school visitors.	9	Elected by the people in town meeting.	At large	3 years; one-third elected annually.	School visitors until next election.
			10 district committees.	3 each.	Elected by the people in district meeting.	Districts defined by selectmen.	.....do	District committee until next election.
23	Savannah, Ga.....	43,189	Board of public education of the city of Savannah and the county of Chatham.	12	A self-perpetuating close corporation as to 9; 3 appointed by mayor, with consent of city council, the mayor to be one of the three.	At large	Not specified by law as to close corporation; 3 appointed annually.	Board of education.

Summary of laws relating to the school boards of certain cities.—Part II.

	City.	Principal source of school revenues.	Maximum amount of tax for schools permitted by law.	Title to school property is vested in—	Is the school board a legal corporation?	Manner of selecting city superintendent of schools.	Authority charged by law with examination and certification of teachers.	Authority charged by law with appointment of teachers.
	1	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	New York, N. Y	Appropriations by city board of estimate and apportionment.		City	Yes	Elected by board of education.	Board of superintendents.	Board of education on nomination of board of superintendents.
2	Chicago, Ill	Appropriations by city council from taxes levied by them.		City, in trust for the use of the schools.	Yes	do	Board of education.	Board of education.
3	Philadelphia, Pa	Appropriations by city council; board of education apportions funds to sectional boards.		City	Yes; sectional boards are not.	do	do	Board of education for high schools; sectional boards for ward schools.
4	Brooklyn, N. Y	Tax levied by city council.		Board of education.	Yes	do	do	Board of education.
5	St. Louis, Mo	Tax levied by board of directors.	50 cents on $100.	Board of directors.	Yes	Elected by board of directors.	Board of directors	Board of directors.
6	Boston, Mass	Appropriations by city council.		City	No, except for execution of certain trusts.	Elected by school committee.	School committee	School committee.
7	Baltimore, Md	do		do	No	Elected by school commissioners.	Superintendent, in conjunction with a committee of school commissioners.	School commissioners.
8	San Francisco, Cal	Tax levied by city and county board of supervisors.	$35 per pupil in average attendance.	Board of education, in trust for city and county.	Yes	Elected by the people; is a city officer.	Board of 5 examiners, including the superintendent; appointed by board of education.	Board of education.
9	Cincinnati, Ohio	Tax determined by board of education.	50 cents on $100.	Board of education.	Yes	Elected by board of education.	Board of 6 examiners; appointed by board of education.	Superintendent, with approval of board of education.
10	Cleveland, Ohio	do	70 cents on $100.	do	Yes	Appointed by school director, with approval of school council.	Superintendent	Superintendent.
11	Buffalo, N. Y	Appropriations by city council.		City		Elected by the people; is a city officer.	Board of 5 examiners; appointed by the mayor.	Do.
12	New Orleans, La	do		Board of directors.	Yes	Elected by board of directors.	Board of directors with aid of superintendent.	Board of directors.

Summary of laws relating to the school boards of certain cities.—Part II—Continued.

	City.	Principal source of school revenues.	Maximum amount of tax for schools permitted by law.	Title to school property is vested in—	Is the school board a legal corporation?	Manner of selecting city superintendent of schools.	Authority charged by law with examination and certification of teachers.	Authority charged by law with appointment of teachers.
	1	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
13	Pittsburg, Pa	Taxes determined in amount by central board of education for teachers, etc., and by local boards of directors for buildings, etc.		High schools, etc., in central board; ward schools in local boards of directors.	Yes; local boards as well as central board.	Elected by convention of all school directors in the city.	Superintendent	Central board for high schools, etc.; local boards for ward schools.
14	Washington, D. C	Appropriations by United States Congress, one-half derived from taxation of the District of Columbia, and one-half from Federal Treasury.		District of Columbia.	No	Appointed by District Commissioners.	Committee of trustees with aid of superintendent.	Board of trustees.
15	Detroit, Mich	Taxes determined by city council and city board of estimates.		Board of education.	Yes	Elected by board of education.	Board of education	Board of education.
16	Milwaukee, Wis	Tax specified in amount by school board unless city council determines otherwise by a two-thirds vote.		City	No	Elected by school board.	Superintendent, with a committee of school board.	Superintendent, with a committee of school board, subject to approval of board.
17	Minneapolis, Minn	Tax levied by board of education.	40 cents on $100.	Board of education.	Yes	Elected by board of education.	Board of education	Board of education.
18	St. Paul, Minn	Appropriations by city council.	25 cents on $100.	City, in trust for purposes of education.	No	Elected by school inspectors.	Board of inspectors	Board of inspectors.
19	Denver, Colo., district No. 1.	Tax levied by board of education.	60 cents on $100.	Board of education.	Yes	Elected by board of education.	Superintendent	Board of education.
20	Indianapolis, Ind	Tax levied by school commissioners.	55 cents on $100.	Board of school commissioners.	Yes	Elected by school commissioners.	School commissioners.	School commissioners.
21	Charleston, S. C	Tax specified by State law.	10 cents on $100.	City	No	do	do	Do.
22	Hartford, Conn	Town tax laid in town meeting; district tax laid in district meeting.		High schools in the town; elementary schools in the several districts.	No; town and districts are.	Superintendent is one of the school visitors, assigned to that duty by the board.	Board of school visitors.	District committees.
23	Savannah, Ga	Appropriations by city council.		Board of education.	Yes	Elected by board of education.	Board of education	Board of education.

CHAPTER II.[1]

THE ENGLISH EDUCATION BILL OF 1896.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.—*Purpose of the bill; Its fate in the House; Historical importance; The educational system, progress from 1833–1897, and its bearings upon the bill; Development of local government since 1832 and bearings upon the bill; The bill a departure from the law of 1870; Summary of its provisions; Speeches of Sir John Gorst in support of the measure; Mr. Asquith in opposition; Mr. Chamberlain's opinion; The boroughs v. the bill; Sir W. Vernon Harcourt on the causes of its defeat; Review of the measure by Sir E. Lyulph Stanley.*

The most important event of the year as regards education in England is the endeavor to secure the passage of a new education bill which was introduced into the House of Commons early in April by its author, Sir John Gorst, vice-president of the education department.

The bill was the immediate outcome of promises of further aid to parochial (voluntary) schools made during the campaign of 1895 by the leaders of the Conservative party. It had, however, other and deeper purposes, as avowed by its author and supporters. It was an ambitious endeavor to reorganize the local administration of education on the lines of recent reforms in local government in general, and with a view to the more efficient control and coordination of elementary, secondary, and technical instruction. However desirable these ends may be in themselves, the measures proposed for their accomplishment were apparently not drawn with due regard to existing conditions, and they were the more obnoxious because weighted with proposals favoring sectarian ascendancy in the schools. Although supported at the outset by an immense majority, the bill met with united and uncompromising opposition from the Liberals and Nonconformists, who regarded it as a covert attack upon borough rights and religious freedom. At the same time the amount and the character of the relief provided for parochial schools failed to satisfy the demands of the Conservatives. In spite, however, of conflicting councils and vehement opposition, the bill was carried to its second reading, May 5, by the very large majority of 267, hence its sudden collapse in the second week of the committee debate was an event entirely unexpected.

In withdrawing the bill Mr. Balfour[2] intimated that its consideration would be resumed in January (1897), but it is generally understood that

[1] Prepared by Miss Anna Tolman Smith.

[2] Leader of the House of Commons.

the bill is dead and that the Government has lost the opportunity of expanding its educational policy as required by present exigencies.

Although it failed as a legislative measure, the bill has a lasting historic importance. In the light of its provisions and of the discussions that it provoked, the actual state of popular education in England and the changes that have taken place in public sentiment and in the constitution of local authorities since the system of elementary education was established are distinctly shown. The main purposes of the bill, namely, the reform of educational administration and the further relief of voluntary schools, were not suddenly conceived. They were the slowly developing and natural outcome of causes that had long been gathering force. To understand the historical bearings of the defeated measure we must look for a moment, first, to the educational system as constituted in 1870, and second, to the progress of local government during the past fifty years.

Since it became a matter of Government concern, the development of popular education has been closely related to political reforms. The passage of the reform bill of 1832 was followed the next year by the first grant ($100,000) from the public treasury in aid of elementary instruction, the second reform bill, that of 1867, which greatly extended the franchise among the working classes, was a direct cause of the education law of 1870, while, as we shall presently see, the more recent laws affecting local government are intimately related to the education bill under consideration.

The existing system of elementary education dates from the law of 1870, but prior to the passage of that law the Government had developed a very definite policy in respect to this great interest.

It began with the money grant of 1833. The organized efforts for public education at the time were in charge of two societies, the "British and Foreign School Society" and the "National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Church of England." These two societies had succeeded in arousing deep and widespread conviction of the necessity of public education; they had established many schools and received annually large sums in voluntary subscriptions for their support. Through these two societies the annual Government appropriations for education were at first distributed. In 1839 a committee of the Privy Council was established to administer the grants, which were raised at the time to $150,000 per annum. Aid from the grants was confined to schools in relation with one or the other of the societies named until 1847. In that year the Roman Catholics and Wesleyan Methodists were admitted to share in the appropriation upon specified conditions. The committee made the daily reading of Scripture obligatory in assisted schools and required further that they should be open to the inspection of Government officers.

The growing interest of the Government was manifested, not by

increased grants alone, but equally by the increased scope of its action. In 1843 Parliamentary aid to education was extended by grants for teachers' residences, the erection of training colleges which the societies and denominations were ready to maintain, and at the same time by special grants to aid poor and populous districts in their efforts to maintain schools. In 1846 the policy of Government aid in respect to the training of teachers was developed on the lines maintained to the present time, additional grants were offered to teachers who passed examination before Government inspectors, grants were allowed for pupil teachers, and "Queen's scholarships" were founded for those who entered training colleges.

As the work extended, the need of more formal organization became urgent, and in 1860 the central committee began a movement in this direction by collecting and systematizing the minutes that had been issued from time to time for the guidance of those who sought to share in the Parliamentary grant. This body of regulations was called the "code." The following year these regulations were extensively altered and developed into what is known as the "revised code," associated with the name of the Right Hon. Robert Lowe, who introduced the famous policy of "payment upon results." By this provision the greater part of the grant to any school was made upon the average attendance and the results of the examination of individual pupils in the three elementary branches. The effect that this policy would have in reducing instruction to a narrrow mechanical grind was certainly not foreseen by its author. His purpose was undoubtedly to allay denominational jealousies by provisions that would limit the Government aid to purely secular branches and further to insure a positive appreciable result from the outlay of public money.

Codes are still issued annually by the education department, and as they must be sanctioned by Parliament they have the binding force of law.

From this brief survey it appears that the Government began its active work in behalf of popular education by fostering denominational schools, although its efforts were wholly directed to securing the essential conditions of effective secular instruction. The system had free course for nearly forty years, but failed to meet the ever-growing demands for universal education. Illiteracy increased, while the extension of popular suffrage and the conditions of modern industry increased its evil effects. The Christian conscience of England and the civic apprehension were aroused; the opportune moment was seized by Mr. Forster and his colleagues for establishing a national system of education. In the debate on the first reading of the education bill of 1870 Mr. Forster stated that about 1,500,000 children were educated more or less imperfectly by the existing agencies; that is, they were "on the registers." His estimates showed particularly that "only two-fifths of the children of the working classes between the ages of

6 and 10 years were on the registers of the Government schools, and only one-third of those between the ages of 10 and 12. Consequently, of those between 6 and 10 about 700,000, more or less, were helped, and 1,000,000 were left without help, while of those between 10 and 12 250,000 were helped and at least 500,000 were left unhelped"—that is, about 1,500,000 of the children of the working classes were neglected. Not only had private initiative failed to secure the instruction of all children, but it appeared further "that where State help had been most wanted State help had been least given, and that where it was desirable that State power should be most felt it was not felt at all."

Even in view of these conditions it was not proposed to antagonize the work in progress. "Our object," said Mr. Forster, "is to complete the present voluntary system, to fill up gaps."

The main principles insisted upon in the new measure were "legal enactment that there shall be efficient schools everywhere throughout the Kingdom" and "compulsory provision of such schools if, and where, needed, but not unless proved to be needed."

Following long-established precedents in England, it was proposed that the Government should accomplish this purpose through local agencies, and following the tendency of the time, it was determined that the new agencies should be elected by the legal voters; hence the new machinery which the law of 1870 called into being consisted of school boards elected in their respective districts.

The school boards, once constituted, became the media for the distribution of the public grant to board schools on the same terms as the managers of voluntary schools. The boards had, however, one privilege in which their rivals did not share—they were empowered to claim or to levy rates (local property taxes) for the maintenance of elementary schools; in other words, a system of what are called in America public schools was set up side by side with the voluntary or parochial system. The board schools were also subject to one restriction that did not apply to "voluntary" schools. In addition to the restraining influence of a "conscience clause," which was applicable to all schools, they were forbidden to teach any "religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination."

Furthermore, the school boards were empowered to borrow money on the security of the school fund for the purpose of building, enlarging, or furnishing schoolhouses. In each case the consent of the education department was necessary. Payment might be spread over a period of fifty years, and the public works loan commission was authorized, on recommendation of the education department, to loan the money required.

Beyond these three provisions, the two classes of schools were on the same footing and were classed together as State-aided elementary schools.

The development of this dual system has been in some respects phenomenal. In 1870, when the board schools had just begun operations,

the Government inspection showed that provision had been made in State-aided schools for 1,878,584 pupils, or 8.75 per cent of the population. In 1894 there was accommodation for 5,832,944 pupils, or 19.44 per cent of the population. Of the additional accommodation provided since 1870, voluntary schools furnished 1,755,249 places, an increase of 93 per cent, and board schools 2,199,111 places. The enrollment in the schools the same year (1894) was 5,198,741 pupils and the average attendance 4,225,834, a gain in the latter item of 268 per cent since 1870.

The increase in the number of teachers is still greater, reaching 276 per cent. The increase in these particulars has been accompanied by an expansion of the ideal of popular education.

Progress in this respect has been forced by the ever-increasing demand for skilled labor, and has naturally been most marked in the great manufacturing centers. Mr. Mundella, for many years the active head of the education department, well understood the intimate relation between education and industrial advance, and succeeded in making a break through the narrow lines of the "revised code." The merit grant determined by the general conditions of the schools was introduced by him in 1882, and at the same time more liberal grants were allowed for the higher subjects. The result was a rapid exten sion of the curricula of board schools (especially on the science side) in all the chief cities, and a corresponding improvement in the teaching force and in teaching appliances. The pride and self-interest of citizens were stimulated, and the boards were supported in the large expenditures, whose burden fell necessarily upon the local taxes. The voluntary schools found themselves distanced in the race, cries of "Extravagance!" were raised against the boards by their rivals, and demands made for additional aid to parochial schools.

The final abandonment in 1890 of the principle of "payment upon results," and the law of 1891 providing a grant in lieu of fees for all schools remitting the same, increased the tension. The former policy gave distinct advantages to schools having the largest resources, and the latter stimulated efforts in behalf of a universal system of board schools.

The law of 1870, as it finally passed, bore every mark of compromise, but it was this in no mean sense; extreme views had simply given way to considerations of the public welfare. It was foreseen that the two classes of school managers and of schools recognized under the law, i. e., the voluntary and the public, were likely to clash at some future time, but the outcome was wisely left to circumstances; no endeavor was made to hamper the development of either class. As we have already noted, the friction between the two classes of schools and the inequality of their resources were principal causes of the late futile effort to recast the system. Another not less important and vastly more intricate cause of the endeavor is found in the constitution of school districts.

The disturbances that were likely to arise from this source were also foreseen by the advocates of the original law (1870). That law made every borough subject to the municipal corporations act of 1835, a school district, and in the country every civil parish[1] (i. e., district for which a separate poor rate is or may be levied), but its author was careful to state both the reasons for and the objections to this choice.[2] The adjustment of school districts is part of the great problem of local administration whose solution has been one of the chief ends of legislative action for more than half a century. To understand the principal

[1]The 40 English and 12 Welsh counties are divided into 14,946 poor-law or civil parishes, i. e., districts in each of which a separate poor rate may be levied; but the same ground is covered by about 13,000 ecclesiastical parishes, and again by 14,777 highway parishes; nor is this enumeration exhaustive. These divisions have been made at different times and for various purposes, without any regard to previous boundaries. Moreover, the units of a division may be combined; thus, for purposes of poor-law administration the civil parishes are formed into 649 unions, 25 of which are single parish unions. It is desirable to have this fact in mind on account of the relation of parishes and unions to school boards.

[2]With respect to the area Mr. Forster said: "For this we take present known divisions and declare them to be school districts, so that upon the passing of this bill there will be no portion of England or Wales not included in one school district or another. * * * We have taken the boundaries of boroughs as regards towns and parishes as regards the country, and when I say parish I mean the civil parish, and not the ecclesiastical district. * * * As regards towns, I think there can be but little doubt. Almost every one will jump to the conclusion that in boroughs we should take the municipal boundaries, but there may be a difference of opinion as to the rural districts. The education bills hitherto brought forward have taken the union; we take the parish, with the power, of course, to unite parishes together. There are several reasons why we prefer the parish to the union, though it is a very difficult matter to decide upon, and there is much to be said on both sides. In the first place, there is a vast difference between the condition of town and country with respect to education. Any bill to be successful must be elastic to meet that difference. Take the parish in the country, and we at once admit the possibility of that difference and make the bill elastic, being in this way able to treat town and country in a different manner. Again, in a country district, the principle of our bill is better fitted to a small unit of area, because we do not intend to meddle with a district that can safely be left to itself. Another reason is that many unions throughout the Kingdom are composed of a town surrounded by outlying country parishes. Well, if we had to take the town out of the union it would be like taking the kernel out of the nut, and making our organization almost impossible. It would be necessary either to have a school board to meet these conflicting or at least entirely different conditions, or you would be obliged to contend with the disadvantage of taking out the central and more populous district and of trying to join together by themselves the outlying parishes. * * * I can not leave this point without just alluding to the reason why we have this difficulty at all, which is almost a disgrace to this country. We are behind almost every other civilized country, whether in America or on the continent of Europe, in respect to rural municipal organization, and this drawback meets us not only in connection with education, but when many other social questions affecting the people come before us. The same difficulty applies to London. With respect to London, as I have already said, we have taken the best divisions we could find—the school districts as already established, which, I believe, are working well, and cover nearly the whole metropolis. Where these districts do not exist we take the boundaries of the vestries."

proposition of the defeated school law it is necessary to refer to a series of acts dealing with this problem.

The reform law of 1832, as summed up by Green, "took away the right of representation from 56 decayed or rotten boroughs, gave the 143 members they returned to counties or large towns which as yet sent no members to Parliament, established a £10 householder qualification for voters in boroughs, and extended the county franchise to leaseholders and copyholders." The new privileges accelerated the growth of the civic spirit in large towns and led directly to the municipal corporations act of 1835, which, to quote again from Mr. Green, "restored to the inhabitants of towns those rights of self-government of which they had been deprived since the fourteenth century." The towns, or, as they are technically termed, municipal boroughs,[1] became, as we have seen, school districts under the law of 1870. Subsequent laws, especially that of 1882, have amended and extended the powers conferred upon the boroughs by the act of 1835. These laws, however, only reached a single factor of the problem of local government. There remained to be dealt with a bewildering maze of areas, authorities, privileges, and responsibilities. The situation is indicated—to describe it would be impossible—by the following passages in an article by Mr. Thring: "Local government," he says, "is perhaps the most difficult problem which presents itself for solution to the English statesman. Take one county alone for an example. The county of Somerset contains 497 parishes, 11 boroughs, 22 unions, 10 local government districts, 17 rural sanitary districts, 66 school-board districts, besides numerous highway districts. Each of these divisions is governed by a separate body with distinct powers, and elected, with but few exceptions, by separate constituencies, separate modes of voting, and at different times of year. Multiply these authorities by 52, the number of counties in England—and bear in mind that a scheme of local government involves a knowledge of the particulars of each of the above-mentioned authorities, and in many cases an alteration in their status—and some idea may be formed of the difficulties to be overcome."

After enumerating in a summary form 18 local authorities, the same article continues: "Such is a bird's-eye view of the whole field of local government. If depicted in a map, the areas form an entangled mass of interlacing boundaries, and when it is remembered that each area is a separate little kingdom with its governing body, its administrative officers, its taxation, overlapping and conflicting with each other, requiring separate elections with different franchises and expensive registration, the reform of such a system would seem to require from its complexity the genius of a local government Moltke."[2]

[1]Boroughs are of two kinds: (1) A corporate town possessing a regularly organized municipal government and special privileges conferred by royal charter, usually called a municipal borough. A town having the right to send one or more representatives to Parliament, usually called a parliamentary borough. (Century Dictionary.)

[2]Nineteenth Century, March, 1888.

In 1888 a local-government act was passed dealing with the whole subject. It has been reenforced by subsequent laws, especially that of 1894, but it concerns us here to note only that it made the county the unit of local administration, and included in that term a certain number of boroughs, denominated county boroughs. Altogether 126 administrative areas (65 counties, 61 county boroughs) were constituted. The boroughs included, practically, all the cities of England with populations of 100,000 and upward, and a few whose populations were less than 100,000, the limit being 50,000. London was treated separately as a county.

Intense opposition to the law of 1888 was manifested at the time by boroughs whose population fell below 50,000, and it was the renewal of opposition from this quarter that wrecked the late education bill.

Following the precedent established in municipal boroughs, the governing authority in the counties and county boroughs was made an elected council.

These councils were brought into the category of educational authorities by legislation of 1889, authorizing them to levy a tax, not exceeding a penny in the pound, for the support of technical schools, and that of 1890, placing at the disposal of the councils the surplus from the duties on liquors, with the privilege of applying the same to technical education. This interest lies outside the province of elementary education, but it brought the councils into direct contact with the boards that had developed higher grade or secondary departments, and increased the complications between educational affairs and local administration.

Since 1870 several laws have been passed dealing with elementary education, but none of these have departed from the principles of action established by the Forster law. Their purpose has been to extend and strengthen the operations of that law; thus the law of 1876 provided a machinery, viz, "school-attendance committees," to enforce school attendance where there were no school boards.[1] The law of 1891, providing for the remission of fees, was intended to increase school attendance and to prolong the average period, and such in fact has been its effect. The characteristic principles of the policy established in 1870, namely, the free expansion of local effort, the uniform and impartial exercise of central supervision, the prohibition of sectarian instruction in board or public schools, were attacked for the first time by the recent bill. Its proposals, tendencies, and fate will be best understood from speeches and articles which it evoked. These also afford an intimate view of the present status of popular education in England and of those complicated relations to local administration which have been indicated in this introductory survey.

[1] At the present time school boards have jurisdiction over nearly 20,000,000 of the population of England and Wales, leaving 10,000,000 to the oversight of school-attendance committees.

The provisions of the bill as summarized below will suffice for an understanding of the references in the speeches and articles cited. With respect to the provision as to religious instruction (clause 27 of the bill proper), it may be premised that the impossibility of carrying it in the original form was made evident from the first. The following is a summary of the proposed bill:

(1) The setting up in each county and county borough of "a paramount educational authority," to be drawn mainly from the town and county councils.

(2) The devolving upon this authority of the general control, right of inspection, and grant-dispensing powers, already possessed by the educational department.

(3) The creation of a new "special aid grant" of 4 shillings per child in attendance at all voluntary schools and in attendance at school-board schools now receiving the special assistance provided under section 97 of the act of 1870 (number of such board schools about 125).

(4) The abolition of the seventeen-and-six penny limit. (See p. 104.)

(5) The exemption of elementary schools from rating (property tax).

(6) The provision of a public audit of accounts in all schools receiving the "special-aid grant."

(7) The granting of powers to the educational authorities to lend money to voluntary schools upon the security of the school buildings.

(8) The absolute application of the surplus from the duties on spirits to educational purposes.

(9) The power of veto upon any additional school-board expenditure caused by increases in the cost of "maintenance" to rest with town, county, or district councils, as the case may be, and the fixing of a limit to the amount per capita which schools should be allowed to spend.

(10) The removal of the work of carrying out the compulsory clauses of the act of 1870 in nonschool board districts from the hands of the present school-attendance committees into the hands of the new education authorities. (See footnote p. 86.)

(11) The guardianship of industrial-school and poor-law-school children to be in the hands of the new education authorities.

(12) Opportunity for the federation of schools by districts or denominations for the conduct of the schools and the administration of the grant.

(13) Permissive powers to school boards to transfer their organized science or higher grade schools to the care of the new educational authority.

(14) The age for juvenile labor to be raised to 12 (present age 11 years); and

(15) The extension of the Cowper-Temple clause of the act of 1870, so as to give the parent not only the right to withdraw his child from religious instruction, but to have facilities offered him for the teaching of his child during the hour of religious instruction in the specific denominational tenets of his own faith. [Cited from Schoolmaster, April 4, 1896.]

The speech of Sir John Gorst in presenting the bill is reproduced here in full as being the strongest statement on the part of the Government. The text used is from the report in the Schoolmaster[1] of April 4, and the head lines introduced by the paper are preserved as affording a ready index to the context.

SPEECH OF SIR JOHN GORST[2] ON PRESENTING THE BILL.

Before, sir, I describe the bill which the Government are asking the House to be allowed to introduce, perhaps the House will allow me to mention some of the difficulties in education which the wisdom of Parliament will have to meet.

[1] The Schoolmaster is the organ of the National Union of Elementary Teachers, edited by a prominent leader of the progressive school party, Mr. Macnamara.

[2] Vice-president of the education department.

THE DISABILITY UNDER WHICH THE VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS WORK.

There is first the difficulty of voluntary schools. Last year the voluntary schools educated 2,445,812 children, as against 1,879,218 educated in the board schools; or, to put the matter in a more popular form, of every seven children educated by the State, three were educated in board schools and four in the voluntary schools. Whether or not the existence of the voluntary schools is an advantage to the State is a matter of controversy. I am one of those who believe that it is of advantage, because they tend to infuse independence, originality, and variety into our national education, and, to some extent, counteract that tendency to uniformity and rigidness which is the usual characteristic of a State system of education. But whatever view may be taken, it is not of great importance for practical statesmen, because the voluntary schools are there, and there seems very little prospect of their disappearing within any definite time. The Roman Catholics boast—and with truth—that they have never surrendered a single one of their schools to a board, and that those schools which have been discontinued since 1870 have been discontinued in consequence of the fluctuations of population. In 1870 the Church of England had 844,334 children in its schools; in 1895 it had 1,850,545. The subscriptions, which were in 1870 £329,846, were in 1895 £640,496. The little comfort which some people derive from the reflection that, though these subscriptions have enormously increased, they have not increased proportionately to the number of children educated has been dispelled by the results of the last year, for, whereas in 1894 the subscriptions to Church of England schools amounted to 6s. 8¼d. per child, in 1895 they amounted to 6s. 10½d. Besides this, the Church of England boast of having spent in buildings between 1870 and 1895 a sum of £7,375,402. The Roman Catholics and a very large part of the members of the Church of England make it a point of conscience that their children should be educated by teachers of their own denomination; and it would be impossible to force those children out of their own schools into the board schools without being guilty of a piece of religious intolerance which the people of England in these enlightened days would never consent to.

THE COST OF REPLACING THEM.

But there is another lower, but very solid, obstacle to the disappearance of the voluntary schools, and that is the cost of replacing them. I have asked our professional advisers to make some estimate of what this cost would be. I am advised that there are 3,620,805 places in voluntary schools which would have to be reprovided. As far as the best experience goes, the cost to the country for every place provided in board schools is £13 8s. 8d. That includes London, where the cost is very high. In London the cost is £20 9s. 4d. per child; and, if you exclude London, the cost in the provinces of England and Wales is £11 5s. 10d. per child. My advisers say that it would be much cheaper to provide for those 3,000,000 children than it has been for those who have been provided for already. There would be, presumably, a number of voluntary schools which could be had extremely cheap, and I am advised that the sum of £7 per head would be a fair and not excessive estimate of the cost. At that rate it would cost the people of this country £25,345,635 to provide schools for the children now being educated in the voluntary schools. Now, how much does it cost to maintain these schools? In the first place the subscriptions would have to be replaced by the rates, and that would cost £836,000. It is notorious that the expenditure in the voluntary schools is very much below that in the board schools, and that difference would have to be made up out of the rates. That would amount to £1,373,351. Further, you would have to provide for the correspondence of the different schools, which is now done gratis by the managers; and it is not excessive to say that this administration would cost £5 a school all round, which would add another £72,420 to the cost. That makes altogether for the annual maintenance of these children a sum of £2,282,199, and that allows nothing for repairs and

improvements. It seems to me that this capital expenditure of £25,000,000 and this annual expenditure of £2,225,000 is a very solid obstacle to the abolition of the voluntary schools. I think, therefore, as far as practical statesmanship is concerned, that the question which this House has to consider is not whether it will abolish the voluntary schools, but whether they are efficient for the education of the people; and, if not efficient, how they can be best made so. There is no doubt that some of the voluntary schools are as good as any schools in the country. I have made inquiries from the inspectors, and the advice which they give me is this—that most of the voluntary schools in the poorest part of the great cities labor under financial dfficulties, and especially is that so with respect to the Roman Catholic schools. Those schools are supported some by religious orders, frequently by begging appeals, by sales of work, by concerts, and by subscriptions of the very poorest people. And the provision per head of the scholars in these schools which the managers are able to make is far below that which is provided in the board schools in the same great cities. They are further oppressed by the great rise of salaries which has taken place of recent years. I have before me the case of a large school at Westminster, with the same average attendance, where the cost of salaries has risen in six years from £605 to £974. I have the case of another school at Salford in which, in the same six years and with the same average attendance, the salaries have risen from £981 to £1,282.

THE "INTOLERABLE STRAIN" AND WHO BEARS IT.

If you take a survey of the whole country you will find that the sum devoted to the maintenance of children in voluntary schools amounts to £1 18s. 11¼d. per child, as against £2 10s. 1¼d. per child in the board schools. That makes a difference of 11s. 2½d. per child. And this difference is almost entirely represented by a lower payment to the teaching staff, for the difference in the cost of the teaching staff in the voluntary schools and the board schools is 9s. 4¼d. per child. This difference, which is so great over the whole extent of the Kingdom, is greater still in the great cities. In London the difference is no less than 19s. 9½d., in Liverpool 13s. 7d., in Manchester 11s. 7d., and in Leeds 12s. 1¾d. The result of this difference in the teaching staff in the schools is this: In the first place all teachers in voluntary schools are lower paid than the corresponding teachers in the board schools. Take them man for man and with the same number of children, and you will find all round that the head teachers in the voluntary schools are far lower paid than the head teachers in the board schools. Then for assistant teachers they have cheaper and less-qualified teachers. As everyone knows, a concession was made several years ago which allowed schools to have a young woman of upward of 18, and approved by the inspector, without any specific qualification at all, as an assistant in schools, and that kind of assistant has increased with most marvelous and extraordinary rapidity. There is also this very year a concession made in the Code allowing the head teacher in small country schools to be a person possessed of less qualifications. It is a very bad arrangement, in my opinion. My poverty, and not my will, consented to it. And then the voluntary schools have to use to a very great extent that most extravagant form of economy, child labor. Besides having less-qualified teachers, voluntary schools are, as compared with board schools, understaffed, that is to say, they have fewer teachers to the same number of children. They only just comply with the minimum recommendations of the committee of council. I have said enough to show the House that the question really is, How is the teaching staff in voluntary schools to be improved, and what are the means which we should resort to for that purpose?

BUT BOARD SCHOOLS BEAR A STRAIN ALSO.

But it is not the voluntary schools only that are oppressed by the great weight of their duties. There are necessitous board schools as well. This was foreseen at the time when the act of 1870 was passed. There is a section of that act—section 97—

which provides that if a school board can not, by levying a 3-penny rate, provide a sum of 7s. 6d. per child for the children that it has to educate, then the State will make a contribution from the exchequer to make up the difference. It was supposed at that time that that was a sufficient and adequate provision. Experience has proved that it is wholly inadequate. There is near London the school district of Walthamstow, where the school board has been established for the last fifteen years, and where the rates during that period have risen from 4d. to 1s. 6d. in the pound. It has a population of tradesmen and artisans which has doubled in ten years and which is now 61,000. There are 31 schools, and £20,000 a year is being spent on their maintenance. There are new schools now being built, and further schools are urgently required. There are no factories or valuable rating property on which the school board can operate, and a 1-penny rate only raises £800. Under section 97 the grant which this district obtains is only £956. That is not a solitary instance. There is West Ham, where in 1895-96 the school rate is 2s. 4d. in the pound. There is the case of Ormesby, near Middlesbrough, where for the last three years the rate has averaged 1s. 5½d.; and there is the case of the Forest of Dean, where the rate is 2s. 5d. in the pound. In rural districts also there are many school boards established in small parishes where the rate which has to be levied for the purpose of maintaining the school is of enormous amount.

THE WHOLE PROBLEM OF RURAL EDUCATION.

That brings me to say a few words to the House on the whole subject of rural education. On education in the rural districts there are two diametrically opposite opinions. There are some people who say—though they say it more in private than in public—that education is thrown away on boys who are destined to spend their youth in scaring crows, their manhood in field labor, and their old age in the workhouse. There are other people who say that knowledge and intelligence are among the commodities most needed in the country districts, and that if all classes engaged in the cultivating of the soil, from the top to the bottom, were better informed we should grow more of the food of the people at home and import less. But, whichever opinion may be correct, there is nothing to be said in favor of halting between them as we do. We spend subscriptions, rates, and time in the education of the rural population, but we do not carry the operation far enough to raise up an instructed peasantry like that which in Normandy or in Demark is capable of receiving technical education and able to undersell us with its produce. There is no official information as to the results, but such glimpses of rural education as we get are extremely discouraging. An honorable member a week or two ago called my attention to the amount of illiteracy in the voting for Parliament, and he seemed to be surprised that there were large numbers of the rural voters who could not read or write. There is in Ipswich a labor bureau, which has been carried on for some years under the management of Mr. Wyckham Tozer. Some years ago, finding that a large number of applications came from youths in the country districts around Ipswich, Mr. Tozer formed the idea of making a little educational investigation. He had a form which he required applicants to fill up in their own handwriting, giving their age, place of birth, school attended, and standard reached. On the back was set a little arithmetical examination—an addition of simple money, a multiplication of a sum of money by 8, and a problem such as, "If 10 pounds of flour cost so much, what would be the cost of 2 hundredweight." The result of this investigation was that, of the boys between 16 and 18 years of age who applied for employment, one-fourth could write fairly, one-quarter could write moderately, and quite one-half could only write in the most disgraceful manner, both as to penmanship and spelling. As to the arithmetic, 10 per cent answered the questions, 15 per cent were able to do one of the sums set, and 75 per cent could not answer a single one of the questions. And yet many of these boys had a few years before been in village schools, and some of them had attained as high as the sixth standard.

THE PETTIFOGGING RURAL SCHOOL BOARD.

As things are, the only salvation of rural education, such as it is, is the parson's village school. He has many advantages as the manager of a school. He is an educated man, and knows something of the necessities of education. I do not say that all school boards in the country are ill-managed. There are some which are not generally, because the clergyman of the parish, or the minister of some other denomination, or some gentleman interested in education, takes up the school board and manages it. But, as a general rule, while the board schools in the great cities have proved themselves extremely efficient in education, the board schools in the country have proved themselves totally inefficient. If you were to replace the voluntary schools in the country by board schools you would degrade national education. I think this is proved very often by the efforts which the people themselves make in the country districts to avert what they regard as the calamity of school boards. There are numberless places, both country parishes and small towns, in which for years past a voluntary rate has been levied and a committee of the inhabitants have been appointed who have applied this voluntary rate to subsidize the church and dissenting schools, and have in this way kept off what they considered to be the calamity of a school board. The records of the education office are full of examples of the absurdities and incapacities of country school boards. The House will remember that not many weeks ago I was questioned by the honorable member for Cockermouth, who called attention to the fact that a school board was educating its infants in a room in the "New Buck Inn." In the educational report for 1894–95 there is a quotation from Mr. Wilson, an inspector in the eastern division of England, who says that the school attendance is far from satisfactory, and that some of the smaller boards do not even pretend to enforce the law. Indeed, they can not, as it is part of their election pledges not to prosecute for irregular attendance. The following passage, however, in the general report for 1894, drawn up by Mr. Brodie, till recently Her Majesty's chief inspector for the southwestern division of England, and published in the report of the education department for 1895, contains the most outspoken criticism of the proceedings of some small country boards:

"The climax is reached in the country board school. True, indeed, it is that a few of these are well managed, but in by far the most there is no management at all worthy of the name; there is no pride in progress—nay, the very reverse. Additional subjects mean additional staff, additional apparatus; the rates must be kept down, the school starved, the teacher underpaid, and sometimes, if the inspector does not sternly forbid it, some young, raw, untrained, and even stupid relative of one of the members of the school board is to be foisted onto the teaching staff, to produce such rotten fruit as may be expected when a sickly graft is added to an already unhealthy tree. I subjoin two facts which have come to my knowledge. In one country board school, which, by the great vigor and ability of the master, aided by a clever wife, had obtained great success, the master was rewarded by having his salary cut down by £20. Why? I answer (not without indignation), because he had earned that amount by his able conduct of the night school. In another country board school an active and zealous young mistress was dismissed because she wished to teach geography and was otherwise ardent for progress. She was replaced by a middle-aged and worn-out woman, who at no time could have had much capacity for teaching, and who could neither keep order nor get the children on. Thus do the 'rude forefathers of the hamlet' nip the budding intellect of ingenuous youth. What a penny wise, pound foolish system!"

THE CONDITION OF THE RURAL TEACHER.

Then I should like the House to note the condition of the rural teachers. What arrangement have we in country places for the supply of rural teachers? Our pupil eachers are a sort of child drudge. He or she walks to school, often at some distance;

lessons are taken either before school, in the dinner hour when the children are playing, or after school when the others have gone home; they are teaching all day long in the school, and they have to walk home when the work is over. This is not the way to bring up teachers. If any one would contrast the treatment of our country teachers with the treatment of teachers in France or Germany, I think they will not be surprised that the general level of country education in France and Germany is greatly superior to our own. There are no centers for teaching pupil teachers as in great towns, and the consequence is that when the Queen's scholarship examination comes on the places are filled by town-bred pupil teachers, and only one or two country-bred teachers are squeezed in at the bottom of the list. Heads of training colleges will tell you that such country teachers as do squeeze in steadily rise in their ability and training, showing that their deficiencies are not in natural capacity, but only in the way in which they have been trained. I hope that I have said enough to convince the House that there is some valuable work before them in reference to elementary education.

The Problem of Secondary Education.

THE VARIETY OF CENTRAL AUTHORITIES.

Now I will say a few words upon secondary education. It is not a question whether we should now proceed to interfere with secondary education. We are interfering with secondary education—have been interfering with it for years; but the question is whether we interfere in a foolish or in a wise manner. At the present time secondary education is being supervised by ten separate authorities, four central and six local. The central authorities are, first, the charity commissioners, who frame schemes for the use of educational endowments, and who generally supervise the administration of those educational endowments in particular places, not doing this entirely by themselves, but consulting, to some extent, the education department; secondly, there is a science and art department, which makes grants of public money to schools and classes, thereby exercising a most powerful influence on the secondary education of the country. They lay down the conditions on which they give their grants: First, schools must be either under the local authority or school board, under the governing body of endowed schools, or a local committee which is appointed, and under whose approval encouragement is given to make organized science schools, that is to say, to have a curriculum which is to be pursued for three years in accordance with plans prescribed by the science and art department. They pay grants according to results, and in that way they have exercised a notable influence on secondary education. Among other things, they have greatly depressed the literary side of education, and, though that is now modified, the payment is half by results and half by attendance. The result indicated, however, has been produced, and it will take many years to undo it. Then there is the education department, which influences the secondary education, first of all, through its higher grade schools, which supply many great cities with excellent secondary education, and often the only secondary education attainable. Then there are evening schools, which, again, supply secondary education; and, finally, there are the training colleges, which, though confined to a particular class, namely, those who are country teachers, are secondary schools in every sense of the word; and the last central authority is the board of agriculture. The board of agriculture may inspect and report on any school in which technical instruction on any subject connected with agriculture is given. The subjects include chemistry, physics, biology, geology, mensuration, surveying, leveling, and bookkeeping, and schools may be aided out of a parliamentary grant.

THE GREATER VARIETY OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES.

Now I come to the local authorities. The first and most important local authority is the county council. The county council, under the technical instruction acts of

1889-1891, may impose a penny rate for the purpose of giving aid to technical instruction, and they have also the power to apply to technical instruction the residue of the local taxation money under the act of 1890, after reserves have been made for police and valuation. I have been inquiring how many counties in England and Wales apply this local taxation grant money of 1890 to the purpose of education. I find that in Wales the whole of the Welsh counties, including Monmouth and the three county boroughs in Wales, all apply the whole of their money to education. In England, out of 49 counties, 41 apply the whole of their money to education and 8 apply a portion of it. Out of 61 county boroughs in England 55 devote the whole and 5 a part, and 1 only applies the whole of the money in relief of these rates. Besides that, there are 11 county boroughs, 51 other boroughs, and 86 urban districts which impose rates under the powers of the technical-instruction act for the purposes of education; and one county (Wilts) has made a rate on a small area round Calne for the erection of an institute in the town. For the building purposes of education the counties have spent £339,135, and the county boroughs have sunk £662,836. Altogether, of all the moneys which were received under the local-taxation (1890) act, the whole of it is applied to education with the exception of £151,643, of which £115,758 is in London, so that only £35,885 is reserved in the towns and counties of England and Wales for that purpose. Then come the local governing bodies, such as the governing bodies of endowed schools, the managing committees of proprietary schools and institutes, the local committees of the science and art department, school boards giving secondary education, and managers of voluntary schools, who also in many places give secondary education. In the appendix to the report of the Secondary Education Commission the House will find a very interesting table which shows what each county authority and county borough receives in the shape of endowment for science and art grants, local taxation grants, and rates applied for the purpose of education. It appears from it that there was actually spent in 1894 in England and Wales for secondary education by these various authorities £1,424,404, and if those authorities were to exercise all the powers which they possess under the various acts then there would be at the disposal of secondary education £2,381,184. Many public secondary schools draw their income from a number of different sources. It is drawn from their fees, endowments, science and art grants, county council grants, the education department, the board of agriculture, and the school board. They are inspected and examined by a variety of those different authorities. There is a piece of evidence from one of the witnesses before the Royal Commission on Secondary Education which I should like to read. It is from Mr. Easterbrook, headmaster of Owen's school, Islington, a member of the Headmasters' Association. He says:

"The multiplicity of examinations is such a pressing evil that we really feel that there should be some relief offered us. I will give you a list of the examinations which one particular school has to keep its eye on during the year—the drawing examination of the science and art department in April, the science examination in May, the matriculation of the London University in January and June, the London county council intermediate scholarships in June. That is the case of London. Then there is the intermediate science and art examination in July, the London Chamber of Commerce examination in July. Then comes the annual examination required by the charity commissioners' scheme, the Cambridge local examination in December, and during the year, at different times, civil service examinations, professional examinations, and open scholarships at the universities. I am not overstating it in any case. I am giving the case of a particular school."

It is not surprising after what I have said that the secondary education commissioners report upon this subject in the following terms. This is the justification of the Government for bringing in the measure which they are going to ask the House to adopt. The commissioners, speaking of the want of coherence and correlation of secondary education, viz:

"Of the loss now incurred through the want of such coherence and correlation it

is impossible to speak too strongly. * * * Unfortunately, so far from tending to cure itself, it is an evil which every day strikes its roots deeper. The existing authorities and agencies, whose want of cooperation we lament, are each of them getting more accustomed to the exercise of their present powers and less disposed to surrender them. Vested interests are being created which will stand in the way of the needed reforms. Thus, the difficulty of introducing the needful coherence and correlation becomes constantly greater, and will be more serious a year or two hence than it is at the present moment. We feel bound, therefore, to state the opinion, which has grown stronger in us since we entered upon this inquiry, that the matter is one of urgency and ought to engage the very early attention of Your Majesty's advisers and of Parliament."

THE WORK OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

I have now come to my last point, and that is the education department itself. As long ago as 1859 the present Bishop of London and Lord Lingen, before the Duke of Newcastle's commission, declared that the complication in the education office was enormous, owing to the central system. In 1883, Mr. Patrick Cumming, so long the secretary of the education department, said that the tremendous detail of looking into every school of the country was too cumbrous. It was all very well when education was a small affair, but now that it has become national, it seemed to him that the system was too detailed. Last year the education department inspected 19,789 day schools and 3,421 evening schools. From each of these schools they received two direct communications, one from the managers and one from the inspector. As each pair of these documents contains 1,659 blank spaces which have to be filled up, it follows that the department had last year to deal with 32,829,951 blank spaces. Of course, as the claim of the schools depends upon the accurate scrutiny of these blank spaces, it follows that they have to be carefully looked at, and each document has to go through fifty-four different stages. Besides this, there are 32,476 pupil-teachers under the immediate supervision of the department, and each of them has a separate report upon him or her examined in the office. I do not think that the House has any idea where the education department is. They fancy that it is in Whitehall, but in Whitehall there are only the secretarial staff and certain heads of departments whose presence is indispensable. A great part of the department is in Cannon buildings, King street; another part is in the old Census Office; another is in Northumberland avenue, while the whole staff of the education library and of the new directors of special inquiries is now wandering about looking for some home.

THE PROPOSALS OF THE GOVERNMENT.

THE NEW COUNTY AND BOROUGH AUTHORITY.

Having tried to give the House some idea of the existing state of things, I now come to the bill itself. The principle of the measure is the establishment in every county and county borough of a paramount education authority. It is to be one channel through which public money is to reach the schools; it is to supplement and not to supersede existing educational effort, and it is to be a sort of separate educational department for each county and for each county borough. The proposal is not novel. It was recommended by the Duke of Newcastle's committee in 1861, as regards elementary education; by the school-inquiry commission of 1868, as regards secondary education; by the technical-instruction commission of 1884, as regards technical and secondary education; in a memorandum issued by Lord Cross's commission in 1888; and finally by the secondary-education commission which has just reported. It is proposed in the bill that the education authority shall be the county council acting through a statutory educational committee, and it is proposed to leave the number and composition of this committee entirely in the discretion of the county council. There are some admirable suggestions in the report of the secondary-

education commission as to the constitution of these bodies. These suggestions relate to the question of the presence of women on these committees, to the question of the election of experts and of teachers' representatives, etc. The only restriction that will be placed on the composition of a committee is that a majority of its members must be members of the county council. Power is given to counties to combine for the purposes of the bill. In counties where the circumstances are special, as in the county of London, the county council may itself propose a scheme for the special constitution of a committee which, when approved by the education department, will become the committee for the county; and in the case of Wales the governing bodies under the Welsh intermediate-education act will become the committees. It is proposed to decentralize entirely the administration of school grants by the education department and to throw upon these bodies the duties of administering the parliamentary grant. The general inspection of schools will, of course, be undertaken also by the county authority, and the committee of council, the central government, will only have inspectors who will visit the schools from time to time to see that the county education authority is properly fulfilling its duties and that the education is up to the proper standard. It is hoped that this arrangement will lead to a decentralization of the Code, and that instead of our attempting to impose one rigid system of education from the Land's End to Berwick-upon-Tweed, each county and county borough shall be able to make such modifications in the Code as may be suitable to its particular local circumstances. Then it is proposed to hand over to this committee the powers of the county council under the technical-instruction act, 1889. The money received under the local-taxation act, 1890, will be specially applicable to secondary education and will be administered by the education authority and may be accumulated. This authority will also be the school-attendance committee in all places which have not a school board. Lastly, this authority will constitute a body to which may be intrusted hereafter those unhappy children of the State who are to be found in industrial and poor-law schools, and this body may deliver them from the prison taint on the one hand and the workhouse taint on the other. This authority will exercise all the powers given to the county council with regard to industrial and reformatory schools, and may make contracts with boards of guardians to take charge of poor-law children, so that they may be brought up in a humane fashion and may have a chance of becoming honest, self-supporting men.

THE NEW "SPECIAL-AID GRANT," "TO BE APPROPRIATED, IN THE FIRST PLACE, TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE TEACHING STAFF."

Then this authority is to distribute a special-aid grant to necessitous schools. The committee will receive from the exchequer a sum of 4s. for every child in voluntary schools or in the schools of those school boards which come under section 97 of the act of 1870. This special-aid grant will be divided among the voluntary schools, with a deduction for any endowments which they may possess, and, as regards the board schools, it will, in the first place, be used for making good any grants which they are entitled to, and the residue will be used for the general assistance of board schools which stand in need of further help from public sources. But in both cases the amounts received are appropriated, in the first place, to the improvement of the teaching staff, and it is only in cases where the teaching staff does not require improving that the sums may be applied to other definite purposes which are specified in the bill. There is a power given to schools to federate themselves either by districts or denominations, and in case a federation of schools is formed the education authority of the county may pay over the whole grant to which the group of schools is entitled in a lump sum, leaving it to be distributed according to a scheme to be approved by the education department. Any surplus left in their hands will be applied to local purposes of elementary education as the education department may sanction.

PUBLIC AUDIT OF ACCOUNTS.

There are also provisions for examination and inspection, and for the auditing of accounts by district auditors in order to insure that the money is applied to the purposes for which it is given. In case the voluntary schools in any district which has not at present a school board break down and other provision for education becomes necessary, in a county borough the education authority becomes the school board. In any other district, parish, urban district, or noncounty borough the district is to have the option of having a school board as at present. There is no compulsion, with the exception that if it is a borough the school board is not to be an elected school board; but there is to be a committee of the municipal council formed on the analogy of the education department. If the district does not choose to have a school board, then the educational authority of the county becomes the school board for the parish, district, or borough, and after an opportunity has been given for establishing a school board they may take over the elementary schools of any district and become in that way virtually the school board for the district. Then in the case of a defaulting school board, if a school board becomes a defaulter, the education authority becomes the school board for the district; but in performing their duties as a school board in reference to the control and management of schools they must delegate their authority to manage to local managers. They are not directly to manage schools themselves. In the case of county boroughs the local managers are to be appointed by the education authority themselves, and in the case of other boroughs by the municipal council; and in the case of parishes, half by the parish and half by the education authority. Then these schools are to be paid for either by a rate upon the district or by a county rate charged on all those districts for which the education authority acts as a school board. This will tend to—and I hope it will grow into—a system under which all those parts of the county in which there are public schools will all be connected with and under the authority of the county education authority, and will be maintained out of the general county rate. As regards secondary education, the new authority will be able to aid schools out of the money at their disposal, to aid schools for secondary education, and to establish them; and with the consent of the education department they may take a transfer from the school boards of their higher grade schools and so become managers of higher grade schools. Then they may apply their money to scholarships and the supply of teachers. They may inquire into the sanitary condition of all schools, and they may also inquire into the education given in all schools except those which are decided to be nonlocal. In the case of local schools they may publish any information they may think proper as to the efficiency of those schools.

THE "SEVENTEEN AND SIXPENNY LIMIT."

EXEMPTION FROM RATING—TWELVE YEARS OF AGE FOR JUVENILE LABOR—VETOING SCHOOL BOARD EXPENDITURES.

Besides all this, the bill contains also a number of miscellaneous amendments of the education acts, which I will very shortly enumerate. There is the abolition of the 17s. 6d. limit. There is a clause exempting elementary schools from all rates. Then I am happy to say that the age of school attendance is raised to 12 years. There is no attempt to deal with the question of half time, and the clause is one similar to that passed by the right honorable gentleman, the late vice-president of the council, two years ago, except that the age of 11 is turned into 12. Then powers are given to the county authorities to lend money to the managers of voluntary schools on the security of the school buildings; and there are limits put to the school-board rate, requiring any increase in the rate in consequence of the maintenance of children to be sanctioned by the public authority before it is levied.

Mr. ACLAND. What is the authority?

Sir J. GORST. If the district is a borough, it must be the council of the borough; if it is an urban district, it must be the district council, and in any other case the county council of the county in which the district is situated. Finally, the Government have put a clause in the bill in the hope of laying the very last objection which could be made to elementary education on religious grounds.

THE EXTENSION OF THE COWPER-TEMPLE CLAUSE.

I did not enumerate the religious difficulty as one of the difficulties which had to be surmounted by Parliament, because the religious difficulty is no difficulty at all in the schools. It is never heard of there. It is a difficulty which flourishes in Parliament and on the platform. Since I have held the office I now have the honor to hold I have asked in many schools whether there was any religious difficulty, and I have never yet found that there was any. I have never found a school-teacher to tell me at first hand that they have ever had any difficulty with the parents, children, or anyone else on the teaching of religion to the children. This clause is a kind of supplement to the conscience clause. It not only enables a parent to withdraw his child from religious instruction of which he does not approve, but it also helps him to secure that religious instruction which he requires. The provision is that in every elementary school one of the conditions of receiving a Government grant is that if a reasonable number of parents of children require to have separate religious instruction given to them, then it is the duty of the managers of the school to permit of reasonable arrangements being made for allowing that religious instruction to be given. It is hoped that in that way if there are any parents who conscientiously desire that their children should be instructed separately from the other children in the schools it is the duty of the managers of the schools to give every possible facility for the teaching of that form of religion which they require. I do hope that this may be accepted by the House of Commons as a sincere attempt on the part of the Government to introduce a system of perfect religious toleration. I am very much obliged to the House for allowing me to make this very long statement, and I hope the bill will be approached by the House of Commons in a really businesslike spirit. I can not, of course, expect that every clause will be generally accepted on both sides of the House, but I hope that the principle of the bill will be, and that we shall all cooperate together to make this a real step in advance in the education of the country. (Schoolmaster, April 4, 1896, pages 617-619.)

The keenest analysis of the bill made in the House on the side of the opposition was by Mr. Asquith[1] in his speech on the resolution for the second reading. At the outset he noted the provisions which, even from his standpoint, were recognized as valuable and beneficent. These were, first, the proposition to raise the age for compulsory attendance from 11 to 12, and, second, the proposals as to secondary education. He then proceeded with the objectionable features, considering chiefly the question of local authority. Under this head Mr. Asquith said:

* * * Now, I will ask the House to come to close quarters with the actual provisions of the measure. As the right honorable gentleman has told us, the pivot upon which the whole of this scheme hinges and turns is the creation in every county and in every county borough in England and Wales of a new education authority which is at once to discharge some, and which in the course of time is intended to perform all, the functions as to inspection, as to examination, as to control, and as to payment which are at present vested in the education department. The decentralization of the control of education was represented by the right honorable gentleman, and

[1] Secretary of state home department in Mr. Gladstone's fourth ministry.

I think properly represented, as being the very foundation and the mainspring of the scheme. When the bill comes into full operation—although I understand from the speech which we have just heard in its initial stages its provisions are to be tempered by a very invidious process of selection—you will have in England and Wales no less than 126 education departments. This is the number of the counties and of the county boroughs. In the county of Lancaster alone you will have no less than 15 education departments.

I am quite aware that there are provisions in the bill which enable these authorities by agreement to combine with one another. But I do not think that anyone who is acquainted with the facts of our local life and adequately appreciates the tenacity and exclusiveness of what I may call our municipal patriotism, its rivalries and jealousies, which are often founded, I agree, upon real diversities of local sentiment and of local interest—I do not believe that anybody who is acquainted with the facts will believe that that power is likely to be very frequently resorted to. Many of these new departments—I will not say all of them—will have or may have educational codes of their own. The right honorable gentleman has told us that the education department will scrutinize with jealousy any proposals of the kind that may be made, but, as I shall point out presently, the education department, when you have regard to the terms and spirit of the bill, will do so with maimed powers and with fettered hands. It is true that the education department in name and in theory remains, but it remains in the background, a spectral and disembodied authority—an authority of which you might say with truth that it reigns, but it can not govern; for the very essence of your scheme is, in the future, as regards the discharge of these very functions which now for more than a generation have been exercised by the education department upon uniform principles over the country as a whole, to make local opinion and local feeling predominant and supreme.

This ingenious plan for the production of what I can not help thinking will be an educational patchwork and an administrative chaos is presented to us under the specious name of decentralization. Those of us, of whom I certainly am one, who are strongly in favor of the principle of devolution, who wish to see transferred to local bodies a very large number of the powers and prerogatives which are at present exercised both at Westminster and at Whitehall, are challenged to reconcile our faith in that principle with our opposition to this measure. I never had a challenge which I could contemplate with more equanimity or take up with greater confidence. What is the essence of devolution in any intelligible and rational sense of the term? Devolution means the taking away from the central authority of powers which experience has shown that that authority exercises ignorantly or inefficiently, and it means the granting to local authorities, competent by their composition to discharge the task, and with time and energy to spare for it, of powers which can be more fitly and more properly exercised by them. I do not stand here this evening in any sense as an uncompromising or uncritical advocate of the education department. I have no doubt, as the right honorable gentleman told us when he introduced this bill, there is, under the existing system, an excess of routine, and even of red tape, a multiplication of gratuitous forms, an accumulation of unnecessary details. I will go further, and I agree that in our large urban communities—in places like London itself; like Birmingham, like Leeds, and like many other towns—there is in existence what I may call an indigenous enthusiasm for education so keen and so well organized that it stands in very little need of extraneous supervision and control, and that it might very well be trusted with a wider latitude of action and a larger freedom of making experiments.

But the House can not fall into a greater or more fatal delusion than to measure the educational climate of the country as a whole by the temperature of these great towns. I certainly am not exaggerating—and I should have thought I was here upon what the right honorable gentleman calls common ground—when I say that over large parts of England at any rate there is not—we may regret it, we may acquiesce in it, but we are bound to admit it—there is not that local interest in

educational progress which, if matters of this kind are to be left entirely to local initiative, is the only security for the maintenance of a high standard of education. I do not think the right honorable gentleman himself, with his knowledge of the work of his department, will question the truth of that statement. I do not hesitate to say that if throughout the length and breadth of England and Wales during the last thirty years we have succeeded in constantly raising what I may call the minimum standard of educational efficiency, the main credit for the accomplishment of that most beneficent work is to be put down to the impartial, unsleeping, and the ubiquitous activity of the education department.

You are proposing by this bill to transfer the work of examination and of inspection from that department, in the first instance, at any rate, to the local authorities. Now, may I give the House an illustration drawn from another branch of administration with which I happened myself to be personally familiar—I mean the factory department of the home office? That is a highly centralized system of administration, and there are many people who think—I confess I myself used to think—that it might very well, in some of its parts, at any rate, be delegated to local authorities. In the year 1891 Parliament did transfer the inspection of workshops, so far as their sanitation was concerned, from the home office to the local authorities. When I went to the home office and during the time I was there, I found that that part of their duties—though of course there were exceptions again in the case of large towns—was being systematically neglected over all parts of the country. I do not hesitate to say—and I speak from a certain amount of practical acquaintance with the matter—that if you were to do with reference to factory inspection that which it is proposed by this bill to do in reference to school inspection, there are many parts of England in which, after the expiration of five years, these laws which were passed for the protection of the lives and limbs of our working population would be a dead letter. If that is the case in relation to such a matter as factories, it is still more likely to be the case in relation to schools; for remember that, as regards schools, the work of inspection does not merely mean that you are to see that the law is being complied with, but upon that work depends the grant and the receipt of large sums of public money which are not locally raised but voted by Parliament. I am satisfied—and I speak in no partisan spirit, but merely in the interests of good administration, so far as this subject is concerned—that it is the presence, or at any rate the liability of the presence, of an inspector who is totally detached from local prepossessions and local influences, who speaks with the authority of a great department and even of Parliament itself, who is not subject to appointment or dismissal, to raise of salary or promotion in rank according as he makes himself agreeable or disagreeable to the locality concerned—it is the presence of a body of impartial, detached, dispassionate officials of that kind which, both as regards the inspection of schools and of factories, is the most effective security for the uniform observance of the law.

I say I speak in this matter as a strong disciple and advocate of the principle of devolution. Localize management as much as you like. I will go with the right honorable gentleman any length in that direction. If he were doing what from his speech we should have inferred he was going to do—to give the management of schools, the appointment and dismissal of the teachers, the everyday control of the education of the place to a representative popular authority—we should be with him to a man. But that is just what he is not going to do. As regards these all-important questions, the great bulk of the schools, nearly 15,000 out of the 20,000, are to remain as they are at present, in irresponsible hands. The thing which you are going to devolve upon the local authority is the very thing which local authorities, so far as our administrative experience in the past goes, are least fitted to perform. Who are these local authorities? They are committees nominated by the county councils and by the town councils of the county boroughs. Do these authorities wish for the task which you are going to intrust to them? Have any of them asked for it? I know some that have not, and not only not asked for it, but have already

evidenced the greatest disinclination to undertake these alien and incongruous duties. Have they time for it? So far as I know, the great bulk of the work of these bodies is done, not at the meetings of the council, but in numerous committees constantly sitting, and whose time and energy are at present amply occupied by the discharge of the onerous and delicate duties cast upon them. Further, are the ratepayers of the counties—the very persons who are in such distress, according to the Government, that large subventions are at this moment being made to them out of the imperial exchequer—prepared to undertake the additional pecuniary burdens which this scheme casts upon them?

Quite independently of the agreement which may ultimately be come to between the education department and the local authorities for the purposes of the distribution of the special aid grant, which is a function they can not cast off, they will be obliged to equip themselves with offices, a staff of inspectors and examiners capable of seeing that the schools between which this grant is to be allocated are in a fit condition to receive it, and to determine the exact degree of efficiency they possess. That means an enormous addition to the permanent administrative cost of every county and county borough in England and Wales. If you are going to get any adequate result from it, if you can show that it is likely in any proportionate degree to raise the standard of education, I would not oppose it; but you are going to duplicate inspection. You are going to keep inspectors at Whitehall, while in every county there has to be provided at the expense of the local ratepayers a second set of inspectors, who are to perform the same functions which are performed by the others. Let the House consider how this scheme will work out in one large county, where the population is scattered; where the means of communication are imperfect; where, even for the ordinary purposes of the county council, the work of administration at present is burdensome to the last degree.

You will need in a county like Devonshire, Dorset, or Wiltshire, in permanent session, at some place or other—or, I suppose, constantly perambulating about it—this county committee; and if, as will be the case, as experience shows—no body of men, however zealous, and however public-spirited, can keep abreast of the routine work which is to be taken away from the education department—you will throw more and more in all those counties the actual daily control of the work of inspection and examination, not on the committee, but on the permanent staff of officials supported in equipment and character by those engaged at present in performing the work. But the right honorable gentleman tells us that the education department will still remain; the work is to be done locally, but the education department will set things right. I can hardly imagine a system more calculated to engender unnecessary friction than this proposal of the bill. Suppose that the inspectors of the department differ from the local inspectors as to the efficiency of a particular set of schools, a school, or the whole of the schools of a county. Who is to decide? The right honorable gentleman says the education department; but the local authority will have a tremendous weapon in its hands when it is able to point out that Parliament, after fifty years' experience, has come to the conclusion that, prima facie, local opinion ought in these matters to prevail; and the education department in this House, or elsewhere, will find that it is a very different position—a position of impaired and discredited authority, for the purpose of making its voice heard and decision predominant—as compared with what it is to-day. * * *

What is going to be the effect of the bill on the school boards? The right honorable gentleman in his speech said, in language which seemed to be very carefully chosen, that no attack was made "directly." I must ask the House to examine this matter a little in detail. We ought, perhaps, I admit, to have been better prepared than we were for the animosity—I can use no other word—displayed in this bill to the school-board system. Lord Salisbury's hostility to that system has been long known, and to do him justice, has never been concealed, and has frequently been expressed. In this view, apparently, the school-board system does at once too much and too little. On the one hand it wastes the ratepayers' money in cramming

children's minds with unnecessary and indigestible knowledge; and, on the other hand, it starves their characters by withholding from them instruction in the dogmas of a particular sect. It is just a year ago since Lord Salisbury, at the meeting of the National Society, told his clerical supporters that it was their business to capture the board schools—to capture them, in the first instance, under the existing law, and then to capture them under a better law. They have tried to capture them under the existing law, and up to the present moment the attempt has resulted in a disastrous failure. I believe I am accurate in saying that, since that challenge was thrown down, in if not all, at any rate in a vast majority, of the school-board elections that have taken place the ratepayers, on behalf of whose consciences and pockets this campaign was to be initiated, have declared in the most unequivocal manner their attachment to the existing system and their indisposition to change it. * * *

The vice-president of the council, both on the first reading and again to-day, has dwelt exclusively upon the imperfections of the small rural schools. He has not said one word—nay, he disclaimed the intention—he has not said one word reflecting upon the majority of the great mass of the school boards of the country. But, because there happen to be in some scattered rural districts school boards which inadequately perform the duties cast upon them, they are to be made the foundation of an attack upon the mass of the school boards in the country. But the right honorable gentleman does not, even by his bill, take steps to remedy the evils of which he complains. It surely would not pass the wit of man to devise a scheme by which, under a system of grouping and enlargement of the area as regards ratability, there might be substituted for these small inadequate school boards an efficient educational authority. Under this bill the efficient school boards are to be sacrificed; they are to be hampered and mutilated, and the inefficient school boards are not going to be improved. I have here figures showing how great has been the growing appreciation of the school-board system during the last ten years. In 1886 there were in the Anglican schools connected with the National Society and the Church of England 1,640,000 children, and in the school-board schools 1,296,000 children, showing a majority in favor of the Anglican schools. But in 1895 there were in the Anglican schools 1,880,000 children, and in the board schools 1,975,000 children, so that not only has the relative position of the two classes of schools as regards children in attendance been reversed, but the rate of growth, which in the Anglican schools has been less than a quarter, has been more than half in the board schools. You may say in answer that this gives some claim to denominational schools for additional assistance; but the question I am dealing with is this, Does it constitute any ground for trying to depress the school-board system?

I am all for leveling up, but the provisions of this bill in relation to school boards are, in my opinion, provisions for leveling down. As the right honorable gentleman has acknowledged in his speech to-day, it is the competition with the school boards which has forced up the standard of teaching in voluntary schools, and which has created that strain of which the supporters of the voluntary schools complain. I ask those who are interested in education, and not merely in the rival claims of this or that sect, in the interests of education I ask the House to pause before it takes any step which would impair the efficiency of the board schools. I will say this of our school boards, they have attracted to their service in our municipal centers a large number of men who would have stood aloof altogether if they had not existed. If ever an experiment has been justified by its results it was the experiment of intrusting the management of primary education, not to town councils or county councils—bodies having a number of other duties to perform—but to a special body. In that way you secured in the service of education a set of men who, by their training and special qualifications, are peculiarly fitted to discharge the duties of their position.

It is quite true, as the secretary for the colonies has pointed out, that twenty-five years ago, when Mr. Forster's act was brought in, the first proposal was to intrust the

work of education in our towns to town councils or committees appointed by them. Whatever might have been said for that proposal, prima facie it appears to me that the experience we have had ought to convince us that we have adopted a more excellent plan. The proposal made twenty-five years ago, however, is not the proposal of this bill, and I believe that it would be far better to abolish the school boards altogether than to continue them in existence, as this bill proposes to do, with impaired powers, with fettered hands, and with discredited authority.

Mr. Asquith then passed to the consideration of the financial bearings of the bill:

Let me point out [he said] what those proposals are. As regards the special-aid grant, every board school which is entitled to it comes at once under the control of the education department, the committee of the privy council. If and when the process of devolution from the education department to the local authorities proceeds, these school boards will become subject to those authorities. The local authorities will become their paymasters; they will be charged with the duties of inspection and examination, and they will have the power of giving or withholding the parliamentary grant. As regards expenditure by other school boards, it is limited for all time either to its present standard or to a maximum of 20s. per child. But at present the average expenditure per child, which is raised by rates, is 18s. 5d., and in many of our large towns it is vastly above 20s. The effect of the proposal in the bill will be that those large towns will be subject for all time to another authority independent of themselves. Look at the effect of the bill in the noncounty boroughs, of which there are 220. In the schools of these boroughs there are in attendance 440,000 children, and in every one of these boroughs that has a school board the state of things will be this—the school board elected by the ratepayers will be subject, as regards inspection and control, to a committee of the county council. For example, the school board of Dewsbury, or Scarborough, will for some purposes be subject to a committee of the county council sitting at Northallerton, while as regards the rating for its expenditure it will be subject to its own town council. Thus the authority elected for education purposes will be hampered by two other authorities, neither of whom is specially qualified to deal with educational matters. I say deliberately that I believe it would have been impossible for statesmanship to devise a scheme more calculated to engender friction and misunderstanding, and yet we are told that this bill contains no direct attack upon the school boards. * * *

As regards existing expenditure, the object of the bill is to stereotype for all time the scale at present prevailing. You propose to prescribe three distinct limits to educational expenditure in this country. By the third clause the rate to be paid per scholar, including the fee grant to the education authority, is never to exceed the existing rate, or 29s. per head, whichever may be the highest. I believe I am right in saying that the rate at the present moment in voluntary schools averages 28s. 3d., and in board schools 29s. 4d. Thus, the voluntary schools have a small margin and the board schools have no margin at all; and let the House remember this provision is applied not only to present existing schools but to all new schools. However much the educational conditions of the country may change, and however great may be the rise in the stress of foreign competition, for all time to come, so long as this act of Parliament remains unrepealed, both school boards and voluntary schools are to be limited to the existing scale. Then, under the nineteenth clause, the ordinary grant, exclusive of the fee grant, is not to exceed the grant for this year, which is, as far as I can make out, to average 19s. a head. In the case of voluntary schools the average is 18s. 2d., and in the case of board schools, 19s. 2d.; so that there again the voluntary schools have a margin of 10d. and the board schools no margin at all. See how it will work out. In Birmingham and in London at the present moment the ordinary grant is 19s. 5d. and 19s. 8d. In Bolton it is 21s. 2d.; so that Birmingham and London are never to be able, however much they may improve their educational advantages, to rise to the standard of Bolton.

Then, lastly, on this point, the school boards themselves are not to raise a higher rate than 20s. per child without the consent of the local authority. Now, I ask, with reference to all these provisions, what is their purpose and object? Why are you going to limit, of all forms of expenditure, the expenditure on education, and at a moment when you are spending upon naval defense out of the accumulated funds of last year and out of the mortgage of the funds of future years vast sums of money; at a moment when you are dipping into the surplus of this year and next year to provide special relief for the owners and occupiers of agricultural land? That is the moment selected for placing a limit for all time to come on that which should be the most elastic, the most fruitful, and the most beneficent of all forms of expenditure. I say that this proposal is equally objectionable from a constitutional and from an educational point of view. You are taking advantage of a transient parliamentary situation to bind the hands of future Houses of Commons in a matter which, under our constitution, falls peculiarly under the prerogative of this House, namely, the fixing of the amount and distribution of our national expenditure. Majorities in this House come and go, but there is a place where there is a majority irrevocably devoted to your own party, and once this act of Parliament is put on the statute book it will deprive the House of Commons of that which I conceive to be the most fundamental and invaluable of all its constitutional functions, namely, its absolute freedom to decide how the money raised by taxation shall be spent. And the matter is equally serious from the point of view of education. Hitherto the great leverage toward a high standard in education has been the competition between the different classes of schools. By this bill you are putting them, as it were, in water-tight compartments. You are preventing that possibility of rivalry between them which has been the most potent factor in educational progression in the past.

Well, sir, I come next to the provisions with reference to the special-aid grant which the right honorable gentleman has exhorted us to approach in a calm and philosophic spirit. I shall endeavor to do so. The question has been asked more than once if we are prepared to abolish voluntary schools and to substitute a universal system of school boards and board schools. That question has not been raised by us. We have been quite content to acquiesce, and we have acquiesced, in the compromise arrived at in 1870, which, be it remembered, was resented—and I think legitimately resented—not only by the Nonconformists, but by education reformers at the time, like my right honorable friend the secretary for the colonies, as giving a very undue amount of favor to voluntary schools as compared with board schools. I will not suppose that my right honorable friend has changed his opinions. No; I do not see why he should do so. We have been referred to the example of Scotland, and I think the first lord of the treasury taunted my right honorable friend the member for Montrose and myself with ignorance of the educational system of the country we have the honor to represent. It is perfectly true in one sense that the schools of Scotland are denominational schools—that is to say, in the ordinary schools of Scotland the elements of the Presbyterian doctrine are taught, Presbyterianism being the religion of the vast majority of the population of the country, and special provision being made for giving facilities for separate schools for the minorities. But there is another element in the Scottish system to which the right honorable gentleman has not paid equal attention, and that is that in Scotland there is a school board in every parish. You might search Scotland from one end to the other without finding a single parish in which the parish school is supported by public funds and to which the children of the ratepayers are compelled by law to resort, where the appointment and dismissal of teachers are in the hands of the parish minister or elders. If you will give us the Scottish system the denominational question will rapidly solve itself.

What is the position of voluntary schools? As I say, so far as I am aware no one proposes to abolish them or to incur the enormous expenditure, estimated at £25,000,000 by the right honorable gentlemen, or even half that sum, that would be

involved in taking over the voluntary schools. I am perfectly ready to reckon the voluntary schools as an integral part of our educational system; but when these special claims are put forward by the supporters of voluntary schools to exceptional treatment it is necessary to closely scrutinize the facts. We are told by the right honorable gentleman opposite, and the phrase has become classical, that the voluntary schools and their supporters are "subjected to an intolerable strain." But what are the facts? Since 1839, when the system of national education was initiated, no less than £58,000,000 sterling of public money has been granted to the voluntary schools. At the present moment, including the fee grant, very nearly, if not quite, three-fourths of the maintenance is borne by the State. At the outside one-sixth of the cost of maintenance is found by voluntary subscription. It is quite true that although subscriptions have not increased per head they have increased in the aggregate since 1870; but that increase, if you have regard to the contemporaneous growth of the wealth and population of the country and in the zeal of men of all parties and faiths in the cause of education, is not very remarkable.

Nor is it easy to estimate how much of these so-called voluntary subscriptions is really what is known as a voluntary rate, which persons impose upon themselves in the hope that they will thereby avoid the increased expenditure which would result from the establishment of a school board and more efficient teaching. I do not care to dwell on the precise number of parish schools to which there is no subscription; but it is a remarkable fact that the places where this so-called strain is most felt are some of the large towns in the north of England, where the fees used to be high and the subscriptions have always been low, and where a deficiency has been produced by the abolition of fees and the substitution of a fee grant of 10s. per head. I find, for instance, in Manchester the average subscription per child is 3s. 6d., and in Liverpool it is as low as 3s. These facts, when dispassionately considered, go far to show that there is no very excessive strain.

But I am perfectly prepared to agree—and I believe that everybody on this side of the House will agree—that if you can show us that, either in the voluntary or in the board schools, there are cases where, from lack of resources, education is being starved or inefficiently provided—if you can show that the only means of making up the deficiency and of raising the level of the education given to the proper standard is by further grants from the public funds, then, subject to two or three very simple conditions, there will be no opposition on our part. What are those conditions? They are very intelligible and very rational; and they are certainly supported by the most weighty authorities. The first is that whatever money is given should be impartially distributed—impartially not only as between voluntary schools themselves, but as between voluntary and board schools. On that point I found myself on the authority of the lord president of the council, who, as late as November last, when we supposed that this bill was in the initial stage of preparation, said: "I do not conceive that it is proposed by any legislation to depart from the principle of statutory equality as regards state aid to voluntary and board schools." In the second place, whatever is given ought to be given under conditions which will secure that it shall be spent on the improvement of education and not in the relief of subscribers and ratepayers.

It is for that reason that we say that a local contribution in one form or another shall be an essential condition of every grant. Unless you have that you have no guarantee, except such as the central authority's inspection affords against waste and extravagant expenditures. The act of 1870 required that the voluntary contribution or the contribution from local sources should be equivalent to the Parliamentary grant. That was modified in 1876 by the fixing of the 17s. 6d. limit. But on this point I am content to rely on authority. I will take two authorities, the weight and value of which can not be disputed by honorable gentlemen opposite. The first is the Bishop of London. In 1888, when he was a member of the commission on education then sitting, the Bishop of London moved an amendment to the majority report which was thus expressed: "We can not recommend that in any case

the grant from the department shall exceed the amount provided on the spot; nor is it, in our judgment, a sufficient plea for overriding this principle that the people on the spot are unwilling to contribute enough." There is another authority, even higher in rank, the Archbishop of Canterbury himself, who, on November 21 last, at a deputation to Lord Salisbury, said: "We are willing to have a certain proportion of subscriptions insisted on as a condition of the grant."

Thirdly, it ought to be made essential, as a condition of these schools receiving further money from the State, that you should introduce into their management some public representative element. There are in this country at the present moment 8,000 parishes in which the only school is a Church of England school. In those parishes the Nonconformists are compelled by law to send their children to school, and there is no other place to send them than the church school. And yet the absolute control, subject to the conscience clause, of the teaching and management of those schools, and of the all-important question, the appointment of the teachers, the determination of what duties those teachers are to perform and subject to what tenure they shall hold their offices—the absolute control is in the hands of irresponsible managers. I do not propose that we should destroy the denominational schools, and, if we are not to destroy them, I agree that they must continue to be denominational in character. But I am perfectly satisfied that if you can introduce into the management of these schools an element—and I use the word advisedly—of representative management; if, for instance, the provision of this bill which allows a reasonable number of parents to demand separate religious instruction could be applied to this case, so that a reasonable number of parents might demand representation on the board of managers, then a vast number of the abuses which at present prevail and the grievances under which the rural ratepayers suffer would, from the mere fact of the infusion of this popular element, almost immediately disappear.

As regards the religious instruction clause Mr. Asquith said:

The principle which has governed us hitherto in this matter has been this. We have two sets of schools. First, the board schools, entirely supported out of public resources, imperial and local. In those schools the teaching of any religious formulary or catechism is absolutely prohibited. We have another class of schools—denomination schools—which are largely supported out of the public funds. Yet, as in the view of the framers of the act of 1870, they were to continue to make substantial contributions of their own, they have given to them the power, while subject to a conscience clause, to teach any religious formulary they please. That is the compromise which has worked for twenty-five years. What occasion is there to disturb it? This new clause, which professes to be framed in the interests of Nonconformist parents in our villages, will, so far as those villages are concerned, be an absolute dead letter. I have never heard any demand put forward on the part of those who are entitled to speak for those bodies for any such privilege as the bill proposes to give them. And when we know that in a large number of these villages the conscience clause itself is a dead letter, for reasons very intelligible, but on which I need not dwell, will it be supposed that the parents of those children, who do not now claim for their children even the exemption allowed by the conscience clause, are going to incur—and there is no disguising the fact that they would incur—a considerable amount of odium and disfavor from those who control to a large extent the fortunes of their daily lives, by claiming for their children their distinctive religious teaching in church schools?

If this clause is to be taken advantage of at all it will be taken advantage of to get rid of the Cowper-Temple clause in towns. As to that I will only say one word. The religious teaching which is being given in our board schools is teaching which to a large extent has been molded and approved by churchmen. The highest possible testimony has been borne to its value by not a few bishops of the church.

I read a remarkable passage in the speech of one of the most respected bishops, the bishop of Durham, at Darlington, a day or two ago. He said he did not believe that the power which was given by this clause would be largely exercised. If the religious instruction given in the board schools was not all that was required, what was wanting, he said, would be supplied elsewhere. He believed that the greater completeness would be dearly purchased by the interference with the regular course of the school instruction.

What evidence is there, I ask, that the parents of the children for whom this religious instruction is provided are dissatisfied? This agitation is a clerical agitation. It is carried on for the most part by the most extreme members of the clergy and by a body of laymen who are more clerically minded than the clergy themselves. I do not believe myself that the parents will be found to avail themselves of this clause; but I can conceive that, under the stimulus of a more or less fanatical propaganda, it may be possible to get together in some of our towns a sufficient number of parents to make the demand. I ask the House to consider, if the demand were granted, what its effect would be? What would be its effect upon our local elections? It will introduce into them, with a vastly increased amount of bitterness than we have before experienced, the element of sectarian strife. What will be its effect upon religious life itself? It will destroy, or at any rate impair, its charities and amenities. What will be its effect upon the children themselves? At present in these board schools they are taught a form of religious teaching which has this peculiarity, no doubt, that it consists mainly, if not entirely, of those facts and principles upon which all the churches agree. If this clause were carried into effect and worked upon a large scale, you would have those children herded—if I may use the word—into separate theological pens, branded and labeled with the names of their particular sects, and taught under conditions which must compel them, if they have fairly receptive minds, to attach more importance, not to those truths which unite, but to those things that divide. This is, I suppose, the legislative embodiment of the inalienable right of the parent to have his child taught in any religion at the public expense. But where does this right come from? What is its origin? Where are its sanctions? In what line of any act of Parliament is any trace of it to be found? It is a metaphysical figment of the newest and crudest character.

I am convinced that, as regards this clause, the good sense of the country and the parents of the children will repudiate it. But, if it is adopted, it will be found to have a most deleterious and damaging effect upon the whole of our educational work and of our civic life. I have endeavored to demonstrate step by step every branch of the general condemnatory proposition with which I started, and of which the amendment I am about to move is the only adequate parliamentary expression. We are well aware of the fate which awaits that amendment in the division lobby. It will be rejected, I have no doubt, by an overwhelming majority. But this is only the preliminary stage in what is destined to be a stubborn and protracted campaign. You can succeed, if you are ill advised enough to try the experiment, by the use of your overbearing parliamentary majority, in placing this measure, with its absurdities and injustices, upon the statute book. But be assured that if you do so you are not settling, but you are opening, the controversy. Holding as we do, with as great a strength of conviction as it is possible for men to possess, that this bill if carried into law would create invidious inequalities; would embitter sectarian strife; would introduce friction and confusion over the whole area of our local government; and would permanently degrade the level of our system of national education, we are bound to give to it every opposition in our power, and, as the first step in the performance of that duty, I now beg to move that this bill be read a second time this day six months. (Schoolmaster, April 9, 1896, pp. 873–875.)

In reply to a letter from Mr. W. Ansell, member of the Birmingham school board, who wrote to Mr. Chamberlain pointing out what he

regarded as blemishes in the Government education bill, Mr. Chamberlain replied as follows:

40 PRINCES GARDENS, S. W., *April 19, 1896.*

DEAR SIR: I am extremely obliged to you for your letter of the 16th instant, with the information as to your views on the education bill of the Government. I am desirous of learning what were the special objections which your experience of educational matters led you to entertain to the Government proposals, and I now proceed to offer some explanations which I hope may serve to, at all events, reduce the number of points at issue.

In the first place I must frankly express my entire and absolute disagreement with your general accusation that the whole tendency of the bill is to remove the direct control of education from the people and place it in the hands of irresponsible bodies. On the contrary, I believe that the main result of this measure will be to give much greater control to the people and to their direct representatives over primary education, and especially to extend the local influence and interest in the subject. This result will be secured by the decentralization, of which I am glad to see you approve as a principle, and I anticipate that when the bill becomes law there will be much greater freedom than at present, and the tendency to stereotype all education according to an official standard will be checked in favor of local initiative and local experience.

Coming now to the special objections taken by you, I find myself unable to agree with your first point in regard to the constitution of the new educational authority. This authority will be a statutory committee elected by the town or county councils, which are at present the most representative and popular local bodies in the boroughs and counties. A majority of the new committee will be members of the council directly elected by the people; the minority will be selected, as in the case of the free libraries committee, for special reasons, and because they are exceptionally qualified to deal with educational matters. They will be subject to the general instructions of the council, and will, no doubt, report to it like other committees, so that their proceedings will be public and subject to popular criticism and control. This provision of the bill is in accordance with the principles advocated by the Birmingham league in 1870. We then contended strenuously that the town councils should be the controlling authority in regard to primary education, and we protested against the creation of a new local authority, elected under the exceptional provision of the cumulative vote, and therefore not likely to be in any true sense of the word representative of the ratepayers. I think our predictions have been amply verified, and that the school boards have, as a rule, under this exceptional arrangement, been composed of members who have represented sectarian differences and special views on many subjects, but who have not in the true sense of the word been representative of the general opinion of the constituency. Besides this, the interest taken in the election has always been less than that shown in parliamentary or municipal contests, and the board has generally been elected by the votes of a small proportion of the electors. As a Liberal, therefore, I hold now, as I did in 1870, that the town councils and county councils in agricultural districts are much better qualified to represent public opinion than the present school board authorities.

As regards your second and third objections, namely, the differentiation between board and voluntary schools in the special aid grant and absence of any proviso that voluntary subscriptions shall at least retain their present level, I feel that there is prima facie much to be said, and I have no doubt that these questions will receive the fullest consideration in the committee on the bill.

Your fourth objection, namely, the subordination of existing school boards to county councils, must stand or fall with your criticism as to the constitution of the new education authority. If, as I hold, the new education authority is much more representative than the existing school board, there can be no possible objection to giving it the slight control which is provided for in the bill. I do not hesitate to

say for myself that I should be glad to extend the principle further—even to the extent of the full adoption of the policy of the old Birmingham league.

In regard to your last three objections, which concern the appointment of teachers, the requirement of extraneous duties as a condition of engagement in denominational schools, and the absence of a conscience clause in denominational training colleges, I feel that they are subjects for discussion in committee. At the same time I ought to point out to you that the raison d'être of a denominational school is that the religious teaching given should be, as far as permitted by the educational act, under the control of the managers and subscribers of the school, and it would be evidently inconsistent with the continued existence of denominational schools at all that their rights in this respect should be materially diminished. For reasons which I publicly stated to my constituents five years ago in distributing prizes at the Brookfields board school, I have been forced to the conclusion that it is neither practicable nor desirable to throw upon the ratepayers the whole expense of education now given in the voluntary schools of the country, and if this be granted it would be improper to attempt to secure by a side wind what can not and ought not to be attempted by direct action. (Schoolmaster, April 25, 1896.)

The bill as already stated passed the second reading four weeks from the date of its presentation and entered upon committee stage. It soon became apparent that the chief point of attack was not to be either the limit of expenditure or the religious instruction clause, but the new local authority. In fact, the hostile forces with whom no compromise was possible were the 220 noncounty boroughs of the country. In the second week of the committee stage the debate was still waging over the first clause. At that time an amendment was moved by Sir A. K. Rollit (Conservative) providing that "municipal boroughs as well as county boroughs should be local educational authorities." Though Sir John Gorst rejected the amendment it was accepted by Mr. Balfour as regards boroughs having a population of over 20,000. This added at least 45 educational centers to the 126 proposed in the bill as originally drawn.

Mr. Balfour was immediately confronted with the case of urban districts of over 20,000 inhabitants, but the amendment in their interest was defeated. It developed at once that the Government majority had dwindled from 267 to 74, and in the midst of inextricable confusion Mr. Balfour announced first a limit of time for the further debate of the bill and subsequently its postponement to January next. This action, as already stated, was tantamount to abandoning the measure. The bearing of Mr. Rollit's amendment was clearly exposed by Sir W. Vernon-Harcourt[1] in a speech on the withdrawal of the bill. After reviewing its proposals and the course of the debate Mr. Harcourt continued:

At the commencement of this measure, was it the opposition alone who were opposed to this bill? County council after county council throughout the country had condemned the bill, and had declared that they would take no part in carrying it out. Devonshire, the West Riding, and many other counties condemned the bill; but when that amendment was introduced, at the instance or by the consent of the right honorable gentleman, there was a meeting held upon Friday last by the executive of the united county councils of the whole of England. There were present there, representing the county councils association, the Duke of Bedford, the Earl

[1] Chancellor of the exchequer in Mr. Gladstone's third and fourth ministries.

of Morley, Lord Herries, Sir John Dorrington, Sir Richard Paget, Mr. Bill, Mr. Hobhouse, Colonel Williams, and many others distinguished in the Tory party, and added to these were the clerks of the East Riding of Yorkshire, Leicestershire, Monmouthshire, Lancashire, Bedfordshire, East and West Sussex, Middlesex, and Shropshire. They met together, and, with one exception, unanimously condemned this bill. The vice-president of the council the other day prided himself upon the support which he had received from Lancashire and from Sir John Hibbert. Sir John Hibbert, who ought to have taken the chair at that meeting, was judiciously absent, and the clerk to the Lancashire county council said: "The result of Mr. Balfour's concession would be that in Lancashire alone there would be as many as 46 educational authorities. Only yesterday the technical instruction committee resolved that the change would strike a serious blow at the administration of the technical instruction acts, and that under those circumstances they considered that the county council could not with advantage undertake the additional duties proposed to be conferred upon them in regard to public elementary education." That was the repentance of the Lancashire county council, and that was their withdrawal of the support which they had previously given to the bill. And then the right honorable gentleman says it is we who, by our factious opposition, have defeated this bill. What are the real facts of the origin and disappearance of this bill I do not know whether we shall ever really learn. But things will leak out on these occasions, and I observe that at this meeting of the executive of the county councils of England a gentleman who seems to have known something about it—the honorable member for Somerset (Mr. Hobhouse)—is reported to have said: "The parliamentary committee of the association of county councils drew up a list of reasons why noncounty boroughs should not be constituted separate educational authorities. These reasons were duly handed to Sir John Gorst, and apparently met with his approval, for his speech on Thursday last ran exactly on the lines of those reasons. It was therefore greatly to his surprise that within half an hour of Sir John Gorst having made his speech, and without any opportunity having been given to any representative of the county councils in the House of Commons to speak against the amendment, the first lord of the treasury got up and made the concession which was so much deplored. There was no doubt that the amendment was moved on other than purely educational grounds. Sir Albert Rollit had stated publicly that the boroughs would never rest content until they had broken down the line which was fixed at a population of 50,000 by the act of 1888, not only for educational but for all administrative purposes.[1] That was what made the concession of such vital importance to nearly all county councils." * * *

[1]The following analysis and classification of English boroughs, with a pointed statement as to the effect of Mr. Rollit's amendment, is taken from the Schoolmaster of June 20, 1896:

"Under the bill there are 126 counties and county boroughs which would be compelled to form education authorities. In our issue of 16th of May we gave a list of the 64 county boroughs so affected. These we now reproduce:

"Barrow-in-Furness, Bath, Birkenhead, Birmingham, Blackburn, Bolton, Bootle, Bradford, Brighton, Bristol, Burnley, Bury, Canterbury, Cardiff, Chester, Coventry, Croydon, Derby, Devonport, Dudley, Exeter, Gateshead, Great Grimsby, Great Yarmouth, Gloucester, Halifax, Hanley, Hastings, Huddersfield, Ipswich, Kingston-on-Hull, Leeds, Leicester, Lincoln, Liverpool, Manchester, Middlesbrough, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Newport, Northampton, Norwich, Nottingham, Oldham, Oxford, Plymouth, Portsmouth, Preston, Reading, Rochdale, St. Helens, Salford, Sheffield, Southampton, South Shields, Stockport, Sunderland, Swansea, Walsall, West Bromwich, West Ham, Wigan, Wolverhampton, Worcester, York.

"We have compiled, from the Government return of school boards and school attendance committees, lists showing the municipal boroughs which will be affected by the acceptance of Sir A. K. Rollit's amendment. We find that on the basis of the 1891 census there will be 43 such boroughs which will have to provide their own

We were determined to oppose what you called the vital principles of your bill, because we saw in it, as explained by members of your own cabinet, a deliberate intention to wreck the school boards of England; because we have been told in violent terms by the prime minister and his bishops, and in violent terms by the right honorable gentleman, that they hoped and expected that the result of the bill would be that school boards would disappear. * * *

You thought that the school boards were unpopular with the nation and that you could trample upon them. That was the spirit of the conferences at the foreign office. That was the language which was held throughout the winter, and it was upon that miscalculation that the bill was founded. You have discovered your mistake. You have discovered that not alone on this side of the House but upon your own side of the House your attempts on the life of the school boards of the country have met with repugnance and with opposition. Now, those, in my opinion, are the main grounds which have destroyed this bill. We have nothing to regret in the part we have taken in making clear to the country and the House what has been the true object and what has been the true character of this bill. This bill has

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education authority. Of course, if 1896 census returns should be used (as we presume will be the case, seeing that the bill is now apparently to be hung up till next year), the list will have to be considerably augmented. We have, in a few cases only, included school districts, and these only because in some cases some of the constituent boroughs probably contain over 20,000 inhabitants.

"Municipal boroughs of over 20,000 which possess school boards.

"Ashton-under-Lyne, Bacup, Barnsley, Batley, Brighouse, Burslem, Burton-on-Trent, Carlisle, Chesterfield, Colchester, Darlington, Darwen, Dewsbury, Folkestone, Gravesend, Hartlepool, Jarrow, Keighley, Kidderminster, Lancaster, Longton, Lowestoft, Luton, Macclesfield, Maidstone, Morley (Staffs), Nelson, Rawtenstall, Rochester, Rotherham, Royal Leamington Spa, Scarborough, Shrewsbury, Stafford, Stalybridge, Stockton-on-Tees, Stoke-on-Trent, Tynemouth, Wakefield, Wednesbury, West Hartlepool, Widnes (Lancs), Workington.

"But besides the above 43 municipal boroughs there are 7 whose population in 1891 was very nearly 20,000, and which by this time will be able to claim to come under this clause of the bill and form their own education authorities; and no doubt this number will have to be considerably augmented when the 1896 census is considered as the basis of calculation. Sir J. Gorst, on Thursday week, in reply to Mr. J. Samuel, said that between the present time and the report stage he would consider the question whether boroughs under 20,000 on subsequently reaching that figure would automatically become independent educational authorities.

"Municipal boroughs of nearly 20,000 which possess school boards.

"Barnstaple, Ilkeston, Loughborough, Margate, Newcastle-under-Lyme, Pembroke, Salisbury.

"We have in the next place compiled a list which shows that there are 32 municipal boroughs of over 20,000 inhabitants which, though not possessing school boards, have attendance committees. These boroughs would under the amendment which we are considering have to form education authorities under the act.

"Municipal boroughs of over 20,000 with no school boards, but with attendance committees.

"Accrington, Bedford, Blackpool, Bournemouth, Bury, Cambridge, Chatham, Cheltenham, Chester, Chorley, Crewe, Doncaster, Dover, Eastbourne, Eccles, Glossop, Hereford, Heywood, Hyde, Kingston-on-Thames, Middleton, Peterborough, Preston, Ramsgate, Reigate, Richmond, St. Helens, Southport, Stockport, Torquay, Tunbridge Wells, Warmington.

"In addition to the above, there are 14 boroughs without school boards, but with attendance committees, in which the population according to the 1891 census was

failed because it was introduced without due consideration of the operation of the change which you proposed to effect. It has failed because even your own party was not united upon it. It has failed because it has been conducted under a mandate from the House of Lords. It has been conducted under the instructions of those who knew nothing of the real feeling of the nation and who knew nothing of the real sentiments of its representatives. That is one of the main causes of the failure of this bill. It has failed because it was conceived in the interests of a party and for the promotion of the objects of a sect. If you will abandon these sources of weakness in the coming year; if you will come forward with a measure for the education of the people which is framed not in the interests of a party, not to fulfill the objects of a sect, then you will find from us no obstructive opposition. We have declared, and we are willing to show, that in any fair bill, not conceived in the spirit I have described, elementary education may be made a nonparty measure. If it is brought forward not with the object of destroying the school boards of England, but of assisting upon fair terms those schools which might be assisted—if it is a fair bill for the promotion of the education of the people—then it will be a bill

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less than 20,000. Some of them must by this time far exceed 20,000 in population, as the 1896 census will doubtless show.

"Municipal boroughs of nearly 20,000 with no school boards, but with attendance committees.

"Banbury, Berwick-on-Tweed, Bury St. Edmunds, Grantham, Haslingden (Lancs.), Kings Lynn, Mansfield, Mossley (Lancs.), Poole, Taunton, Weymouth, Winchester, Worthing, Whitehaven.

"With regard to urban districts, Mr. Balfour last Thursday week, in reply to some remarks by Mr. Asquith, said that with regard to the question as to whether urban districts of over 20,000 inhabitants should have the power of forming their own education authorities, he would like to consider the question and give his decision at a later stage of the bill. This question was, however, reached on Monday night on an amendment by Mr. S. Evans to the effect that 'the education authority which under clause 1 was to be given to boroughs of 20,000 inhabitants should be extended to urban districts.' This was defeated by 265 to 143.

"The result, then, of the acceptance of Sir A. K. Rollit's amendment will be that to the 126 counties and county boroughs which have under the bill to form education authorities must be added 43 municipal boroughs with school boards and 32 municipal boroughs with attendance committees. To these will most likely have to be put 7 and 15 other municipal boroughs as soon as they reach 20,000 (and many of them have probably done that by this time); so that the number goes up almost at once from 126 to 222.

"This means an enormous increase in costly and duplicated machinery, possibly in new inspectors, in new codes of instruction, and certainly in elaborate official staffing and establishment charges."

The growth of urban populations in England must be taken into account in any consideration of the political influence of towns. The total urban population in 1891 was 20,802,770, or 71.7 per cent of the entire population. The ratio of increase in urban population in the decade 1881–1891 was 15.3 per cent, as against an increase of 3.4 per cent for the rural population. From an analysis of the detailed statistics it appears that 22 per cent of the population of England and Wales live in 6 towns of upward of 250,000 inhabitants; 31.6 per cent (in 1881 29.6 per cent) in 24 (in 1881, 20) towns of over 100,000 inhabitants; 40.6 per cent in 62 towns of over 50,000 inhabitants, 53.2 per cent in 182 towns of over 20,000 inhabitants, and 17,826,347, or 61.5 per cent, in 358 towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. In 1881 14,626,131, or 56.3 per cent, of the whole population, lived in 303 towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. (Statesmen's Yearbook, 1896.)

It should be added that the word "town" is here used in rather a loose sense, comprising districts of concentrated population rather than having regard to a particular form of local government.

which will not disappear as this bill has disappeared under the force of public discussion, but will be a bill which may make a permanent settlement of the greatest aim to which the House of Commons can direct its attention—namely, the education of the people. [Schoolmaster, June 27, 1896, pages 1163–1165.]

Outside of Parliament the discussion of the measure was vigorously maintained. Among many articles in the leading English periodicals none carried greater weight than that from the pen of Sir Lyulph Stanley, one of the notable leaders of the public-school movement, and long identified with the progressive party of the London school board. His review of the bill is here reproduced, with slight omissions:

The proposals now before the country in the education bill of the Government do not err in the direction of moderation. Not content with propounding a scheme for the organization on a public basis of secondary education, the Government invites us to revolutionize our elementary system and to reverse the whole policy of the act of 1870. Hitherto we have been accustomed to suppose that when important institutions had been established, and had built up round them an elaborate and working system, changes proposed would only affect details, and that conservatism in this country would respect past legislation and not assume the reactionary aspect of the continental counter revolution. It is unfortunate that the present Government, although it is supposed to represent the alliance of moderate Liberalism with Conservative defense of the constitution, has utterly disregarded more prudent counsels, and has propounded a scheme which may be satisfactory to those clerical forces which can not bear to see popular education slipping out of their grasp, and which will also please those who resent the expansion of popular instruction, and who would far rather see public money spent on military preparations and relief to landowners than in the improved education of the people.

It may be difficult to explain how the present bill will work if it should become law. But there can be no doubt that it will severely hamper the growth of public education and place its development under the control of the absolutely noneducational forces of local self-government. It establishes differential taxation in favor of private sectarian management, and discourages local effort by withholding public aid where local contribution is largest. It subsidizes voluntary schools out of the rates without giving the ratepayers a voice in their management, and, under the pretense of doing away with a too minute system of public aid, it does much to supersede all central direction and organization, which for years to come must be one of the guaranties of progress.

So far as it introduces a local controlling financial power, that power is to be used not for the purpose of compelling remote and ignorant local bodies to improve their teaching, but for the purpose of hampering progressive local bodies.

It exposes the body which is to direct secondary education to all the drawbacks that must result from associating it with the controversies and feuds which characterize the politics pertaining to elementary schools, and it fails to evolve any order from the present chaos by omitting to organize throughout the country local authorities of suitable area which shall at once be invested with the necessary power to do in all cases what can now be done by school boards where they exist.

While recognizing the unsatisfactory character of the parochial school board area, it does not in reality supersede it, but, so far as it provides a new area, rushes into the opposite extreme and gives us an authority which while suitable as to area for secondary education, is far too large for the purposes of elementary education. In short, it is a bill so bad in its principles and essential details that no recognition of it should be admitted, and its faults do not admit of being corrected in committee after conceding a second reading.

Let us first examine the bill as it bears upon elementary education.

It creates a new authority, the county council. This county council becomes, outside of municipal boroughs, through its education committee, the school board of the future, wherever school boards do not now exist. In municipal boroughs, other than county boroughs, the town council will in future become the school board. But existing school boards will lead a precarious life. They will apparently pass rapidly through a transition such as Madagascar has experienced, passing through dependence under a protectorate to extinction and absorption in the direct domain of the new authority.

The county council is to act through a committee. But apparently, except in the case of Wales and London, the county council has a free hand; it may or may not appoint outsiders, but probably the education committee must be a portion and not the whole of the county council.

Thus we pass at once from a body elected for educational purposes to a body elected for noneducational purposes. Everyone knows that municipal contests, and still more elections to rural county councils, do not turn at all on educational questions, and it is very unlikely that the addition of educational functions to the existing duties of a county council will materially modify the considerations which will lead candidates to present themselves as electors to vote. If the election of school boards required modification by the abolition of the cumulative vote, the periodic replacement of the members and the enlargement of the area, these changes could have been brought about without the abolition of school boards in principle, which is really the purpose and effect of this bill.

Again, the area for elementary school government should certainly not be so large as the county. The parish is undoubtedly too small, though the commune is the usual unit on the Continent, where public education has been organized long before England. Still it must be admitted that the parochial area, both for administration and for the incidence of taxation, is on many grounds insufficient for producing the best educational results. The area, however, of the district council would have been sufficient, and would have enabled us to secure (1) a sufficient number of competent representatives; (2) an area not too large for the members of the board to have some personal knowledge of the whole of their district; (3) a sufficient number of schools to educate the board by a comparison of their respective efficiency—and this is a most important consideration; (4) an area of taxation which would correct the undue pressure in any particular part, and would enable the board to deal fairly with the needs of the whole of the district.

The present bill, however, proposes an organization which can only be described as ludicrous. The county council, say of Devonshire or Norfolk, becomes, through its education committee, the potential school board for Devonshire or Norfolk. If hereafter any new parochial school board is needed, the county council committee will almost inevitably become the school board; it may also, and probably will, take over the functions of many existing school boards, and becomes the school attendance committee for all parts of the county not included in municipal boroughs or school board areas. Nevertheless, the charge of enforcing school attendance is not to be defrayed by a general charge over the portions of the county under the administration of the county committee, but is apparently to be met by special rates levied in the respective poor-law unions or portions of poor-law unions.

So, too, the school board rate levied by the new county authority will be separate for each parochial school board area, and separate accounts will have to be kept, and the county authority will have to sit for a quarter of an hour as the school board for Black Acre, then as the school board for White Acre, for Bishop's Stoke, for King's Stoke, and Earl's Stoke, and all the successive parishes it will have to administer. There is apparently power for the county authority, if it pleases, to convert these special rates into one general rate leviable in the parishes for which it acts as a school board (section 11), but prima facie the rates are to be separate.

The importance of this question of the rate is apparent when we remember another important new provision of the bill, that the county council is to restrain the spending power of the school boards.

If the maintenance rate in a district exceeds £1 a head, where it has not already done so, the school board must get the leave of the county council to spend more. Let it be noted that, so anxious is the bill to cripple education, this supervising power is not given to the new county education authority, which will be, in time, more or less familiar with the needs of education; it is given to the county council itself, in which all the members, who care nothing for education, and who have not wished to join the education committee, will vote.

Nay, more. So anxious are the authors of the bill to keep down education that it is actually provided in the case of an urban sanitary district, not a borough, and conterminous with a parish, that whereas the education committee of the county council will be the school board for the district, the authority whose leave must be obtained before the cost of maintenance from the rates exceeds £1 a head will be the local board and not the county council. Anyone who knows the type of speculative builder and others who frequently form a local board will know what readiness they will show to consent to taxation for education. Moreover, their instincts of local patriotism will be enlisted against their new school board. Fancy a populous urban parish in Lancashire of some 20,000 inhabitants whose schools are administered by the county education committee of Lancashire. That county education committee will plan the schools, determine their site, fix the number and scale of salaries of teachers, and generally make all the rules for the administration of the schools. On that education board probably not one resident from the town in question will have a seat, and yet, subject to the £1 limit for expenditure from the rates in maintenance, this external body will have the whole government of the schools. Is this local government? Is it not rather a caricature of local government? Where is to be found the natural correlation of taxation and representation? Another hardship is that the governing body will be largely, even preponderatingly, elected by those who contribute nothing to this or any school board. In many counties of England the bulk of the rural population who elect the county council are not in school board areas. Let the area of existing school boards be extended by all means, but let the new area which furnishes the new governing body be an area sharing the burdens, and therefore equally responsible in feeling with the old restricted area.

No doubt some element of local management is preserved by clause 10, which enacts that in a rural parish half the managers shall be nominated by the parish council and half by the county education authority. But this clause itself is full of absurdities. It says that the county council shall delegate their powers of control and management; but who shall say how much this means? Does it mean the appointment and dismissal of teachers? This seems hardly consistent with the act of 1873. Moreover, section 15 of the act of 1870 is incorporated, which gives the school board power to dismiss the managers. Is one body to appoint and another to dismiss? At any rate, management can not include settling the salaries and numbers of the staff or any general rules as to qualifications which the county school board may draw up. The clause would open the door to endless opportunities of friction and conflict. Again, in a county borough the education committee is to nominate the managers; but in any other borough, while an education committee must be appointed to act for the borough council, yet the borough council and not the education committee is to nominate the managers, and in an urban district which is also a school district the local board will nominate the managers. Can anyone fancy the confusion and conflicts that would arise from such a state of things?

The fact is that the moment you give local administration to a body not chosen by those whose money they are to spend you introduce a principle absolutely opposed to the history and principles of our local self-government; and all this is done to propitiate clerical opposition and to call into existence a new body which will supersede the hated school board.

Let us pass for a moment from the county council education committee as an administrative body charged with the local supply of elementary education to its functions as a superintending body over local elementary education, intrusted by the Government with the administration of the parliamentary grant and the inspection of schools. Here everything is vague, but in this vagueness all kinds of serious possibilities are latent. Surely in the first place it is unsatisfactory that the spending and the supervising authorities should be the same. In the North Riding of Yorkshire the educational committee of the county council may be inspecting the school boards of Scarborough, Whitby, Thornaby, and other popular centers, and at the same time they may themselves be the school board for little towns like Thirsk, Malton, Northallerton, Pickering. Is it desirable that a body which is itself administering, and probably on a smaller scale and with less experience, should superintend and ultimately control the education of substantial towns?

Again, take the county boroughs. Is there any reason to suppose that the town council of Middlesbrough or of York is more fit to make rules under which the science and art and other grants of those towns shall be administered than the school boards of the same towns? Take Hull, a town where the school board has worked at the lowest cost possible, and yet has done much in its higher grade schools for improving popular education. What has the town council of Hull done that it should be thought more fit to represent the interests of the ratepayers and the interests of education than the school board of Hull, equally elected by the people?

Those concerned in education locally will be glad to see more intellectual light introduced in high places at Whitehall and South Kensington, but they may be excused if they doubt whether the twilight of the education department is not better than the outer darkness of such county boroughs as Wigan, or Stockport, or Birkenhead, or Canterbury. The zeal of a convert is proverbial; but the vice-president had better pause before he adores that which he used to burn and burns that which he used to worship.

Sir John Gorst, in his panic at the overminute supervision of the education department, makes a calculation that there are 32,000,000 blank spaces which have to be looked into by his officials. In their enumeration they have omitted one blank space so vast that it figures as a Sahara in the map of their intelligence—the blank failure to understand that it has for years been in the power of the department to simplify without abdicating; to rely more, as they are beginning now to do, on inspection rather than detailed examination in determining the goodness of a school; to develop real local responsible educational authorities instead of relying on irresponsible volunteers, whose object, avowed by themselves, is not educational but denominational, whose first wish is not to create capable citizens, but devout and submissive Anglicans and Romanists; not to secure a schoolmaster who shall perform an honorable, though humble, function for the whole community, but to obtain the unpaid services of an organist, Sunday-school teacher, and general ecclesiastical and parochial factotum. It is the pampering and preserving of a State-aided system under private, irresponsible management which has naturally led to the mechanical methods of the education department.

It may be necessary to point to one or two provisions of the bill in order to justify the statement that it not only aims at the subordination, but at the extinction, of school boards.

(1) Henceforward there can hardly be any rural school boards. Section 6 makes it almost certain that in future the county council will become the school board in rural areas. But section 6 seemingly makes it more difficult at once to call a school board into existence. Hitherto, where the school of a village was closed, the education department could, without notice, at once order the formation of a board. Section 6 seems in all cases to require the long routine of preliminary notices. The object of this, of course, is to do all that can be done to perpetuate clerical management and to prevent the people from managing their own schools.

Section 7 makes it impossible hereafter in any borough to have an independent school board.

Section 8 is to facilitate the extinction of school boards by the transfer of their schools to the new authority. But that there may be no mistake as to the real object of the bill, which is to prevent the extension of public management and to maintain and extend if possible private clerical management, these new county authorities are not made at once school boards for the purpose of taking over existing schools. Under subsection 2 of section 8 it is only after the necessary steps have been taken for the formation of a school board in any district that the new county authority can take over a public elementary school under section 23 of the education act of 1870. If there had been a real wish to simplify and to secure what the framers of the bill must be supposed to wish—the establishment everywhere of a proper local educational authority—the new county authority would have been declared to be the school board for all those portions of the county not already under school boards. Subsection 3 of section 8 does not make the county education authority the school board for its district—that is, for the county as a whole—but only for the district; that is, the district in which the school proposed to be transferred is situated.

Again, section 9 provides that where the education department declares a school board in default, or declares that any school board has not properly performed any of its duties under the education acts, the education department may constitute the county education authority the school board. Was ever such arbitrary power bestowed on a department of state; practically on a vice-president of the council? If the school board for London is at variance with the department; if, to take an extreme instance, the school board for London in any one of its 400 schools, in any one of its 1,200 departments, has not, in the opinion of the department, properly performed its duties, which include minute observance of any one article of the code, the education department may, by mere administrative edict, put an end to the school board. If this were law, the school boards of the country would live with the sword of Damocles suspended over their heads. Since James II arbitrarily used corrupt and subservient judges to crush municipal liberty there has never been so sweeping a proposal. And even James's subservient judges were obliged to use the forms of law; but Sir John Gorst, armed with a little brief authority, proposes to hold the school boards of the country in the hollow of his hand. Such a régime is fitter for the meridian of Moscow than that of London; and can it be believed that Parliament will so treat recognized legal representative bodies, the chief complaint against whom is that they have done their work so well that denominational zeal can not compete with them?

Again, as evidence of the hostile attitude toward school boards, consider subsection 3 of section 12:

"The education department, on the application of the education authority, or of a school board, may, if they think fit, make an order transferring to the education authority for any county any school or department of a school within the county, maintained by a school board, and providing education which, in the opinion of the education department, is other than elementary."

Here, too, schools the property of a school board may be taken away from the existing owners against their will. The words are not "on the application of the education authority and of the school board," but either body may apply. There does not appear to be in the bill any clause compelling the new authority to continue to maintain such a school after it has been transferred. Not only may the education department rob the school board of a school, it may even rob it of a department of a school. There is no legal protection of a school board in any definition of what is elementary.

The existing education acts define an elementary school as one in which the main part of the instruction is elementary, thus recognizing that a part of the instruction may be more than elementary. If all the work in the standards be considered elementary, yet the code provides that scholars up to 14 years of age who have passed

the standards are still recognized, and the school receives the Parliamentary grant for them.

The free education act extended the age up to which the Parliamentary fee grant was to be paid to 15. This limit was granted at the instance, among others, of Mr. Chamberlain, who pleaded for the encouragement of the advanced instruction given in some schools. No doubt a technicality of the act, resulting from an amendment put in in the House of Lords, has prevented the full benefit being reaped from this enactment, but the hindrance was not intended or seen by the Government when they accepted the amendment, and they are honorably bound, and certainly Mr. Chamberlain is honorably bound, not to permit new legislation to recede from the principles recognized in the 1891. It can not be too much insisted on that classes beyond the standards which enable parents who are willing to keep their children at school up to 14 or 15 are not in any proper sense a part of secondary education, but merely a continuation and completion of primary education. The Bürger Schulen of Germany, which are elementary schools, give in their upper classes an education fully equal to what would be given in the best English elementary schools to the ex-VII scholars. In France, besides the Écoles primaries supérieures there are the "classes supplémentaires" in many ordinary primary schools. In England the growth of higher grade or upper standard schools has been recognized as supplying a want. These schools were approved by the majority of Lord Cross's commission. Sir W. Hart Dyke spoke warmly in their favor before the commission on secondary education, and warned Sir John Gorst against withdrawing them from the school boards in the debate on the first reading of the bill under consideration. These schools are year by year furnishing a better preparation for our pupil teachers, whom Sir John Gorst professes his wish to improve, and whose apprenticeship the new code proposes to shorten. If an attempt were made to dissociate these classes from the elementary schools, out of which they have sprung, the result would be that the great mass of the scholars who now prolong their schooling would cut short their education. They would not go to secondary schools, where they would encounter higher fees, in some cases social inconveniences, and in all cases the inconvenience of a break in the course of their studies. Leaving, as most of them do, at 14 or 14½, they would be presented with a truncated fragment of a new course of studies. Their ignorance of foreign languages would lead to their being placed in a class lower than they might be fit for on other accounts, and we should see a serious injury done to our elementary schools by their decapitation. Some of the teachers of the less good secondary schools are especially jealous of these upper standard board schools, and are anxious to keep down the elementary school lest its superior teaching efficiency should outweigh the social prestige on which these secondary teachers now rely for recruiting their scholars.

But the figures of the education department show that there has been no material increase in the age of scholars in the elementary schools; the proportion between 13 and 14 and over 14 to the whole of the population is almost constant. The improvement has come in the numbers between 11 and 12. These formerly were slipping away from school, owing to lax by-laws and low standards of exemption; but now the schools are stronger, not in the scholars who have passed all the standards and who are over 13, but in the scholars in the V, VI, and VII standards and those between 11 and 13. * * *

Where such an animus against school boards and in favor of private management and of denominational schools is manifest throughout the bill, it is natural that we should view with great suspicion the extreme vagueness with which the bill is drawn.

Section 2 is absolutely unmeaning as a definite operative enactment, but it suggests a bias to those who are to administer the act if it becomes law. "It shall be the duty of the education authority to supplement and not to supplant such existing organizations for educational purposes as for the time being supply efficient instruction." We are all familiar with this passage, quoted from the debates of 1870. We

know that the great powers conferred upon school boards were thought by Mr. Forster consistent with that statement. We know that he looked forward to the peaceful extension of school boards and the ultimate substitution of public for private management throughout the country. We know, too, how, though voluntary schools have doubled their accommodation and attendance since 1870, though they have been relieved of one obligation after another, though their contributions represent an insignificant part of the cost and in many cases have entirely disappeared, yet they go on repeating this phrase as if the practical working of the act of 1870 had been a violation of this pledge; and now, with every private interest fortified by this platitude, encouraged to go to the education department to oppose all progressive education, we can but consider the insertion of these words thoroughly mischievous. * * *

It is a singular mark of the spirit in which this bill has been drawn that none of the securities of the education act or of the technical education act are introduced into these proposals for the organization and public pecuniary support of secondary schools. And the absence of these securities makes the enactment of section 13 (1) the more dangerous, for by that section a local education authority may be forced to aid any school, however extreme in character, however unsuited to the locality; and under section 2 that school so aided may claim to keep out a more suitable school, even though the community desires it.

It should be remembered that in this bill for the first time there is a discrimination in public grants avowedly hostile to school boards. All voluntary schools are to receive an additional 4 shillings a head; a very small number of board schools are to receive a similar aid, and from that is to be deducted the aid they now receive. About 125 school boards would be eligible to receive the special grant, and it is evident that the total grant intended to be given to school boards is trifling, since the voluntary schools would receive about £470,000, and the total new grant is calculated at £500,000. A few considerations will show how unjust and wasteful this new grant is.

First of all, it is supposed to relieve local necessity. The words of the bill are, "for schools requiring special aid." Yet all voluntary schools are to receive it, no matter what their circumstances. There are more than a thousand voluntary schools with no voluntary subscriptions, and yet no obligation of any local effort is imposed before making this new contribution. In school-board districts there is a distinct security. There the new grant can only be paid in one of two cases: (1) Where a rate of 3 pence in the pound yields less than 7 shillings and 6 pence a head on the average attendance; (2) in small parishes, where a rate of 3 pence yields less than £20. If it is desirable to help poor districts still further, let the same rule be applied to voluntary schools—let them be required to show that they have raised 7 shillings and 6 pence a head by voluntary subscriptions, or that they have raised such a sum by voluntary subscription as a 3-penny rate would yield. If this were done it would at any rate be shown that the intention of the bill is to aid local effort. Again, this grant is to be paid to schools levying fees on the scholars. It is clear that the managers are not entitled to get further public aid where they contribute little or nothing, and continue to exact fees from the parents. The way in which difficulties are thrown in the way of parents desiring free education, both by the department and by local managers, shows that the free education act has by no means been made as effective as it should be.

The department reckons accommodation as available in Roman Catholic schools and in schools where buildings, equipment, and teaching are most unsuitable, and unless parents are willing to have their children forced into these schools, and possibly send them some distance from home, it is said that they must continue to pay fees, for they have no right to demand free schooling in the school most convenient to them. * * *

The bill does not enable the new county authority to call on rural boards to do more where their efforts and expenditure are insufficient. Its power is one only for restraint on expenditure, not for compelling further efficiency.

Why should the school board for London or Leeds or Liverpool be called on to satisfy the town council or county council that the requirements of education require increased expenditure? The school board is elected by the same persons; but at the election of the school board the electors had definitely before them the fact that they were choosing those who should manage their schools.

It is extremely probable that in the extreme desire to profess economy which characterizes most municipal bodies, and having regard to the prominent place that the rate of expenditure occupies in the discussions at municipal elections, a town council will always seek to get forgiveness and oblivion for any sins it may have committed by parading the fact that it has refused permission to the school board to spend beyond its limit. Suppose it were the other way, and any special expenditure on parks, recreation grounds, public baths, electric lighting, or any of the various forms of expenditure which arise in municipal life were submitted to the school board for approval! The proposal would be ridiculous, but not more ridiculous than to let these local authorities, engrossed in sewage and paving, judge of the propriety of an expenditure which sets pupil teachers free from teaching during half their time in order that they may have more time for study.

If reason and precedent were to determine political questions, this enslavement of mind to matter would not move our apprehension; but the danger is serious, in the face of the large majority which the country, to save its political unity, gave to Lord Salisbury, and which he and the Duke of Devonshire seem about to use as fraudulent trustees for an alien purpose; in face also of the certain action of the mass of the Irish members, who have already destroyed the Liberal party, who have gone near to destroying the Parliamentary constitution of our country, and who now, in alliance with clerical Anglicans and all who hate the growth of education, bid fair to destroy the system of public school management which was slowly making its way in the country and was fatal to their exclusive claims. So dangerous a conspiracy against freedom and light may win, but not, it is hoped, till every true Liberal has fought his utmost in opposition, and not without leaving an earnest and intense determination to keep on rousing the nation till they shall realize what it means to leave to private and irresponsible hands the education of their children, which should be their first duty and under their direct control.

There are some other points that need noticing in the bill, equally bad in principle, equally impractical in application.

As to the rating of schools. Henceforward the rates on all schools are to be paid by the overseers in rural nonschool-board districts out of the union rate; in school-board districts from the school-board area. Thus, the inhabitants of a school-board parish will pay the rates for the benefit of the whole union. The nonschool-board parishes will have their school directly subsidized from the rates of the union, to which parishes having a board school will pay in addition to the rate on their own schools. At present voluntary schools are generally rated at nominal sums, but they will now get substantial aid from the ratepayers. This will certainly be an additional reason why the ratepayers should be represented on the management.

In London rates will continue to be paid on board schools and levied over the whole area of London; and similarly the whole area of London will pay the local rates on the church schools. No precaution is even taken that the schools whose rates are paid are held in trust for public education, or that rent is not received for them. * * *

There is another equally wild and wasteful proposal in section 26—that guardians may contribute to the expense of providing, enlarging, or maintaining a school if the expense has been incurred wholly or partly on account of children sent from a workhouse or boarded out. If there is need of further school accommodation in a district where the workhouse is situate, whether from the closing of a workhouse school or from any other cause, a school board can be, and by law should be, formed, and the workhouse will be rated and the property in the parish will be rated. No doubt it might be well to make the poor-law union the area for school-board purposes, in which case the whole area benefiting would contribute.

But this cause would enable guardians in a large town to pay for enlarging or building a school in some parish where they board out children. But a year afterwards the local committee may break up, the boarded-out children may be transferred elsewhere, and yet the guardians may have permanently contributed to the enlargement of this school which they will no longer use. Or Dr. Barnado may swoop down and outbid the guardians and capture all the houses which they used to use; and so, too, they may lose the benefit of the school to which they will have contributed. The further power for guardians to subscribe to the maintenance of such a school is also most objectionable, and raises at once the question of rate aid for the maintenance of privately managed schools. This clause, like nearly every clause in the bill, is full of reckless legislation, drawn apparently by those who had one aim, and one only, in view—how to subsidize and prop up private schools, how to stop any further school boards, and suppress those that exist.

In reference to the audit of voluntary school accounts clause 5 provides at last for what has been long required. Security should also be taken, in accordance with the act of 1870, for full publicity of all school reports and accounts. The recent restriction on publicity introduced by the new code shows that the education department is ready to take away the right of access to these reports which now exists. Moreover, in dealing with voluntary schools greater care will have to be taken to put down the various forms of fraud now practiced, and which, when the education department detects, it does not take any adequate steps to punish. Thus, receipts are sometimes given for more salary than has been received; to balance this a fictitious subscription is entered, and so the school gets credit for a larger subscription and so has defeated the restrictions of the 17s. 6d. limit. * * *

The new county authority is to have the power to aid training colleges. Nothing is more deplorable than the way in which the education department ever since 1870 has shirked the important duty of seeing that there was provided an adequate supply of properly trained teachers to meet the enormous growth of our elementary schools. But the jealousy of denominational training colleges still stopped the way, and it is only quite recently that some slight addition has been made by means of day colleges associated with local university colleges. We want at least twice as much training college provision as we have now to get back even to the proportion of trained teachers that existed before 1870. But, in addition to certificated teachers, our schools are flooded with ex-pupil teachers and women over 18, of whom a very experienced inspector said that the only educational qualification which they certainly possessed was that of being over 18.

What is needed is that the new authorities for higher education should be enabled not only to aid but to establish training colleges. Probably two or three county authorities should combine for this purpose, as a good college requires a sufficient number of students. It is to be hoped that, when there are more opportunities of training, the course may be lengthened to three years.

Section 19 fixes the maximum national contribution in each school to elementary education in future.

It may be noticed that this is slightly below what a good school should receive now, apart from any grant for specific subjects or for pupil teachers.

Thus, no school started hereafter can get more than 20 shillings for senior scholars and 17 shillings for infant scholars. At present a good senior department easily gets from 21 to 22 or 23 shillings in the case of a department limited to upper standards, and many girls' schools earn an additional shilling for needlework. No doubt it has been a bad thing to stimulate the teaching of a large number of subjects for the sake of special grants. Yet it is to be feared that this new limitation of the grant, especially coupled with the new limit in school maintenance, will induce many school boards to set before them a lower type of teacher and of teaching as all that they can afford to secure. Anyone who has followed the policy of several even among the larger boards (it were invidious to name them in this article) could point to school boards where this regulation will distinctly lower the teaching. It will—to

use the exulting phrase of a leading Roman Catholic—clip the wings and claws of the school boards; and the bill is meant to do so. * * *

It is obvious that the working of section 3 along with section 19 must tend to put all schools, good or bad alike, on a dead level as far as regards Government grant, with this important reservation, that whereas the board schools from their superior efficiency have hitherto received more than the voluntary schools, henceforward the voluntary schools are to receive 4 shillings a head more than the board schools.

The effect of the two clauses together will be that in a town like Birmingham the superior efficiency of the board schools hitherto will have obtained a credit for the town with the education department, whereby, while the grants to the board schools will be cut down, the grants to the voluntary schools will be largely augmented.

As to the repeal of the 17 shillings and 6 pence limit, it need only be repeated that if no new obligation to find some definite proportion of the cost from bona fide voluntary contributions be introduced, we shall rapidly pass to a state of things where, in many parishes the community will find all the money, parents of all opinion will be forced to send their children, and the clergy of one denomination will have the whole management.

Section 27: This section introduces a serious innovation. School boards must make reasonable arrangements for any kind of dogmatic teaching in their schools and so must other managers. The education department is sole judge of what is reasonable. May that department rule that the appointment of teachers of the religious opinion to be taught and the requiring them to give the instruction is reasonable, or must the teaching necessarily be given by outsiders? If the latter, there might not be much objection to the arrangement if it were part of a scheme that provided universally for schools under public local management, but what is wanted is not to break up the school into a group of conventicles, but to secure that the local majority of parents shall obtain teachers and management which have their confidence. There are many rural parishes where the majority of the children attending the church school are Dissenters, and yet in such a school the clergyman may advertise for and require a strong churchman, a fasting communicant, one who will attend the daily service.

The advertisements that appear in the Church scholastic newspaper are most exacting in their requirements, and often the reticence of the advertisement is supplemented by searching private inquiries. The Roman Catholic says that in his school he requires the whole atmosphere throughout the school time to be penetrated with Catholicism. Schools for minorities such as the Roman Catholics are nearly always in populous centers and supplement the general schools of the nation. But what should be demanded is that the nation should come first and the sects should take the second place. Let us enfranchise the schoolmaster and the school by making them the public servants of a wide local community, not the dependents of the clergy of any one denomination, with ecclesiastical duties first in the estimation of their clerical employer, while their public and lay usefulness takes the second place. * * *

The writer is well assured that never have proposals been made more thoroughly reactionary, more hostile to education and to public self-government, more favorable to private, autocratic, and clerical domination than those which pervade this bill.

The trifling proposal to raise the age of half-time exemption from 11 to 12 was one which all parties were agreed to last year, and which can not be taken as a concession to bribe us to agree to the body of the bill.

As to what concerns secondary education, the proposals are obscure, indefinite and imperfect. The great question of secondary education should be treated in a separate act, and not mixed up with the intensely polemical matters which form the bulk of the bill now under consideration.

If the English working people allow themselves to be robbed of the national system which was slowly establishing itself among them, and was doing so much for their children, they will put back for years the date of their full intellectual and social enfranchisement.

CHAPTER III.

EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.[1]

Great Britain and Ireland, constitutional monarchy; area, England and Wales, 58,186 square miles; population (estimated, 1894), 30,060,763; Scotland, 29,820 square miles; population, 4,123,038; Ireland, 32,583 square miles; population (census, 1891), 4,704,750.

For previous articles on education in Great Britain, see the following:

Detailed view of the educational system of England. (Report for 1888–89, Vol. I, pp. 78–111.)

Religious and moral training in public elementary schools, England and Wales. (Ibid., pp. 438–457.)

Brief view of the educational system, with current statistics. (Report for 1889–90, Vol. I, pp. 237–248.)

Educational system of Scotland. (Ibid., pp. 187–236.)

Elementary education in London and Paris. (Ibid., pp. 263–280.)

Brief view of systems of England and Scotland, with current statistics and comparison with 1876 (England), 1880 (Scotland). (Report for 1890–91, Vol. I, pp. 125–134.)

Provision for secondary and for technical instruction in Great Britain. (Ibid., pp. 135–150.)

Educational system of Ireland. (Ibid., pp. 151–164.)

Elementary education in Great Britain and Ireland, 1892. (Report for 1891–92, Vol. I, pp. 97–104.)

Technical instruction in Great Britain. (Ibid., pp. 105–137.)

Elementary education in Great Britain. (Report for 1892–93, Vol. I, pp. 203–208.)

Religious instruction under the London school board. (Report for 1892–93, Vol. I, pp. 208–218.)

Great Britain and Ireland, educational statistics and movements, 1893. (Report for 1893–94, Part I, pp. 165–185.)

Educational systems of England and Scotland, with statistics and movements, 1893–94. (Report for 1894–95, Vol. I, pp. 257–273.)

The official reports of elementary education in Great Britain and Ireland for 1895–96 have been already submitted to Parliament, but have not yet reached this office. The principal statistics, here tabulated have been obtained from various official statements. A very graphic survey of the English field was presented by the vice-president of the education department, Sir John Gorst, in submitting to the House his estimates for 1896–97. His speech is reproduced in this chapter, supplemented by that of Mr. Yoxall, who has long been identified with

[1] Prepared by Miss Anna Tolman Smith.

educational work, and who was elected as a member from Nottingham to represent the interests of elementary education in the House.

The matter is introduced by a concise view of the system from an English source,[1] with detailed tables reproduced from the Schoolmaster.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of educational statistics—Great Britain and Ireland.*

Sources of information.	Institution.	Date of report.	Registered students or pupils.	Professors or teachers.	Expenditure.
	Great Britain, England and Wales.				
Statesman's Year-Book, 1896.	Universities:				
	Oxford (23 colleges)	1895	*a* 3,256	93	
	Cambridge (19 colleges)	1895	2,839	107	
	Durham (1 college)	1895	171	13	
	Detached colleges (15)	1895	*b* 11,778	757	
	University colleges for women (4).	1895	379		
	Bedford college for women	1895	190		
Official report	Elementary day schools	1895	5,325,858	121,244	
	Night schools		270,285		$945,650
	Training colleges for elementary teachers.		4,296		
	Scotland.				
Statesman's Year-Book, 1896.	Universities:				
	Aberdeen (1 college)	1895	*c* 691	49	
	Edinburgh (1 college)	1895	*d* 2,836	98	
	Glasgow (1 college)	1895	*e* 1,842	99	
	St. Andrews (2 colleges)	1895	*f* 204	28	
	Dundee University college	1895	107	19	
Official report	Elementary day schools	1895	692,202	15,023	7,098,350
	Night schools	1895	45,487	87	
	Training colleges for elementary teachers.				
	Ireland.				
Statesman's Year-Book, 1896.	Universities:				
	Dublin University (1 college)	1895	1,123	64	
	Belfast Queen's College	1895	353	20	
	Cork Queen's College	1895	224	26	
	Galway Queen's College	1895	108	23	
Official report	Elementary day schools	1895	*g* 826,046	11,793	
	Training colleges for elementary teachers.	1894	688		
Official report, 1895-96.	Department of science and art:				
	Science schools and classes	1895	*h* 188,380		*i* 3,727,350
	Art schools and classes	1895	*h* 136,768		

a Undergraduates.
b Includes 902 women.
c Includes 35 women.
d Includes 162 women.
e Includes 245 women.
f Includes 32 women.
g Average enrolment.
h In addition to pupils in elementary schools receiving grants from the department.
i Total expenditure by department of science and art.

The entire province of secondary instruction is omitted from the above table, as no summaries for this department are attainable. Recent estimates place the number of pupils pursuing secondary studies in England and Wales at 890,000, including the 90,000 pupils in higher board schools. In Scotland 73 secondary schools (i. e., 30 public high schools, 24 endowed schools, and 19 private schools) have submitted to the scheme of Government inspection. The number presenting candidates for the Government "leaving certificate" in 1894 was 270, and the

[1] A digest of the new education bill with historical introduction, etc. Knight & Co., London.

number of candidates 13,173. The intermediate education board of Ireland, a public examining body, reports 7,682 students (5,816 boys and 1,866 girls) as coming up for examination in 1894.

THE ENGLISH SYSTEM.

At the present time the educational system of England may be thus briefly outlined:

(1) School boards have jurisdiction over nearly 20,000,000 of the population of England and Wales, and school attendance committees over 10,000,000. The former bodies have power to provide school accommodation where there is a deficiency of seats in their district, while the powers of the latter are limited entirely to the administration of the law as to children's labor and school attendance.

(2) The voluntary managers have provided and maintained three-fifths of the elementary school accommodation of the country.

(3) While the school boards have power to build and maintain their schools on the security of their local rates, the voluntary schools rely on their endowments and subscriptions for such building and maintenance.

(4) While in the voluntary schools religious teaching in accordance with the distinctive doctrines of the denominations which established them may be given, at regulated times and subject to the right of withdrawal of all children whose parents do not desire it for them, in a school board school no religious teaching or religious formulary which is distinctive of a particular denomination may be given.

(5) The grants last year amounted in day schools to £4,137,713 ($20,688,565). The average expenditure per scholar is slightly over £2 ($10); in board schools it is £2 10s. ($12.50), and the average rate of grant per head toward this expenditure is 18s. 6d. ($4.62½).

The following detailed tables, relating to England and Wales, are reproduced, with explanatory comments, from the Schoolmaster of April 25, 1896:

TABLE 2.—*Classified view of schools and scholars.*

Denominations.	Number of schools, i. e., institutions, under separate management.	Number of departments in which separate head teachers are employed.					Number of scholars for whom accommodation is provided.	Number of scholars on the roll.	Average number of scholars in attendance.
		Boys.	Girls.	Mixed.	Infants.	Total.			
Schools connected with National Society or Church of England ..	11,834	1,866	1,701	9,419	3,531	16,517	2,707,780	2,278,729	1,854,619
Wesleyan schools	480	34	28	445	246	753	189,955	162,057	130,203
Roman Catholic schools.	994	241	227	744	481	1,693	367,344	285,232	230,893
British, undenominational, and other schools	1,176	181	142	930	409	1,662	355,726	289,587	235,768
School board schools ...	5,316	1,809	1,747	3,372	2,824	9,752	2,345,467	2,310,253	1,894,943
Total, 1895.....	19,800	4,131	3,845	14,910	7,491	30,377	5,966,272	5,325,858	4,346,426
Total, 1890.....	19,498	4,218	3,829	14,560	6,861	29,468	5,566,507	4,825,560	3,732,327

TABLE 3.—*Subjects of instruction other than the three elementary branches.*

Denominations.	Number of departments in which singing is taught.				Number of schools in which instruction is given to deaf or blind scholars.	Number of schools to scholars in which instruction has been given in—			
	By ear.	Staff notation.	Tonic sol-fa.	On both or any other system.		Drawing (older scholars).	Manual instruction.	Science.	Physical exercises.
Church schools	5,447	1,824	9,087	108	.....	10,824	220	138	1,570
Wesleyan schools	88	14	650	1	.....	474	27	24	68
Roman Catholic schools	460	217	1,004	4	.....	925	21	7	139
British schools	371	63	1,214	5	.....	1,068	51	33	162
Board schools	1,526	233	7,799	79	28	4,854	630	430	1,246
Total, 1895	7,892	2,351	19,754	197	28	18,145	949	632	3,185
Total, 1890	13,054	2,244	13,893	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Denominations.	Number of schools in which boys have been taught military drill.	Number of schools in which girls have been taught—				Number of schools, in which have been established—	
		In cookery classes.	Laundry work.	Dairy work.	Housewifery.	Savings banks.	School libraries.
Church schools	573	808	27	1	2	5,200	3,927
Wesleyan schools	38	81	.....	.....	.....	160	127
Roman Catholic schools	80	105	6	.....	.....	249	325
British schools	96	152	8	.....	.....	396	315
Board schools	785	1,629	376	.....	2	2,405	1,687
Total, 1895	1,572	2,775	411	1	4	8,410	6,381
Total, 1890	1,414	1,554	.....	.....	.....	2,498	4,401

CLASS AND SPECIFIC SUBJECTS.[1]

In connection with class subjects, it will be seen from the next table that while English is gradually being discarded, elementary science and history are increasing in favor. Geography, too, shows slight signs of a growing popularity. Needlework as a class subject does not vary much. Probably in a few years' time, when object lessons have been universally adopted, this table will undergo considerable changes.

Subject.	Number of departments taking up as a class subject.	
	1890.	1895.
English	20,304	16,280
Geography	12,367	15,702
Elementary science	32	1,712
History	414	3,597
Needlework	7,758	7,396

Coming to specifics, we note first of all the leaps and bounds which "shorthand" has made in popularity as a specific subject. Amongst the other subjects, algebra, mechanics, and physiology, and domestic economy apparently are making the greatest headway. Latin, for the first time for several years, shows a slight increase.

[1] Under these heads provision is made for subjects above the elements.

Specific subjects.

Pupils examined in—	1890.	1895.
Algebra	30,035	38,237
Euclid	977	1,468
Mensuration		5,614
Mechanics	11,662	23,806
Latin	360	250
French or German	7,232	12,859
Physiology	15,842	17,003
Botany	1,830	2,483
Agriculture	1,228	1,196
Chemistry	2,007	3,850
Sound, light, and heat	1,183	914
Magnetism and electricity	2,293	3,198
Domestic economy	23,094	36,239
Shorthand	611	10,332
Other subjects [1]		4,654

[1] Bookkeeping, geology, elementary science, history, hygiene, fruit culture, natural philosophy, navigation, practical mechanics, social economy, and Welsh.

TABLE 4.—*Comparative view of free vs. paying pupils.*

The figures for this year show that although the rate of increase is not so rapid as in the years immediately following the passage of the law for the remission of fees (1891), still the time is not distant when few children in primary schools will pay fees, and where fees are paid it is noticeable that the majority pay a penny per week or less. Not one child in one hundred and fifty pays more than 1 penny per week. But this growth of free education can easily be seen from the table.

Year.	Number of schools.			
	Free.	Paying fees.	Paying not more than 1 penny per week.	Paying more than 1 penny per week.
1895	4,519,159	780,310	459,567	320,743
1894	4,377,741	821,000	485,312	335,688
1893	4,236,867	889,506	523,686	365,826
1892	3,880,622	1,124,732	519,191	605,641

TABLE 5.—*Effects of the law for the remission of fees.*

In looking at the increase in our school population, it is well to examine how far the almost entire abolition of fees has affected the attendance. We notice, as the next table will indicate, that there has been an increase in the percentage of attendance, and also in number of children who attend school after reaching the age of 10. This year, however, does not show any very great strides in either direction. It must not be overlooked, though, that an increase in percentage of attendance of one-tenth means an additional 5,000 children.

	During year previous to passing of free-education act.	First year of working of free-education act.	Second year of working of free-education act.	Third year of working of free-education act.	Fourth year of working of free-education act (1895).
Increase in numbers on the rolls, per cent	.160	4.22	2.3	1.5	1.7
Increase in average attendance, per cent	.593	3.68	5.66	3.2	2.1
Actual number of attendances made per hundred of possible attendances, per cent	77.679	77.281	79.555	81.3	81.6
Actual number of children attending school over 10 years of age	1,622,056	1,682,600	1,758,597	1,807,926	1,877,276
Children attending over 10....per cent	33.4	33.5	34.1	34.5	35.2

TABLE 6.—*Adult teachers, number, grade, and training.*

Denominations.	Certified teachers (teachers having Government diplomas).								Assistant teachers.		Additional teachers.
	Noncollegiate (not trained in normal colleges).				College (normal school) trained.		Total.				
	Provisionally certificated, in charge of schools.		Certificated.								
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	
Church schools	4	96	2,923	6,857	5,764	5,376	8,691	12,329	2,123	9,645	7,416
Wesleyan schools	.....	2	136	335	448	194	584	531	152	749	290
Roman Catholic schools	.....	5	78	994	292	998	370	1,997	105	1,440	1,122
British schools	2	12	455	872	740	412	1,197	1,296	315	1,301	659
Board schools	1	26	2,601	6,903	7,779	8,636	10,381	15,565	2,352	9,779	2,191
Total, 1895	7	141	6,193	15,961	15,023	15,616	21,223	31,718	5,047	22,914	11,678
							52,941		27,961		
Total, 1890	30	206	5,904	14,756	12,770	12,873	18,704	27,835	5,254	16,530	5,210
							46,539		21,784		

To the totals above given, 92,580 in 1895 (73,533 in 1890), should be added the number of pupil teachers, 28,664 in 1895 (29,610 in 1890), giving as grand totals 121,244 in 1895 (103,143 in 1890).

TABLE 7.—*Average salaries of certificated teachers.*

Denominations.	Masters.						Mistresses.					
	Head.						Head.					
	Average salaries (including all professional sources of income).		Number provided with house or rent free.	Class average salaries (including all professional sources of income).		Total average salaries.	Average salaries (including all professional sources of income).		Number provided with house or rent free.	Class average salaries (including all professional sources of income).		Total average salaries.
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.	£ s. d.	£	s. d.		£	s. d.	£ s. d.
Church schools	121	4 3	4,256	74	19 6	114 0 10	75	10 5	3,616	52	6 3	69 19 10
Wesleyan schools	170	13 6	63	84	12 2	150 3 6	86	13 0	2	54	1 9	73 3 9
Roman Catholic schools	117	3 3	28	79	1 7	105 3 3	66	14 4	315	52	12 5	62 17 2
British schools	143	16 1	252	92	12 3	130 6 0	81	5 9	152	57	1 3	72 0 3
Board schools	162	11 0	1,423	103	6 4	127 2 11	114	4 3	478	81	14 6	93 4 5
Total, 1895	137	16 10	6,022	97	13 0	122 6 7	87	11 9	4,563	73	7 0	81 3 3
Total, 1890	134	2 6	5,332	89	17 2	119 18 5	82	17 5	4,501	66	1 9	76 0 5

TABLE 8.—*Annual expenditure and Parliamentary grant in board and voluntary schools at specified dates.*

Year.	Average cost per child in average attendance.		Average annual grant paid per child in average attendance.	
	Voluntary schools.	Board schools.	Voluntary schools.	Board schools.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1869	1 5 5	.....	9 7	.....
1870	1 5 5	.....	9 9½	.....
1880	1 14 7¾	2 1 11½	15 5	15 7¾
1890	1 16 11½	2 5 11½	17 6¼	18 5⅝
1891	1 17 8	2 7 1¾	18 0¼	18 9¼
1892	1 17 9¼	2 8 4¾	18 0¾	18 11
1893	1 17 6¼	2 8 1⅛	18 1⅛	18 11¼
1894	1 18 1¾	2 8 9¾	18 2¼	19 1¾

Prior to 1876 the amount of the Government grant to a school could not exceed the amount raised locally. The law passed that year provided that the grant might exceed the local income but should not be more than 17s. 6d. per capita without corresponding increase in the local funds. In view of the proposal to abolish this limit it has been declared that voluntary subscriptions declined as a consequence of the liberal Government provisions of 1876. The following table shows in fact that a reduction in the per capita of voluntary subscriptions did follow that change:

TABLE 9.—*Sources of income of denominational schools, with the cost and amount from each source per capita of attendance.*

DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

Year.	Cost.	Grant.	School fees.	Subscriptions.	Fee grants.
	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1869	1 5 5	9 7	8 4	7 3¼	.....
1870	1 5 5	9 9½	8 4½	6 11¾	.....
1871	1 5 6¾	10 1¾	8 4¾	6 9¾	.....
1872	1 7 5	11 10	8 9½	7 3	.....
1873	1 9 11¾	12 3½	9 5½	7 7¼	.....
1874	1 10 10½	12 5	10 5¾	7 9	.....
1875	1 11 10½	12 9¼	10 1¾	8 1¾	.....
1876	1 13 5¼	13 3¾	10 6¼	8 8½	.....
1877	1 13 9	14 4	10 8½	8 8¾	.....
1878	1 14 0	15 2	10 8¾	8 1¾	.....
1879	1 14 6	15 3¼	10 10	7 8¼	.....
1880	1 14 7¾	15 5	10 9¾	7 3	.....
1881	1 14 11½	15 7¾	11 0¼	7 1	.....
1882	1 14 6¾	15 9	11 0	6 10½	.....
1883	1 14 10¼	15 11	11 1	6 8¾	.....
1884	1 15 2	16 4¾	11 2	6 8½	.....
1885	1 15 9½	16 8½	11 2¾	6 7¾	.....
1886	1 16 4½	16 10½	11 2¼	6 9	.....
1887	1 16 4½	17 0½	11 1¾	6 7¾	.....
1888	1 16 4	17 1¾	11 0¾	6 7¾	.....
1889	1 16 4½	17 4¾	11 1½	6 7½	.....
1890	1 16 11½	17 6¼	11 2¾	6 7½	.....
1891	1 17 8	18 0½	11 3½	6 10½	.....
1892	1 17 9½	18 0¾	7 3½	6 10¾	2 9½
1893	1 17 6¼	18 1½	2 4½	6 8½	8 6
1894	1 18 1¾	18 2¼	2 0¾	6 6¼	10 1

On the vote for £4,162,232 ($20,811,160) to complete the sum of £7,122,213 ($35,611,065) necessary for public elementary education in England and Wales, including the expenses of the education office in London, Sir J. Gorst (Cambridge University) said:

THE INCREASED ESTIMATE AND THE REASONS FOR IT.

The expenditure during the past year exceeded the expenditure of the year before by £275,000. It was greater than had been expected, and a supplementary estimate had to be taken to meet the excess. The increased expenditure was well spread over all the principal items. I do not know that there is anything in the increased expenditure to call for special mention, except that it indicates the continued progress of education in the country. There is an increase in the numbers on the books, an increase in the average attendance of those on the books, and an increase in the grants that the children earn. In the coming year we have only estimated for an increase of £186,000. That is partly due to the fact that the stimulus given to education by the act of 1891 is gradually becoming exhausted, and the progress in all parts of education, which still goes on, is the normal increase due to the increase in the population and the wealth of the country. This increase of £186,000 is again spread over every item of expenditure. The cost of inspection has increased chiefly because the evening schools are just now making great progress, and because the new system of making two surprise visits a year, instead of the regular inspection

formerly made once a year, has increased the inspectors' traveling expenses. The decrease of £3,645 in the charges for pensions which appears on the estimates is apparent and not real. In previous years £6,710 had to be provided in order to defray the temporary cost of the exchange from half-yearly to quarterly payments, and, so far from there being a diminution in the charge for pensions, there is really an increase of £3,065, and an increase in the number of pensions given of 129. Another cause of the increase in the expenditure is the increased payments which will have to be made to school boards under the ninety-seventh section of the act of 1870,[1] a section which was very much discussed in our education debates. The effect of that discussion was to reveal to some school boards rights to grants out of the consolidated fund, which they had previously overlooked. The consequence will be that every school board which is entitled to such a grant will make a demand for it, which we calculate will take £8,850, and even that may prove too small a sum.

INCREASE IN SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN DAY AND NIGHT SCHOOLS.

But the great increase in expenditure this year, as in other years, is due to the increase in the grants made to day scholars. The increase we anticipate this year is 70,000 in average attendance, a penny increase in the rate of the grant earned, and an increase in the amount which has been charged on the consolidated fund for that purpose of £86,000. Since 1891, when the last education act was passed, the increase in average attendance is as follows: In 1891 the increase was only 0.86 per cent, the normal increase; in 1892 it sprang up to 3.22; in 1893, to 5.92; in 1894 it sank to 3.47; in 1895, to 2.3; and this year, we anticipate, to 2.2; so that, although the increase has become less rapid, it has not yet gone down to the normal rate of 1890. Then there is an increase in the fee grant of £48,500. There is also a satisfactory increase in the charges for evening schools. In 1893, when the evening school code was first introduced, there were 1,977 evening schools and 115,000 scholars. Now there are 3,421 evening schools and 270,000 scholars; so that, while the evening schools have doubled, the scholars have more than doubled.

SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND AND DEAF.

The schools for the blind and deaf also show an increase. In 1895 there were 79 schools certified with accommodations for 4,130 children, and there was an actual grant made that year out of the consolidated fund in respect of 3,148 children. This grant is 3 guineas a year for every deaf and dumb child receiving an elementary education, and an additional 2 guineas for every child who receives manual instruction or industrial training. The whole of the 3,148 children in 1895 received the grant for elementary instruction, but only 1,934 obtained the grant for industrial training, so that the average grant per child that year was £3 8s. For the current year we estimate that the grant will be for 3,148 children, being an average of £3 10s. 9d. per child.

CONCERNING COOKERY AND LAUNDRY WORK.

Cooking and laundry instruction in the elementary schools is, on the whole, making satisfactory progress. The number of girls taught cookery in the past year was 135,000, an increase of nearly 13,000 during the year. Looking to the fact that there are more than half a million of girls attending elementary schools in England and Wales who are qualified to be taught cookery, it is evident that there is considerable room for expansion in the teaching of that subject, and it is to be hoped that the progress will go on with accelerated rapidity in the years to come. The teaching of laundry work in the elementary schools has only gone on for four or five years. In the last year the advance in the number of girls to whom grants were made was very extraordinary. It was 62 per cent over the number in the year before. In 1891,

[1] Providing for special aid in exceptional cases.

when the grant for laundry work was first made, the number of girls was 632; in 1892 it was 2,766; in 1893 it was 5,640; in 1894 it was 7,338, and in 1895 it was 11,720; so that the teaching of laundry work is only beginning. It has already made such progress that we may anticipate a great increase in the number of girls taught in the course of the next few years.

THE SUPPLY AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

I do not think that, in regard to the supply of teachers, we are making that progress we all desire. There will be in the present year an increase of £36,000 for training colleges. But this increase is really only an apparent increase. There is a temporary reduction in the estimate for 1895–96 owing to the change in the academical year from December 31 to June 30, and therefore the increase in the grant to training colleges is apparent only, and not real. I wish we could see our way to a very great increase in the expenditure upon the training of teachers. At present there are 43 residential colleges, and these are attended by 1,384 men and 2,100 women. Besides these, there are 14 day training colleges, attended by 385 men and 426 women. Taking these colleges together, the whole number of teachers they had in training was 4,296, and they turned out annually teachers who are qualified to take charge of schools to the number of about 2,100. This number is quite insufficient to meet the requirements of the existing schools, and if the wishes of the Government were carried out, and the education in all the voluntary schools of the country and the poor board schools made more efficient, the number of teachers turned out would be lamentably deficient.

THE INTRODUCTION OF THE UNQUALIFIED PRACTITIONER.

I have no doubt that in the course of the discussion upon this vote I shall be taken to task by honorable members, perhaps on both sides of the House, for the failure of the provisions of the code to secure that every teacher is a properly qualified teacher. I will not anticipate my answer to those objections further than to say that we could not get properly certificated and qualified teachers, and that we had to take those we could get. It is most desirable that some provision should be made early to secure a very much greater increase in the number of efficient teachers for our schools, especially if we are to make some progress in the efficiency of our elementary education. I may be told that the account I have given to the committee is a very sanguine one, but the committee must recollect that I have been talking only of the averages, of the result of the summing up of the educational proceedings of all the schools in England and Wales. And when you look at it in the aggregate it is a very satisfactory progress, and one for which we have reason to be thankful. But this does not in the least contradict what I stated to the House in the early days of the session, and it would be a very great mistake if the committee were to run away with the idea that because things in the gross are very satisfactory there is therefore no room for any reform in large classes of schools in this country.

INEFFICIENT BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT.

Notwithstanding this excellent total, there are many schools in the country, both board and voluntary schools, in which it is impossible to say that the education is efficient or satisfactory. There are voluntary school managers who have not got the means to provide that standard of teaching which it is desirable should be secured for the children of the people; there are managers of voluntary schools in many of our great cities who are quite unable, from lack of means, to bring up the standard of teaching in their schools to the same level which is attained in the board schools in their immediate neighborhood, and which have the advantage of support out of the rates. And there are many school boards, some in country districts, where they care very little for education, and where the conduct of their small village schools is exceedingly unsatisfactory and leaves very much to be desired. There are also many school boards

in large and populous centers who have efficient schools and who do their utmost to keep their schools efficient, but who, owing to the small ratable value of their areas as compared with the enormous number of children they have to educate, have a strain put upon them which is almost intolerable, and under which there is every probability that, unless Parliament does something to relieve it, they will be entirely broken down.

TIMELY WARNING—"OUR RIVALS IN FRANCE AND GERMANY AND THE STATES."

Therefore I hope the committee will not go away with any idea that in what I have now said I intend to unsay what I said in the earlier part of the session as to the urgent necessity which we are under if we intend our education to advance and if we wish to give to the children an education anything like that which is being given by our rivals in France and Germany and the States. If we mean to keep to the general level and not to fall behind the general level of education which is now given in the civilized world, I solemnly warn the committee that there is a great deal to be done, and a great deal that administration alone can not do. The wisdom of Parliament must be applied to this problem, and I wish I could think it could be applied not in a party spirit, but with a sincere desire, in all quarters of the House, to promote education.

THE STATE AND RURAL EDUCATION.

Mr. YOXALL congratulated the vice-president upon the tone of his remarks, and echoed his aspiration that this question of education would be treated in future not as a party, but as a national, question. He quite agreed that there were many schools in the country, both voluntary and board schools, which sadly required the provision of further funds. But he wanted to say a few words more, especially upon the position of rural schools. He did not care very much whether they were rural board or rural voluntary schools—they were much in the same class—and he would point out that the rural schools of England and Wales were, taken as a whole, the worst supported, the worst staffed, and the worst managed of the public elementary schools in Europe. They lacked means, they lacked teachers, and they lacked proper government and proper supervision. It was quite a common thing—and this was probably true of 6,000 or 7,000 schools in the villages of this country—to find in a school one adult teacher only with the charge of six and sometimes seven different classes, and teaching in something like sixteen or seventeen different subjects. That was a system which was bad educationally, bad nationally, and bad economically. The great need of the country schools was more staff; but he warned the committee, and he would warn the vice-president if he thought he needed the warning, that they could not expect these schools to have more staff and better support upon a maximum income in the case of voluntary schools of 33 shillings per scholar per year and in the case of board schools of 49 shillings. If the education department were to realize the wishes of the vice-president, if the committee were to assent to continued, to real progress in their educational affairs, the committee would have to vote a very much larger outlay upon education than had been the case hitherto.

EXPENDITURES ON EDUCATION.

The demand for further expenditure upon education was not a popular idea to put forward, but he would point out that this year they were spending upon the army and navy at the rate of 30 shillings per head of the population, while upon education they were only spending at the rate of 7 shillings per head. Thirty shillings on ships and sailors; 7 shillings on schools and scholars! He submitted that 7 shillings per head of the population upon public education was not an extravagant outlay. In other countries they did not consider that outlay at all sufficient. The average expenditure upon maintenance of board schools in England and Wales last year was 48s. 9d. per child. In the case of voluntary schools it was 36s. 1d. per child.

In Scotland they spent more than that, while in Germany, France, Belgium, and Switzerland their rates of expenditure were also higher. In the United States, too, they found that after allowing for all differences between the cost of maintenance in the two countries, the sums expended on education were far in excess of what they spent here. Whereas the expenditure in London per child for public education might go up as far as 50 shillings, in New York it went up as high as £5 per child, and in Boston it went up even higher. He did not suggest that they should at one leap go so far as that; but he did suggest it was the duty of the House and of the education department not to stint the expenditure year by year. The expenditure of money on public elementary and secondary education, but especially elementary education, was a good national investment. The effect of the working of the education acts in the last twenty-five years had been to decrease pauperism, and to deplete the gaols, and to raze prisons to the ground, and to reduce the amount of drunkenness. A board school scholar cost the country 48 shillings a year, a pauper cost £15 a year, an ordinary prisoner cost £25 a year, and a convict cost £40 a year. So the money spent on education was well spent.

THE FOOTNOTE TO ARTICLE 73.

He wished to thank the vice-president of the council for giving effect to several promises made last year. He referred especially to the questions of teachers not trained in the colleges and the system of teaching and inspecting drawing. But he was sorry that the department had acceded to the suggestion to suspend article 73 of the code until March 31 next. That article provided that after August 31 in the present year the size of the classes in the elementary schools should be reduced in number. Even in the largest and best board schools it was no uncommon thing to find classes of 80, 90, and 100 children, and no teacher could efficiently teach so large a class. It was possible to have larger classes than the code permitted, because the classes were not examined in detail, but the number of children in the school was divided by the number of teachers. The right honorable member for Rotherham had given two years' notice of the requirement in respect of smaller classes, and it was greatly to be regretted that the operation of the requirement had been postponed. When the class was too large the scholars lacked individual attention, and consequently their school life was wasted. In the grammar schools the average number in the class was from 15 to 20, and in a girls' high school the average was from 15 to 30. There was, besides, no need for the suspension of the requirement. The Bishop of London had declared that 90 out of 100 voluntary schools in the country could meet the increased requirements without difficulty.

THE UNQUALIFIED PRACTITIONER.

As to the failure of the supply of fully qualified teachers, every year there were four times as many applications for admission to the training colleges as there were vacancies. The fault was that there were not enough properly established training colleges. The supply of teachers depended on local enterprise and denominational initiative. If there was a failure in the supply of pupil teachers, it was because the education department did not make the career sufficiently attractive. Something could be done under article 68 of the code which enabled a young woman without qualification, but with the inspector's approval, to teach in the school. These girls belong to two categories—those who had failed to pass the pupil teachers' examination and those who had not even had that training. At first their employment was narrowly restricted, but now they were to be allowed to teach even in boys' schools. Out of 92,570 adult teachers in schools, 66,310 were women, and out of 34,000 pupil teachers 26,000 were girls. It looked as though the men were to be thrust out of the profession altogether, and no doubt in many circumstances petticoat government was not a bad thing for children. But there came a time in a boy's school life when he wanted something more, and therefore he hoped that the department would

not assist further the tendency to replace men teachers by women. The department was so anxious to get graduates of Oxford and Cambridge into the elementary schools that now they were permitted to accept head masterships without any previous training. Against this policy of introducing untrained and unqualified men into the most responsible positions he must protest. However high a man's academic attainments, he might be a complete failure when put in charge of large classes and when required to teach them.

THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE STATE AND THE TEACHER.

He wished to say a few words as to the whole attitude of the department toward its teachers. The treatment of the teachers by the department, not in detail but in principle, was wholly wrong; it was shortsighted, out of harmony with the usual practice of Government departments, and rather cruel. Down to 1862 the department took direct responsibility with regard to teachers; it recognized them and treated them as civil servants. Since 1862 the department had disclaimed all responsibility; it had said that it was no party to the engagement of a teacher; it refused to be a court of appeal or even a moderator in regard to dismissals; it shuffled off all responsibility. It tested the teacher and certificated him; it dismissed him from a post for which he was not qualified; it took a great deal of care that he performed the functions assigned to him, but it declined, though it had often been asked to do it, to see that the salary paid to him was sufficient. It shuffled off the responsibility for that onto a board or committee, which was in the position of a contractor with the State. In other cases the Government took care that contractors did their work well, paid their employees properly, and treated them in a proper way; it secured fair play to the workers; it repudiated this responsibility only in the case of teachers in their relations with school managers and school boards. It insisted on certain conditions as to fair wages, proper hours, and suitable management in shipbuilding yards, in army clothing factories, in printing works, and as to their carpenters employed at South Kensington. The local government board took interest in the officials and employees of the boards of guardians.

THE TEACHER'S PAY.

If a board of guardians appointed a medical officer at an insufficient salary, the local government board said, "You must pay him more." The education department never did that kind of thing. Why should it not do so? If it did, the present lamentable state of things as to teachers would not exist. There are 50,836 certificated teachers. There were 435 who had salaries of under £40 a year, or less than 16 shillings a week; 1,342 at under £45 a year, or less than 18 shillings a week; 2,666 at under £50 a year, or less than 20 shillings a week; 18,395 at salaries under £75 a year, or less than 29 shillings a week, and only 2,397 who got salaries of £200 a year and over. This state of things could not exist if the Government dealt with school managers as it dealt with other contractors and saw that they fulfilled their contracts; and he had a right to ask that the attitude of the education department toward school managers and teachers should be radically changed.

TENURE AND EXTRANEOUS TASKS.

These contractors exacted from teachers tasks which did not properly belong to them—the performance of extraneous duties in connection with church and parochial work; and it was the duty of the department to secure teachers against these exactions and impositions. Then managers could dismiss teachers without just cause, and for the teacher there was no remedy. If a question was asked in that House about a wrongful dismissal the vice-president would reply, "We have no power to interfere." Well, it was high time they had power to interfere. The teachers were as much entitled to protection as carpenters at South Kensington or tailors in army

clothing works. Why should the education department decline to take steps to safeguard the interests of teachers when the House had determined that it would secure the payment of fair wages under Government contracts? They could do it by simply inserting in the code conditions as to the payment of grants. They could lay down that grants should be withheld where salaries were not suitable and sufficient, where extraneous tasks were compulsory, and where unreasonable and capricious dismissals had taken place. This view might seem to be new at present, but as time went on it would cease to be new. The education department would have to yield on these points as other departments had yielded on the labor question.

THE SUPERANNUATION QUESTION.

In other departments public servants who were in direct relation with the Government received superannuation allowances or pensions, but in the case of the teachers there was only the most meager provision for a limited number. Eleven months had passed since the last debate, when a favorable statement was made, but nothing had been done to realize it. Still the bulk of aged and infirm teachers had nothing to look forward to but charity or the workhouse. That meant a waste of educational resources. The teacher past work still "lags superfluous on the stage," and that involved a waste of money and of the time of the scholars. The State did not get what it supposed it was paying for, and thus the question became an economical one as well as a sentimental one. But even the sentiment ought to have some weight, for here you had men and women who had worked out their lives for a mere pittance; they had done valuable work, contributing to diminish pauperism and drunkenness and to empty prisons, and their reward was that some of them got pensions of £25 a year, and the bulk of them had not even that prospect. The teachers had intimated their willingness to accept the minimum scale of allowances proposed by the department; less than was proposed by the select committee, less than was given in the civil service, less than the police scale, and less than the county council scale; but this minimum, so accepted, was still withheld. Why, he did not know. The sum required was from £30,000 to £35,000 a year, and in the first five years it would not be over £100,000. He did hope the right honorable gentleman would be able to hold out a hope that something would be done. He believed that money ought to be given to voluntary schools, but when it was given it ought to be on condition that the full benefit of the extra grant should go to the underpaid teachers. [Schoolmaster, July 18, 1896.]

CHAPTER IV.

EDUCATION IN CENTRAL EUROPE.

Articles on education in central Europe published in previous reports.

	Title of article.	Report of—	Page.
1	Comparison of the schools of Germany, France, and the United States, with diagrams	1888–89	32
2	Courses of study in graphic representation	1888–89	53
3	School population of the civilized world. Charts	1888–89	75
4	Bird's-eye view of the schools in central Europe	1888–89	150
5	Middle and intermediate schools in Prussia	1889–90	281
6	Promoting public play of school children	1889–90	293
7	Education of neglected and depraved children	1889–90	295
8	Juvenile wage workers	1889–90	297
9	The schools of the Kingdom of Saxony	1889–90	299
10	Economic development of Saxony	1889–90	306
11	School gardens in Germany and Austria	1889–90	308
12	School population in the civilized world. Charts	1889–90	549
13	The December conference on secondary schools	1889–90	313
14	Brief view of the schools of Austria-Hungary	1889–90	419
15	Brief statement of the school system in Prussia	1889–90	455
16	Proportion of population in elementary, secondary, and higher institutions	1889–90	451
17	Industrial and technical education in central Europe	1890–91	165
18	Statistical summary of school population, teachers, and expenditures for schools in the civilized world	1890–91	369
19	Legal education in Europe and America	1890–91	377
20	Public kindergartens in European and American States	1890–91	676
21	The training of teachers in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland	1891–92	139
22	The Swiss school system	1891–92	197
23	School museums and educational exhibitions	1891–92	239
24	German universities, history and present status	1891–92	247
25	Schools for recruiting the civil service in France and Prussia	1891–92	369
26	Recent developments in the teaching of geography	1892–93	279
27	The schools of Bavaria	1892–93	323
28	Child study and experimental psychology, with bibliography	1892–93	357
29	Bibliography of Herbartianism	1892–93	393
30	German criticism of American education	1892–93	521
31	Criticism of educational exhibitions	1892–93	548
32	German view of American technological schools	1892–93	657
33	Statistical table of elementary instruction in foreign countries	1892–93	
34	Results of Prussian common-school statistics discussed	1893–94	206
35	Common-school teachers of Prussia	1893–94	225
36	Development of the common-school system of Berlin	1893–94	245
37	Attendance in secondary schools for boys in Germany	1893–94	298
38	Courses of study in history found in vogue in Europe	1893–94	302
39	Bibliography of the history of education	1893–94	306
40	Statistics of university libraries in Europe	1893–94	308
41	German bibliography of arithmetic	1893–94	314
42	The new education in Germany	1894–95	322
43	Is German pedagogy in a state of decomposition?	1894–95	329
44	Supplementary and industrial schools in Germany	1894–95	345
45	Ungraded schools in Germany	1894–95	380
46	German opinions on monitorial instruction	1894–95	403
47	Comparative review of courses of study in sixteen German cities	1894–95	406
48	Normal schools in Switzerland	1894–95	426
49	Mental fatigue in school	1894–95	449
50	National features of female education	1894–95	460
51	Public instruction in the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg	1894–95	471
52	Pensions for teachers	1894–95	1123
	The present report contains the following articles:		
53	Public industrial education in Berlin	1895–96	138
54	Salaries of elementary teachers in Germany	1895–96	147
55	Salaries of elementary teachers in Austria	1895–96	156
56	Statistics of higher education in central Europe	1895–96	165
57	Foreigners in central European universities	1895–96	180
58	Music in German schools	1895–96	187
59	Reform schools in the Grand Duchy of Baden	1895–96	158
60	Mental fatigue in school	1895–96	.....

Public Industrial Education in Berlin.

When the old Trade Institute of the city of Berlin was changed into an industrial academy, and later was transformed into what is now known as the Polytechnicum of Charlottenburg, there became apparent a gap between the public elementary school work and the technological education, as well as a gap between school and practical life. It has always been well understood in Germany, that the education supported by the State and general taxation must not be special education, but aim at general culture. In other words, public education can not prepare for any particular profession, vocation, or occupation; it is intended to lay the foundation for a general culture desirable for all citizens of the State. While thus any special preparation for the trades, or for commerce, or for the higher professions is excluded from institutions that offer education gratuitously, on the other hand there has arisen a difficulty which makes the establishment of trade and industrial schools a necessity. The labor unions, prompted by self-interest, frequently prohibit their members from engaging apprentices; naturally then their number is very small, hence very few chances are offered for the learning of trades. The great extension of mechanical contrivances and machines of all kinds has liberated much human power that was formerly engaged in mere mechanical performances. Hence the labor of the hand has become much more complicated, much more difficult to learn, and, therefore, also needs much more careful study and exercise. All these causes combine to necessitate the establishment of a number of special schools, and the city government of Berlin, fully aware of the changed conditions of labor, liberally provided for them. But it must be well understood that all the trade schools and institutions for the preparation of skilled laborers in Germany have this one characteristic feature, to wit, that they bestow less attention upon manual labor and more to the underlying principles and the knowledge skilled labor presupposes. This is the reason why drawing, mathematics, the sciences of physics and chemistry, and the like are taught in trade schools. The shop work, so often spoken of, and held up as models of imitation in this country, is comparatively very limited and confines itself to mere application of principles learned during lessons. It seems as though these German trade schools carefully abstain from coming into competition with the labor market.

A recent report of the superintendent of public schools in Berlin, privy councillor, Dr. Bertram, states that the sum of 542,445 marks was spent in the year 1895. Of this sum 86,159 marks were contributed by the State of Prussia; 325,401 marks by the community; 16,565 marks by trade unions, societies, mercantile firms, etc., and the board of trade contributed 4,000 marks; while 110,320 marks, or about one-fifth of the sum total, were paid in the form of tuition fees. To this sum total of 542,445 marks ($129,102) must be added various donations in form of

tools and other things, such as material, for which no correct estimate can be made. While this money is spent entirely in the interest of schools preparing for skilled labor, there must be mentioned also the fact that 337,560 marks ($80,339) is expended by the city for so-called "continuation or supplementary schools," in which industrial education is a very essential feature. These latter-named schools offer post-graduate instruction to boys and girls who have gone through the eight years' course of the elementary school. Most of these supplementary schools offer gratuitous instruction, but not all.[1] Though Berlin is a metropolis of large size, it seems remarkable that it should pay about $200,000 per year for purely industrial education.

How this sum is distributed, and for what purposes it is used, can be seen from the following statements taken from Dr. Bertram's report. The great variety of trade institutions and their scope appear to cover up the fundamental idea, but careful observation reveals it. It is this: The city authorities desire to give young men of aspiration who are desirous of gaining knowledge, as well as persons of more advanced age, opportunities for the development of their special talents and skill that can not, in the nature of the case, be found in the workshop or the factory.

It is the desire of all concerned in this department of education that the student should not engage in actual practical work for pay, and to put the instruction in close contact with the circumstances or occupations of the learners. Moreover, and this appears to us here in America the more important and nobler object of the schools, the entire range of instruction in these trade and industrial schools tends to unify several branches of labor and to prevent too much specialization. Apprentices and young beginners are very apt in our modern time of application of machines to learn to work mechanically. Specialization is going so far that the workman is often degraded to an assistant of the machine, instead of the machine being his assistant. A few grips, a few touches, a few motions, are all the man has to do, and he loses his respect for the dignity of labor and can not see all the bearings of a single trade. These industrial schools lift the young man to a higher standpoint, from which he can view all the bearings of his trade and its organic combination with other trades.

In accordance with this central idea the choice of courses of instruction is left free to the student, and a systematic, rigid course of study is introduced only in cases where experience has proven incontestably in certain trades that such a course is profitable. The authorities also desire to interest and solicit the active sympathy of trades unions, societies, and experts, by offering for every trade that kind of instruction which is apt to supplement its practical application by theory. The eminent success of the royal art schools and industrial museums is utilized by employing the graduates of these institutions as teachers in

[1] Compare article on such schools in last year's annual report.

the trade schools, for it is argued that a teacher should know very much more than he is to teach. Hence mere artisans can not be teachers in Berlin trade schools. The authorities insist upon their being graduates of schools of design and other art schools. The system of industrial education of Berlin, it is admitted, is not entirely developed, and some of the schools belonging to the system are still in their infancy; but in the main features the course of education for young tradesmen and skilled artisans is designed to be as follows:

First, it must be remarked that the course of education sketched in the following lines is designed for boys, because trades and industrial fields in Germany are, as a rule, not crowded with women. Every boy, then, may attend a public elementary school, the so-called people's school, which offers instruction gratuitously. If he and his parents conclude to aim at a higher education than the elementary schools offer, he may enter one of the twelve higher burger schools in Berlin, called Realschulen, which are so organized that a boy coming from the elementary schools at the age of 12 years may at once enter the fourth grade, above which instruction in foreign languages begins. These schools admit pupils at 10 years of age, but in the first two years the chief work consists of language (mother tongue), history, a little of the science of physics, and geometry. These high schools are of course without Latin. The graduates of these institutions receive the privilege of only one year's army service.

Boys of the elementary school who enter these higher schools at the age of 12, and cannot pay for their tuition, receive their instruction gratuitously. Boys who at the age of 14 leave the elementary school or are dropped out of the Realschulen owing to poverty, find opportunity for continuing their studies in the evening or on Sundays in so-called supplementary or continuation schools. Here the mother tongue, arithmetic, geometry, physics, and some other branches are taught gratuitously. Some of these continuation schools also teach higher branches, such as foreign languages and double-entry bookkeeping; for these higher branches a small tuition fee is to be paid.

And now we come to the purely industrial institutions: (1) The two trade schools of the city. The older of the two began in October, 1880. It was called into existence by the city authorities with the active cooperation of the State. From the moment that the new principal, Professor Jessen, was called from Hamburg to take charge of this first trade school in Berlin the latter has increased in extent and importance beyond everything that even the most extravagant expectations could have imagined—enrolling 2,193 students in 1894–95. The other school is almost a copy of the first, following in all essentials the plan evolved by experience in the first trade school. Professor Bertram describes it as follows:

The original plan intended to give persons beyond the age of compulsory education, and who have completed the work of the elementary school, instruction in industrial drawing and modeling, in arithmetic, mechanics and physics, and, lastly,

in bookkeeping and arithmetic. The school was intended to accommodate 600 students; the expenditure, aside from the tuition fee charged, was estimated at 30,000 marks per annum, of which the State intended to pay one-half. At present (in 1895) the State pays 20,000 marks and the city 100,000 marks. The school fully lives up to the original plan, but it has extended its field of usefulness so much that it is a source of pride to the industrial world of the German Empire. To prove this it may be mentioned that in the courses for mechanical drawing it prepares its students for the work of a great number of trades, such as watchmakers, stone masons, and the like. In day classes it prepares fresco painters. Students of these classes come only in winter, and they come to Berlin for this particular purpose from all over the Empire. Similar classes prepare cabinetmakers, wood engravers, etc. The school has lately opened day classes for mechanical engineers, and likewise for electro-technical work. Among the students there are found masters, journeymen, laborers, drawing teachers, side by side with students who are just beginning to prepare themselves for a trade.

This Berlin Trade School is a nursery of special schools, the first beginnings of which are found within its walls; thus, for instance, we find the typographical school started here; but, above all, it is a nursery of modern methods of teaching. This, indeed, is its most characteristic feature, and we may describe it by stating it to be an experimental station for teaching trades.

In order to relieve the school of its overcrowded classes a second trade school was established in October, 1892. This second school had already in 1895 a total of 850 students. This school follows the first in all essentials except in physics, which science is excluded owing to want of suitable rooms; instead of that it has a day class for painters, and has lately opened also a class for artistic metal and brazier work. Drawing of metal and conventionalized floral designs is a peculiar feature of this school.

The builders' school, representing all the trades engaged in the erection of buildings, is formed according to the model prescribed by the Prussian State authorities, and it is, like the two trade schools, supported by the State and the community jointly. It has 381 students in four succeeding yearly classes.

The weaving school in Berlin was formerly intended only as a special school for apprentices and journeymen in the textile industry, in order to give them an opportunity to go from one department to another without going through the otherwise necessary period of apprenticeship. But the school has greatly extended its usefulness by attempting to represent, and, as it were, foreshadow, the frequently changing fashions in the branch of textile industry. This school, like all other trade and industrial schools in Berlin, constantly keeps this leading idea in mind, namely, every workman should know more, and should be able to do more, than one thing. It is not only desirable but in the nature of the case necessary for him to know many branches of his trade. If he be a weaver in silk he should know the tricks of the trade of the linen weaver, or the cotton weaver, or the woolen weaver; and the same holds good in other cases. The instruction extends over hand looms, mechanical looms, and work in passementerie. The possibility of offering to Sunday and evening school students so fine an equipment in

apparatus and means of instruction dates from the year 1889, when, in addition to these courses, day classes were opened which, according to the present terminology, are called the higher weaving school. The two divisions are supplemented by an evening school for merchants of the textile branch; and lately the beginning of a school for dyers has been made. The organization of all Prussian weaving schools is occupying the secretary of the department of commerce and industry, and his object is to make them more uniform than they are at present. Tuition fees are not required of apprentices and workmen in the textile industry. Two other institutions must be mentioned which are probably characteristic of the city of Berlin. They are the cabinetmaker's school and what is known as the Industrial Hall.

In the continuation of supplementary schools it was noticed that mechanical drawing engaged the attention of a large number of young people in preparation for certain branches of instruction closely allied with and forming the basis of trade and industrial education. Indeed, this special kind of drawing, the so-called drawing of working models, seems to be the backbone of instruction offered in the continuation schools. The further this system of schools developed, and the more the number of pupils increased, the more desirable became professional supervision and technical instruction in the industrial features of drawing; and to meet this demand it was deemed appropriate to establish what is known as the Industrial Hall. The courses of technical drawing arranged for locksmiths and artistic metal workers, machine builders, tinsmiths, instrument makers, etc., remained where they had been given, but in the Central Industrial Hall all branches of industry were united in one and taught by a specially and well-qualified group of teachers. At the head of this institution was placed a very skillful man who had, through long years of experience in the trades school, proved to be particularly well fitted for this position. He is the supervisor of technical mechanical drawing courses; he selects proper teachers and determines the method and means of instruction, so that now the city authority has some guaranty that the various industrial courses are appropriately prepared for by the instruction given in drawing. The Industrial Hall has ten subdepartments distributed over the various parts of the city. This is to enable the students in all parts of the city to participate in the instruction, so that everyone finds instruction near his home. These courses are offered in the evening and on Sundays. The drawing does not confine itself to technical and professional drawing only, but includes projective drawing and mechanics. The authorities entertain the hope that this instruction in drawing which centers in the Industrial Hall, and which was participated in during the winter of 1895 by 1,400 students, may in future time change into a day school for machine builders.

A similar development has been noticed in the school of cabinetmakers. Cabinetmakers have great need for technical drawing, and

especially in designing new models; hence it was desirable to establish proper supervisors, so that the various courses offered in the city might be fostered and cared for uniformly. The city of Berlin has now a large number of drawing courses for cabinetmakers, altogether seven different departments in various parts of the city. The next step contemplated is to combine a school for turners with the cabinetmakers' school. The Turners' Union has expressed the desire that such a school be established, and it is the intention to connect it with an established school, especially since the two trades of cabinetmaking and turning are so closely allied. Woodcarving is carefully attended to in the cabinetmakers' school, and not having the desired space, some of the apprentices of this school have occupied the upper halls of common schools, which, of course, in the nature of the case, can be utilized only in the evening. It may be of interest to remark that a successful trial has been made to change this cabinetmakers' school into a day school, for many of the apprentices and sons of masters in that trade have been able to secure a release from work in their shops in order to attend the school for a certain number of days a week. But in all parts of the school, whether in the central school for cabinetmakers or in the various branch schools, it is drawing which forms the chief branch and mainstay of the course of instruction.

Aside from the schools thus far mentioned, Berlin has 15 other special schools for trades, namely, for masons and carpenters, for painters, chimney sweeps, barbers, wheelwrights, glaziers, shoemakers, blacksmiths, paper hangers and decorators, basket braiders, bookbinders, gardeners, printers, and tailors. The potters also have a school, but that is supported by the city only in so far as the city allows the use of certain available schoolrooms for its use. It is confidently hoped that this school will soon enter into closer relations with the city government.

Most of these schools have originated in trades unions, or, if not that, they have been suggested and aided by the unions. In most of them drawing is greatly fostered, although some of them represent trades in which drawing is not essential, but which require only manual dexterity; thus, for instance, the barbers and hairdressers, whose trade is very extensive in the city of Berlin, and whose school is very numerously attended. Wheelwrights began with a small workshop for pupils. The bookbinders have gone much further, using rooms which were specially designed and erected for them. The same may be said of the basket braiders' school. For such trades as bookbinding, basket braiding, and the like the necessity of maintaining a practice workshop is very urgent. In the bookbinders' trade the division of labor has progressed to such an extent that a number of apprentices can practice through their apprenticeship without ever having completely seen how a book is bound. This school shows all the various branches of the trade and enables the student to try his hand at all of them, so that

when he changes from one workshop to another in after life he may be able to change his occupation as necessity or the vicissitudes of life demand. There is scarcely a specialty in the trade that is not carefully and judiciously represented in the bookbinders' school.

Similar things may be said regarding the basket braiders. They have so-called common beaten work as well as fine artistic work; they also manufacture wicker and rattan furniture. Each master of a shop usually has a specialty, and hence apprentices in his shop would learn only that specialty; but in a braiders' school he learns all the many features of the trade. Other schools, like those of paper hangers and decorators, shoemakers, and tailors, show certain features of the trade and certain devices not commonly taught to apprentices in workshops. Thus, for instance, the students of tailoring and shoemaking are taught to use the cutting machine and to calculate mathematically the size of every part of the garment, one part being given. The authorities of Berlin noticed with satisfaction that the courses in garment cutting were attended by masters as well as by apprentices and journeymen.

The house decorators' school in Berlin is in a very prosperous condition, partly owing to the flourishing trade of paper hangers and fresco painters. Berlin since 1870 has grown more rapidly than many American cities. Much building and remodeling of houses is going on, and the refined taste of the inhabitants of the capital seems to require the art of decorators more generally. Other trade schools need not be described; a mere mention will suffice. The gardeners' school draws into its influence young gardeners from far and near. They chiefly study botany and drawing, make excursions with their teachers, and practice surveying and leveling, drainage, and other practical parts of landscape gardening.

Dr. Bertram, being asked, "What is the result of these various trade schools?" says:

> I can not as yet give utterance to a definite opinion concerning the results, because this extensive system of industrial education has not existed long enough to have developed fruit; but I may confidently state, without apprehension of saying too much, that with the opportunities that were offered the eagerness to learn increased extraordinarily, which is a most hopeful indication of wholesome influence. I observe, secondly, that the opposition against trade schools, which used to be very strong among the masters, has almost died out, and that, thirdly, the usefulness of apprentices in workshops and factories is being recognized all over the city, because they can apply in actual work that which they learn theoretically in school.

The real value of a system of schools can not be estimated until its graduates have had time to prove to the world what they have learned, and how successfully they can apply their knowledge. That requires more time than many impatient people will concede.

The authorities in Berlin entertain the hope that the further development of this system of trade schools will aid the trades in one particular, to wit: The school teaches the construction and use of machines used in trades, and acquaints the student with various

motors, which will gradually lead to an extension of the tradesman's business. The present extensive system of electrical motors enables a poor man to use mechanical power in his shop, and thus to compete with his wealthy rival. A connection between workshop and factory is established or made possible, since the factory owner will, it is evident, prefer men who have learned in actual contact with machines how to perform skillful manipulations. And whenever new inventions change the aspect of any trade, the men skilled in numerous phases of their work are apt to find occasion for their talents, while those who only understand the mechanical part are easily stranded.

A summary of statistics of the trade schools in Berlin is here appended:

Summary of statistics in 1894–95.

Schools.	Number of teachers.	Number of students.	Expenditures.
First City Trade School	65	2,193	$32,557
Second City Trade School	31	908	14,342
City Builders' School	34	381	21,395
City Weavers' School	30	363	12,006
Central Industrial Hall	53	1,235	10,202
School for—			
Cabinetmakers	15	755	4,504
Bricklayers	6	233	2,222
Painters	11	388	3,155
Chimney sweeps	5	120	372
Barbers	20	492	1,869
Wheelwrights	5	95	883
Glaziers	5	83	373
Paperhangers	6	250	2 702
Shoemakers	11	228	1,783
Blacksmiths	5	168	522
Braiders	5	27	506
Bookbinders	7	111	1,071
Gardeners	6	98	287
Printers	13	372	1,767
Tailors	6	330	723
Saddlers	3	162	891
Total	336	8,992	113,132
Extraordinary expenses			15,970
Grand total			129,102
Amount spent for industrial education in continuation schools			80,339
Grand total			209,441

In connection with the foregoing statement of what is done for industrial education in the city of Berlin, it is interesting to note an American opinion of industrial education in Germany, and its effect upon the success of that Empire in commerce and various domains of industry. The following quotation is an editorial article in the Scientific American (September 26, 1896), which deserves great credit for shrewd observation and candid statement. The article is headed "The secrets of Germany's industrial success."

Perhaps the most notable fact in the industrial world just now is the commanding position which is being won by the German manufacturers and the rapid encroachments which they are making upon the foreign trade of other nations, and particularly upon that of Great Britain. In taking note of this development we must remember that it is nothing new—that it is not the result of a sudden outburst of

energy. It is merely the larger development, the coming of age, of a system which has been steadily at work in Germany for many years. Her industrial triumph, which has come as a surprise to the world at large, and with a rude awakening shock to Great Britain in particular, is no surprise to the German people themselves. In school and college, in workshop and factory, by carefully planned organizations at home and abroad, they have set in motion a system of industrial forces which are now working out the desired results with mechanical regularity and precision.

The German mind is essentially scientific and methodical. It was these qualities that contributed largely to the signal triumph of the German arms in the memorable war of 1870. During the quarter of a century that has intervened since the close of the struggle and the consolidation of the Empire, Germany has been applying the same scientific methods to the arts of peace; and with such success that it begins to look as though her industrial armies were going to occupy the broad fields of international commerce with the same resistless energy with which her battalions marched from Saarbrück to Sedan a quarter of a century ago.

Germany owes her industrial success to her system of scientific training in schools and colleges, to the close fellowship which exists between her factories and her schools, and to her elaborate organizations for the control and development of commerce.

That the scientific course in German schools was thorough and effective has always been well understood; but it has been reserved for a private letter written by Professor Ostwald, the distinguished German chemist, to his English friend, Professor Ramsay, to open the eyes of the world, and particularly of the English people, who are most nearly affected, to the practical use to which the scientific researches of their specialists are put by the German people. It appears from this letter that there is a close alliance between the German manufacturers and the universities and high-grade technical schools. In the chemical industry, for instance, it seems that splendid inducements are offered to the graduates of technical colleges to enter the laboratories which form part of the equipment of the factories. These young men are engaged, not for the executive work of the establishment, but for purely experimental work in the laboratory. They form a brigade of skilled inventors, who devote themselves to the discovery of improved processes and methods of manufacture

Speaking of this system, Professor Ostwald says:

"The research laboratory in such a work is only different from one in a university by its being more splendidly and sumptuously fitted than the latter. I have heard from the business managers of such works that they have not unfrequently men who have worked for four years without practical success; but if they know them to possess ability, they keep them notwithstanding, and in most cases with ultimate success sufficient to pay the expenses of the former resultless years."

When we bear in mind that "there are often more than one hundred Ph. D.'s in a single manufactory," and that this little army of qualified scientists is occupied solely in "making inventions," we begin to understand why it is that Germany is already preeminent in certain markets of the world, and is likely to become so in others before long. Invention is no longer left to the unaided efforts of the well-meaning but often uninstructed individual. In the special laboratory there will be no long hours of fruitless search for an object whose supposed existence is based upon ignorance of the first principles of physics or mechanics. In this admirable combination of the skilled theorist and the trained mechanic there is little left to chance, and the development of an art is carried on by the sure and logical process of experiment, invention, and design.

Of scarcely less importance in German industrial economy is her elaborate system for the fostering and extension of trade. This includes the founding, in certain industrial centers, of chambers of commerce. These institutions are intended to deal with questions of home and foreign trade in the broadest possible manner.

"There is no question connected with the development of trade interests, of manufactures, credit capacity of foreign countries, advantages to be obtained by treaty stipulations, injuries resulting from measures adopted by other nations in restraint of trade, which is not thoroughly discussed and carefully considered by the many German chambers of commerce scattered over the country. These bodies report to the minister of commerce with regard to the influence and bearing of all such matters, as they are connected with the commercial interests of the various localities; and by petition or otherwise they often secure action through their minister and the minister of foreign affairs which is of great advantage to them."

As the necessary counterpart of this organization at home, the Germans are about to establish a system of commercial attachés, whose agents shall be specially trained for the service and shall form a recognized part of the national representation in foreign countries. The work of the attaché will be similar to that which is now embodied by our own consuls in their "consular reports," many of which, be it said, are admirable documents and worthy of a wider circulation. He will furnish to the home government a statement in detail of the particular commodities which are required in his district, and will keep it informed of the volume and nature of the trade done there by competitors; and, indeed, he will report any facts which might be of service for dissemination among the various local boards of trade above mentioned.

Visitors to the Columbian Exposition at Chicago will remember the truly magnificent display that was made by Germany, and particularly the collection which figured so prominently in the Liberal Arts Building. It was a special effort, carefully planned and effectively carried out, and German foreign trade is feeling the stimulus of that costly display at the present moment.

Our brief consideration of this subject suggests that, while it more immediately concerns the commercial supremacy of Great Britain, it has also a practical interest for the United States. In our future commercial development and expansion we shall certainly enter into a most active competition with the two nations above mentioned. It is a question which we shall do well to ask ourselves, whether our native inventiveness and mechanical skill should not be stimulated and rendered more efficient by such a triple alliance of science, industry, and organization as is now carrying Germany to the front by leaps and bounds.

Salaries of Teachers in the People's Schools in Germany.

The question of raising the salaries of teachers has of late been a subject of discussion in legislative bodies of the various German States, especially in Prussia. A bill laid before the Prussian Diet during its session in 1896 regulates the salaries, but in every case it refers to the minimum beginner's salary, and leaves the adjustment of the maximum sum to the communities. The following tables, with explanations, are gathered from an article by Rector J. Tews, of Berlin, who carefully compiles and critically analyzes the educational statistics of his native country from official and private sources. He says:

In order to present the situation as it now actually exists in Germany, it is necessary to bring together as many statements as possible. There are varied opinions as to what constitutes the proper pay for elementary school teachers. From some States it was impossible to obtain the statistics, namely, from Alsace-Lorraine, Mecklenburg, Schaumburg-Lippe, and Waldeck. Little irregularities could not be

avoided; they are explained in the text accompanying the tables. It is quite astonishing to see how many teachers are paid minimum salaries. According to the tables from Würtemberg that refer to the year 1891–92, there were 3,406 teachers, of whom 511 were marked as belonging to the eleventh year of service, yet these 511 were still drawing the minimum salary. Besides, Würtemberg had in the same year 1,280 teachers not definitely employed who had been teaching between one and ten years.

In Saxony, during the year 1894, Mr. Rocke prepared a statement from which it is seen that among 8,239 teachers there were 1,902 definitely engaged and 336 assistants who were still drawing the lowest salary, which is equal to 28.3 per cent of the whole number of teachers in Saxony and 26 per cent of the assistants. The tables following on pages 153 to 155 are arranged according to the annual increases prescribed by law or governmental regulation.

1. Only the minimum salaries, with regular increases owing to the age and length of service which are required by law, are recorded in this table. No voluntary addition to the salary voted for by communities has been considered. Though these cases are quite numerous, it did not seem to be correct to consider them, inasmuch as it is the object to state the legal requirements only.

2. Wherever in any State, as for instance in Hessia, Gotha, and Weimar, higher salaries are fixed by law for the cities and lower salaries for rural schools, the lower salaries have been inserted in the table in preference to the higher, the latter being in the minority.

3. Where professional teachers, such as assistants, adjuncts, substitutes, etc., receive a salary fixed by law, these salaries have been recorded in the proper column. Where promotion to a definite appointment is not regulated by law, the average provisional period is assumed.

4. Where free fuel is granted in addition to the salary of teachers, 100 marks is added in the salary in the table, and 50 marks to that of assistants. This has been done with statements from Sondershausen and Lübeck, and also Saxony. For Hamburg a different figure had to be taken, namely, 150 marks for teachers and 50 marks for assistants, since these are the actual sums paid.

5. Wherever the teacher acts as organist or sexton and receives extra pay for such work, the pay is not mentioned in the tables, because, practically, it has nothing to do with the actual school work and its remuneration.

Special notes are made with reference to each separate State:

Bavaria: This Kingdom has no maximum salary fixed by law. The law prescribes increases of 90 marks at intervals of five years. After forty years service the Bavarian teachers draw 1,720 marks; after forty-five years, 1,810; after fifty years, 1,900 marks; while the teachers in the Palatinate draw only 1,620, 1,710, and 1,800 marks, respectively. This necessitated a double entry in the table for Bavaria.

In Würtemberg the beginners in the profession draw 620 marks per annum during the first five years, and 790 marks until they reach the tenth year. Aside from the salary, they are provided with a furnished room, fuel, and light. The compiler has estimated the cost of this at 70 marks, hence the figures in the column will be found to be 690 and 860, respectively. Definitely appointed teachers are allowed by law supplies to the amount of 70 marks.

In Saxony the assistants are granted free fuel or a sum of 50 marks. Very few communities in Saxony have gone beyond the minimum salaries prescribed by law.

In Baden the candidates, that is, the beginners, receive 800 marks, and after having passed their State examination the salary is increased to 900 marks. For older assistant teachers many communities pay as much as 1,100 marks, which is the beginning salaries of rectors or principals. Rent is calculated at 150 marks for such teachers. Principals in schools with four teachers receive 100 marks, and where the school has more than four teachers 200 marks, additional. If the teachers serve in supplementary schools and evening classes the work is paid for by the year, namely, 100 marks. If he teaches gymnastics an additional 25 marks is paid. Since most

teachers in small communities act as organists, and some as sextons, their income is increased to a much greater sum than is stated in the table.

In Hessia a new law has been passed which will come into force April 1, 1897. Definite appointment of the teacher is calculated from the date of passing the second State examination, while in other States it is the first examination. This examination is usually passed at the expiration of two years after graduating from the normal schools. In larger communities much higher salaries are paid, but since it is the object to show the minimum salaries they are omitted from the table.

Oldenburg: The teachers in Oldenburg are classed as head teachers and assistants. Head teachers are the principals of graded schools and the teachers of ungraded schools in the country; all other teachers are called assistants. The minimum salary of a head teacher is 900 marks, but in the cities 180 to 300 marks are added. To the minimum (or "stock") salary are also added six increases at 75 marks each after five, ten, fifteen, twenty, twenty-five, and thirty years of service, counted from the definite appointment. The teachers are employed temporarily for nearly four years. There is a further classification of the assistants into those of the first and second class. This makes it difficult to calculate the salaries for insertion in the table. The increases are not in most cases regulated by law but depend upon the good will of the authorities in office. Hence the table contains statements for Oldenburg, with reference to the first ten years of service, that may not in every case be correct, but they are the result of careful computation. The higher salaries could not be stated with exactness either, since in most cases a local increase is voted which is rarely less than 300 marks. In graded schools the second teacher draws the salary of a head teacher. The principal receives an indemnity of 90 to 120 marks if his school, or rather his residence, is not provided with an extensive garden in which to raise vegetables and fruit. This indemnity for land is invariably inserted in the table and quoted at 90 marks. The Government of Oldenburg is at present engaged in preparing a bill to regulate the salaries of teachers.

In Weimar there is a distinction made between rural districts and towns of the third, second, and first class. The minimum salary fixed for towns of the third class ranges between 860 and 1,710 marks, in towns of the second class between 890 and 1,860 marks, and in towns of the first class between 920 and 2,010 marks; obtainable after twenty-seven years of service, counted from the day of graduation in the normal school. There is a movement on foot in the duchy to do away with the differences and place the teachers all on the same level with those of towns of the first class. The teachers also claim remuneration for service in church, either as organist or sexton, or whatever other service the church insists upon.

In Brunswick the city teachers have between 750 and 2,100 marks; besides that they enjoy free rent, which in the country is paid "in natura" and is estimated at 150 marks, or an indemnity of 90 marks for the first five years, 120 marks for the second five years, 150 marks for the third five years, and 180 marks after the eighteenth year of service.

In Anhalt the teachers are not paid extra for rent. Where there is a residence for the teacher connected with the schoolhouse, rent is deducted from his stock salary. If he draws less than 1,500 marks, the sum of 60 marks is deducted; if he draws more than 1,500 marks, 90 marks is deducted for the use of the residence. In the table these sums are already deducted. There is a slight difference between the salaries paid in small cities and in larger cities, but the teachers are endeavoring to equalize the salaries and the Government is willing to meet the teachers in this.

In Gotha there is a higher scale of salaries for the three cities, Gotha, Ohrdruf, and Waltershausen, than the table contains. In Coburg the scales for city teachers are considerably higher than those mentioned in the table. In Meiningen the Government gives the teachers an additional salary of from 100 to 200 marks and 200 marks indemnity for rent.

In Altenburg the rural teachers are classed with the teachers of towns of the third

class, and it is this minimum that is contained in the table. In Reuss (senior line) the head teachers receive an additional salary of 60 marks for supervision of their schools, but the cities pay the salaries.

In Schwarzburg-Sondershausen rent is not paid, but fuel and light are allowed. These differences have been adjusted in the tables.

Schaumburg-Lippe has not been inserted in the table because there was found no basis of comparison between the teachers called head teachers and assistants and between teachers of the various classes of towns. It may be stated, however, that the salaries range between 850 and 1,200 marks, and increase at intervals of five years 100 marks each time. Increases are calculated from the day of definite appointment, and church service is calculated at 300 marks per year.

The salaries of rural teachers of the State of Hamburg are as follows: Assistants from six to eight years receive between 800 and 1,000 marks, a furnished room, and 50 marks for fuel. Among the definitely appointed teachers, the following categories are to be distinguished:

	"Stock" salary.	After 3 years.	After 6 years.	After 9 years.	After 12 years.
Teachers in ungraded schools with less than 35 pupils:	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*
Minimum	1,000	1,100	1,200	1,300	1,400
Maximum	1,200	1,320	1,440	1,560	1,680
Teachers in ungraded schools with more than 35 pupils:					
Minimum	1,200	1,320	1,440	1,560	1,680
Maximum	1,500	1,650	1,800	1,950	2,100
Head teachers in graded schools:					
Minimum	1,500	1,650	1,800	1,950	2,100
Maximum	2,000	2,200	2,400	2,600	2,800

To these sums must be added a fixed sum for rent for unmarried teachers, or a free dwelling, with garden and fuel, for married teachers. Where these can not be furnished in close proximity to the schoolhouse, an adequate sum of money is paid as an indemnity. At present the school council of the State of Hamburg is considering a new scale of salaries, in which the minimum salaries are greatly increased. The so-called free city of Hamburg consists of the city proper, with about 500,000 inhabitants, and a surrounding territory called Hamburg land; both together form one of the constituent States of the German Empire.

Bremen: The figures quoted in the table for Bremen contain the sums paid for rent; hence they appear greater in comparison than they ought to be. It is reasonable to deduct 20 per cent to arrive at the actual salary and thus make them comparable with the other salaries granted.

Lübeck: The rural teachers of the country districts of the free city of Lübeck have free dwelling, fuel, and not less than 25 acres of garden and field. This is very much more than is comprised in the provisions for Prussian teachers, since Prussian teachers are provided with the kitchen garden, but certainly not with 25 acres of field. Fuel for the teachers in Lübeck has been calculated at 100 marks, hence the scale quoted should read 1,000 to 1,500 marks, beginning with the fifth year of service.

Though all these various calculations, which were unavoidable in the attempt to equalize the figures so as to enable comparison, may not in every case be absolutely correct, they are certainly as near the truth and the actual facts as possible. Essential errors are excluded and the figures submitted in the following tables, therefore, with the possible exception of Oldenburg and Bremen, offer a safe basis for comparison.

The first of the two tables following makes possible the reply to a number of important questions, for instance: What salary is offered a teacher at an age when marriage seems proper and advisable? Let us take a completed twenty-eighth year

of life, which would be about the ninth year of service as a teacher, and we shall see that (excluding Bremen) Hessia stands at the head with 1,200 marks, while Prussia falls short of that by 220 marks. After twenty-five years of service the teachers in Anhalt are at the head with 1,860 marks, while those of Prussia fall short by 420 marks. The figures in full-face type indicate the date at which the maximum salary is reached. Here we notice enormous differences. Hamburg (land) stands at the head with from seventeen to twenty years of service; Würtemberg at the foot of the scale with thirty-six years of service. Bavaria has no maximum salary fixed at all.

The second table contains the total sums paid for salary as well as average sums. These figures appear to be of greater value than those of the first table, inasmuch as they exemplify the actual value of certain orders or classes. In both grand totals, namely, in that of twenty-five years and that of fifty years of service, the little State of Anhalt is at the head, while Prussia remains behind with 227 and 323 marks, respectively.

If the numerical relation of the Prussian teachers is taken into consideration, a greater emphasis must be laid upon the salaries up to the twenty-fifth years of service; greater, certainly, than upon the increases offered after that time. For this reason in the year 1891 there were engaged of every 100 teachers—

In first to fifth year	22.42	43.22
In sixth to tenth year	20.80	
In eleventh to fifteenth year	15.42	25.85
In sixteenth to twentieth year	10.43	
In twenty-first to thirtieth year	15.98	15.98
In thirty-first to fortieth year	10.57	
In forty-first to fiftieth year	3.98	14.95
More than fifty years	.40	
Total	100.00	100.00

The salary reached after the thirtieth year of service is drawn only by one-seventh of the total number of teachers, while two-thirds of them reach the salary offered at fifteen years of service.

The figures in the tables must not be mistaken to mean minimum income, but they are to represent the salaries only. There are other sources of income for teachers, and their normal school training prepares them for that purpose. The professional preparation of a teacher includes instrumental and vocal music, particularly the playing of the organ. We quote a few figures showing what income teachers in Germany derive from this church service; but it must be understood that the figures are all minimum not maximum salaries, since it is the intention to show the minimum income of German teachers.

In Bavaria service as organist or sexton is paid for only in a few communities, and the compiler is unable to state the salary with any degree of accuracy. In Würtemberg the teacher is expected to serve in church without any special pay whatever. In Saxony the income from church service is calculated only when it amounts to more than 900 marks. In Baden all church service on the part of the teacher is prohibited except that as organist, and the least salary paid for that is 100 marks a year; but in most cases it is much more. In Hessia the same conditions prevail. In Oldenburg the highest salary for service in church is paid in the Protestant communities, namely, 300 marks. In Catholic communities the payment of salary is not regulated, and varies considerably. In Weimar the teachers' pay for serving in church is not regulated either. In Brunswick 200 marks, in Anhalt between 100 and 150 marks are paid, while in Gotha the rural districts pay only 90 marks. In Coburg the salaries for church service vary and are not regulated. In Meiningen the salaries for church service in rural districts amount to 175 to 250 marks. In Altenburg no salary is paid, and in Reuss (senior line) 240 marks while

in Reuss (junior line) 200 marks are paid. Schwarzburg-Rodolstadt pays from 100 to 150 marks. In Schwarzburg-Sondershausen 200 marks; in Lippe, according to the size of the congregation, from 70 to 250 marks; in Schaumberg-Lippe, 300 marks; in Bremen (rural districts) between 200 and 600 marks. These sums must be divided by four to express them in American money, but that procedure would not approximately come near the real state of affairs, because the purchasing power of money is very much greater in Germany than it is in America; however, while the necessities of life, such as bread, fruit, and meat, are only a little cheaper than in this country, everything that bears the character of luxury or contributes to comfort is vastly cheaper than in this country.

One more point may be stated, and that is the number of years after which a definite appointment can take place That period is counted from the date of graduation from the normal school. Bavaria, after seven years; Würtemberg, after nine to ten years; Saxony, after three years; Baden, after eight years; Hessia, after four to five years; Oldenburg, after four years; Weimar, after two years; Brunswick, after five years; Anhalt, after two years; Gotha, after two years; Coburg, after two years; Meiningen, after two years; Altenburg, after two years; Reuss (senior line), after two years; Reuss (junior line), after two years; Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, after two years; Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, after two years; Lippe, after four years; Hamburg (land), after five to eight years; Bremen (land), after five years; Lübeck (land), after four years.

We add a list of German cities with the statement of average salaries paid to teachers in elementary schools. This list has been compiled from a work entitled "Die Gehaltsverhältnisse der Volksschullehrer," by H. Henck and H. Ischerland. A cursory glance at this table will show that the teachers in cities are not as well provided for as they deserve.

AVERAGE SALARIES IN GERMAN CITIES IN 1889.

As a basis of calculation it is assumed that the average length of service of teachers in Germany is thirty years. Calculations made in this Bureau from official tables published by the minister of education in Berlin make this appear correct, for the result arrived at was twenty-nine years and five months. The following list states the amount of salary only, and does not include any indemnity for rent, which is almost invariably paid, in addition to the salary, at the rate of 20 per cent of the latter. For the convenience of American readers the amounts are expressed in dollars and cents:

Frankfort on the Main	$743.50	Elberfeld	$581.00	Ulm	$534.00
Leipzig	701.00	Barmen	581.00	Hamm	528.50
Berlin	700.00	Bremen	577.00	Mülhausen	528.25
Hamburg	694.00	Lübeck	576.00	Altona	527.60
Mannheim	673.75	Offenbach	574.25	Hof	526.75
Regensburg	644.00	Fürth	572.40	Breslau	526.75
Munich	638.75	Kiel	563.25	Aix la Chapelle	517.00
Mayence	626.25	Essen	563.25	Burtscheid	517 00
Carlsruhe	621.25	Brunswick	560.00	Hanover	515.00
Dresden	617.00	Worms	559.00	Bayreuth	515.00
Nuremberg	606.80	Cassel	558.00	Bremerhafen	515.00
Darmstadt	606.50	Dortmund	555.50	Posen	510.00
Ludwigshafen	603.50	Augsburg	550.00	Wiesbaden	504.00
Freiburg	595.50	Düsseldorf	542.00	Bochum	502.50
Chemnitz	590.60	Coblenz	541.50	Ansbach	498.00
Charlottenburg	590.00	Strassburg	536.50	Düren	494.00
Cologne	582.00	Duisburg	535.75	Hanau	492.25
Würzburg	582.00	Mülheim on the Rhine	534.50	Schalke	486.00
				Heilbrom	484.00

Wilhelmshafen	$478.00	Osnabrück	$452.00	Danzig	$405.75
Hagen	478 00	Görlitz	452.00	Paderborn	405.75
Rostock	476.00	Jülich	450.00	Lippstadt	404.50
Siegen	475.50	Passau	445.00	Verden	404.50
Speier	475.50	Neuss	442.50	Brandenburg	403.25
Remscheid	474.50	Bingen	442.50	Hirschberg	400.00
Saarbrücken	474.00	Celle	441.25	Grünberg	392.75
Stettin	471.50	Lüneburg	441.75	Goslar	392.75
Glogau	471.50	Liegnitz	441.00	Thorn	392.75
Cannstadt	470.50	Stade	435.75	Cöslin	391.00
Gmünd	470.00	Altenburg	435.25	Luckenwalde	390.50
Tübingen	470.00	Spandau	434.25	Marburg	389.00
Halle	468.00	Emden	431.00	Bünde	382.25
Mülheim on the Ruhr	467.00	Elbing	431.00	Angermund	383.00
Solingen	465.00	Eberswalde	423.00	Halberstadt	381.00
Bielfeld	462.00	Nordhausen	423.00	Höchst	379.75
Gelsenkirchen	460.00	Bromberg	423.00	Frankfort on the Oder	379.75
Hameln	459.50	Erfurt	418.75	Königsberg	377.25
Magdeburg	458.50	Glauchau	417.50	Coburg	377.00
Neu Brandenburg	458.25	Schwerin	417.00	Lauban	367.00
Göttingen	456.25	Köpenik	415.50	Wernigerode	364.00
Schwerte	453.25	Ballenstedt	415.25	Sondershausen	362.50
Hildesheim	452.00	Bernburg	415.25	Wittenberg	354.00
Potsdam	452.00	Cöthen	415.25	Bunzlau	353.25
		Zerbst	415.25		

TABLE 1.—*Minimum teachers' salaries in German States, in marks, including periodical increases.*

[Sums expressed in marks, equal to 23.8 cents in American money. Add about 20 per cent paid for rent.]

State.	Year of service, counted from the date of graduation from normal school.												
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.
Prussia, bill of 1896	720	720	720	720	900	900	900	980	980	980	1,060	1,060	1,060
Bavaria, regulation of 1893–94	817	817	817	817	817	889	889	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,090	1,090	1,180
Palatinate, regulation of 1893–94	640	640	640	640	640	702	702	900	900	900	990	990	990
Würtemberg, law of 1895	690	690	690	690	690	860	860	860	860	860	1,050	1,150	1,150
Saxony, law of 1892	770	770	770	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,200	1,200	1,200
Baden, law of 1892	800	800	900	900	900	900	900	900	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,200	1,200
Hessia, bill of 1896	700	700	900	900	900	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,300	1,300
Oldenburg, law of 1888	495	495	525	655	685	700	850	850	925	1,065	1,065	1,065	1,065
Saxe-Weimar, law of 1892	850	850	950	950	950	950	950	1,090	1,090	1,090	1,090	1,090	1,180
Brunswick, law of 1895	720	720	900	900	900	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,200	1,200
Anhalt, resolution of 1892	840	840	940	940	940	1,040	1,040	1,040	1,140	1,140	1,140	1,290	1,290
Gotha, law of 1892	720	720	880	880	880	880	880	1,030	1,030	1,030	1,030	1,030	1,180
Coburg, law of 1895	650	650	800	800	800	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,150	1,150	1,150
Meiningen, law of 1894	750	750	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,250	1,250
Altenburg, law of 1893	720	720	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,100	1,100	1,100
Reuss (senior), law of 1891	690	690	840	840	840	840	840	990	990	990	990	990	1,140
Reuss (junior), law of 1893	900	900	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,300
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, law of 1891	750	750	900	900	900	900	960	975	975	975	975	975	1,050
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, law of 1896	858	858	858	1,003	1,003	1,145	1,145	1,145	1,145	1,145	1,288	1,288	1,288
Lippe, law of 1891	720	720	720	720	820	820	820	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,150
Hamburg (rural), 1879	850	850	850	850	850	850	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,250	1,250	1,250	1,350
Bremen (rural), 1891	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,750	1,750	1,750	2,000	2,000
Lübeck (rural), 1892	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,100	1,100	1,100	1,163	1,163	1,163	1,225	1,225	1,225

TABLE 1.—*Minimum teachers' salaries in German States, in marks, including periodical increases*—Continued.

State.	Year of service, counted from the date of graduation from normal school.												
	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Prussia, bill of 1896	1,140	1,140	1,140	1,220	1,220	1,220	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,330	1,330	1,380	1,460
Bavaria, regulation of 1893–94	1,180	1,180	1,270	1,270	1,270	1,270	1,270	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,450
Palatinate, regulation of 1893–94	1,080	1,080	1,170	1,170	1,170	1,170	1,170	1,260	1,260	1,260	1,260	1,260	1,350
Würtemberg, law of 1895	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,250	1,250	1,250	1,250	1,250
Saxony, law of 1892	1,200	1,200	1,350	1,350	1,350	1,350	1,350	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,600
Baden, law of 1892	1,200	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,600	1,600	1,600
Hessia, bill of 1896	1,300	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,700	1,700	1,700
Oldenburg, law of 1888	1,140	1,140	1,140	1,140	1,140	1,215	1,215	1,215	1,215	1,215	1,290	1,290	1,290
Saxe-Weimar, law of 1892	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,450
Brunswick, law of 1895	1,300	1,300	1,400	1,400	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,700	1,700	1,700
Anhalt, resolution of 1892	1,290	1,440	1,440	1,440	1,560	1,560	1,560	1,710	1,710	1,710	1,860	1,860	1,860
Gotha, law of 1892	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,180	1,330	1,330	1,330	1,330	1,330	1,480	1,480	1,480	1,480
Coburg, law of 1895	1,150	1,150	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,450	**1,600**
Meiningen, law of 1894	1,250	1,250	1,250	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,550	1,550	1,550	1,550	1,550
Altenburg, law of 1893	1,100	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,300	1,300
Reuss (senior), law of 1891	1,140	1,140	1,140	1,140	1,290	1,290	1,290	1,290	1,290	1,440	1,440	1,440	1,440
Reuss (junior), law of 1893	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,600
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, law of 1891	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,050	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	**1,200**			
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, law of 1896	1,288	1,288	1,430	1,430	1,430	1,430	1,430	1,573	1,573	1,573	1,573	1,573	**1,715**
Lippe, law of 1891	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,150	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,450
Hamburg (rural), 1879	1,350	1,350	1,350	1,450	1,450	**1,580**							
Bremen (rural), 1891	2,000	2,250	1,250	2,250	2,500	2,500	2,500	2,750	2,750	2,750	**3,000**		
Lübeck (rural), 1892	1,288	1,288	1,288	1,350	1,350	1,350	1,413	1,413	1,413	1,475	1,475	1,475	1,538

States.	Year of service, counted from the date of graduation from normal school.													
	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	32.	33.	34.	35.	36.	37.	38.	39.	40.
Prussia, bill of 1896	1,460	1,460	1,540	1,540	1,540	**1,620**								
Bavaria, regulation of 1893–94	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,450	1,540	1,510	1,540	1,540	1,540	1,630	1,630	1,630	1,630	1,630
Palatinate, regulation of 1893–94	1,350	1,350	1,350	1,350	1,440	1,440	1,940	1,440	1,440	1,530	1,530	1,530	1,530	1,530
Würtemberg, law of 1895	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,400	1,400	1,440	1,400	1,400	**1,500**			
Saxony, law of 1892	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	**1,800**				
Baden, law of 1892	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,900	1,900	1,900	**2,000**				
Hessia, bill of 1896	1,800	1,800	1,800	**2,000**										
Oldenburg, law of 1888	1,290	1,290	1,365	1,365	1,365	1,365	1,365	**1,440**						
Saxe-Weimar, law of 1892	1,450	**1,600**												
Brunswick, law of 1895	1,800	1,800	1,800	**1,900**										
Anhalt, resolution of 1892	**2,010**													
Gotha, law of 1892	1,480	**1,630**												
Coburg, law of 1895														
Meiningen, law of 1894	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	**1,800**								
Altenburg, law of 1893	1,300	1,300	1,300	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,400	**1,500**					
Reuss (senior), law of 1891	1,440	**1,550**												
Reuss (junior), law of 1893	1,600	**1,750**												
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, law of 1891														
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, law of 1896														
Lippe, law of 1891	1,450	**1,600**												
Hamburg (rural), 1879														
Bremen (rural), 1891														
Lübeck (rural) 1892	1,538	1,538	**1,600**											

TABLE 2.—*Minimum teachers' salaries in German States, in marks, including annual increases.*

[Add about 20 per cent paid for rent.]

State.	1 to 5 years of service.		6 to 10 years of service.		11 to 15 years of service.		16 to 20 years of service.		21 to 25 years of service.		1 to 25 years of service.		26 to 30 years of service.		31 to 50 years of service.		1 to 50 years of service.	
	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.	Total.	Average.
Prussia, bill of 1896	3,780	756	4,740	948	5,460	1,092	6,100	1,220	6,740	1,348	26,820	1,073	7,460	1,492	32,320	1,616	66,700	1,334
Bavaria, regulation of 1893–94	4,085	817	4,778	956	5,720	1,144	6,350	1,270	6,800	1,360	27,733	1,109	7,250	1,450	33,500	1,650	68,483	1,370
Palatinate, regulation of 1893–94	3,200	640	4,104	821	5,130	1,026	5,850	1,170	6,300	1,260	24,584	983	6,750	1,350	31,500	1,550	62,834	1,257
Würtemberg, law of 1865	3,450	690	4,300	860	5,750	1,150	5,950	1,190	6,200	1,240	25,650	1,025	6,450	1,290	29,300	1,465	61,400	1,228
Saxony, law of 1892	4,310	862	5,000	1,000	6,000	1,200	6,750	1,350	7,500	1,500	29,560	1,182	8,000	1,600	35,500	1,750	63,060	1,461
Baden, law of 1892	4,300	860	4,900	980	6,000	1,200	6,800	1,360	7,700	1,540	29,700	1,188	8,500	1,700	39,300	1,865	77,500	1,550
Hessia, bill of 1896	4,100	820	5,700	1,140	6,500	1,300	7,300	1,460	8,200	1,640	31,800	1,272	9,100	1,820	40,000	2,000	80,300	1,618
Oldenburg, law of 1888	2,855	571	4,390	878	5,475	1,095	5,850	1,170	6,225	1,245	24,795	992	6,600	1,320	28,575	1,429	59,970	1,199
Saxe-Weimar, law of 1892	4,550	910	5,170	1,014	5,720	1,144	6,260	1,250	6,950	1,390	28,650	1,146	7,700	1,540	32,000	1,600	68,350	1,367
Brunswick, law of 1895	4,140	828	5,200	1,040	6,100	1,220	7,300	1,460	8,200	1,640	30,940	1,238	9,000	1,800	38,000	1,900	77,940	1,559
Anhalt, resolution of 1892	4,500	900	5,400	1,080	6,450	1,290	7,560	1,512	8,850	1,770	32,760	1,310	9,900	1,980	40,200	2,010	82,860	1,657
Gotha, law of 1892	4,080	816	4,850	970	5,600	1,120	6,350	1,270	7,100	1,420	27,980	1,119	7,850	1,570	32,600	1,630	68,430	1,369
Coburg, law of 1895	3,700	740	5,000	1,000	5,750	1,150	6,500	1,300	7,250	1,450	28,200	1,128	8,000	1,600	32,000	1,600	68,200	1,364
Meiningen, law of 1894	4,500	900	5,400	1,080	6,100	1,220	6,850	1,370	7,600	1,520	30,450	1,218	8,350	1,670	35,900	1,795	74,700	1,494
Altenburg, law of 1893	4,590	918	5,300	1,060	5,550	1,110	5,800	1,160	6,100	1,220	27,340	1,094	6,600	1,320	29,600	1,480	63,540	1,271
Reuss (senior), law of 1891	3,900	780	4,650	930	5,400	1,080	6,150	1,230	6,900	1,380	27,000	1,080	7,530	1,503	31,000	1,550	65,530	1,311
Reuss (junior), law of 1893	4,800	960	5,450	1,090	6,200	1,240	6,950	1,390	7,700	1,540	31,100	1,244	8,450	1,690	35,000	1,750	74,550	1,491
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, law of 1891	4,200	840	4,725	945	5,100	1,020	5,475	1,095	5,850	1,170	25,350	1,014	6,000	1,200	24,000	1,200	55,350	1,107
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, law of 1896	4,580	916	5,725	1,145	6,440	1,288	7,150	1,430	7,865	1,573	31,760	1,270	8,575	1,715	34,300	1,715	74,635	1,493
Lippe, law of 1891	3,700	740	4,640	928	5,450	1,090	6,200	1,240	6,950	1,390	26,940	1,077	7,700	1,540	32,000	1,600	66,640	1,333
Hamburg (rural), 1879	4,250	850	5,550	1,110	6,550	1,310	7,450	1,490	7,750	1,550	31,550	1,262	7,750	1,550	31,000	1,550	70,300	1,406
Bremen (rural), 1891	5,500	1,100	7,800	1,560	10,000	2,000	12,000	2,400	14,250	2,850	49,550	1,982	15,000	3,000	60,000	3,000	124,550	2,491
Lübeck (rural), 1892	5,100	1,020	5,625	1,125	6,250	1,250	6,750	1,350	7,250	1,450	30,975	1,239	7,812	1,562	32,000	1,600	70,787	1,416

Salaries of Teachers in the People's Schools of Austria.

The Yearbook of Political Economy and Statistics, edited in Jena, Germany, by four eminent university professors of Halle, Breslau, and Göttingen, contains in the second number of the volume for 1896 an article on the income of persons engaged in elementary and burgher schools. The author refers in this to the forty-second volume of "Austrian Statistics, Official Organ of the Government", which gives minute information concerning the expenditures for public education in Austria. This publication is especially welcome, since information on this subject has been very difficult to obtain. The position of Austrian teachers is a new factor in the social life of the Empire. This is plainly seen from the rapid increase both in the number of teachers and the amount of salaries paid.

Year.	Number of teachers.	Salaries paid.
		Florins.
1865	20,164	4,940,000
1871	20,099	7,302,000
1875	24,795	12,921,000
1880	29,950	17,290,000
1890	40,733	25,738,000

During the last twenty-five years about 20,000 teachers have been added to the number engaged in 1865, and the great change in their social position is seen from the fact that their entire income to-day is five times greater than it was twenty-five years ago. But if we consider that the number has doubled, we may take it that the same social stratum of 1865, placed on an equal footing with 1890, may be said to have an income two and one-half times as great as twenty-five years ago.

Many of the 40,000 teachers (the annual statistics published by the Government shows the number of teachers to be in the neighborhood of 70,000 instead of 40,000, but this includes all teachers of religion and special branches, such as music, drawing, gymnastics, etc., which special teachers are not included in the number of regular class teachers; the 40,133 includes only class teachers, such as head teachers and principals, teachers and assistants) are engaged in city schools; hence the profession of teaching begins to exercise a political influence in municipal public life. That the teachers in Austria are considered a new factor with which it is well to reckon is seen from the action taken by the legislative bodies of the Empire as well as of the Crown land. As is well known, the citizens of Austria and Germany are divided into electoral classes, and the teachers are included in the class of officers of the State. These classes vote separately on election day, and the intelligence of the teachers in political affairs is not without influence, as is plainly seen in large cities, such as Vienna.

The constantly increasing number of women teachers also is an important social factor. At present the number of women teachers is a little less than one-fifth of the total number. The numerical relation of the

female sex in the various grades of the profession may be seen from the following table:

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Principals and head teachers	8,284	447	8,731
Teachers	15,318	3,820	19,138
Assistants, definitely appointed	5,276	1,770	7,046
Assistants, provisory	5,121	1,768	6,889
Total	33,999	7,805	41,804

This table shows that the position of women among the head teachers is a subordinate one, since in the highest grade, in that of principals and head teachers, the women are represented only by one-twentieth of the number; in the next lower grade, in that of teachers, they are represented by only one-fifth of the number; but in the next lower grade, in that of assistants, they are represented by one-fourth of the number. The cause is, partly, that the women in Austria have only recently turned to the profession of teaching; hence those engaged in it are not experienced—that is to say, not old enough to have been promoted to the highest grades of the profession. But the cause may also lie in the fact that the governmental authorities do not consider women adapted for executive duties.

A better insight into the social position of the teachers in Austria, and partly into the difference existing between the social position of the two sexes, is gained by a study of the following table, based upon official data of 1890:

Salaries of teachers in elementary and burgher schools in Austria, 1890.

Salaries.	Number of men.	Number of women.	Ratio of—	
			Men.	Women.
			Per cent.	*Per cent.*
200 florins	593	830	1.7	10.6
200 to 249 florins	468	256	1.3	3.3
250 to 299 florins	1,520	559	4.4	7.2
300 to 349 florins	2,180	674	6.4	8.6
350 to 399 florins	2,718	344	8.0	4.4
400 to 450 florins	3,655	1,019	10.8	13.1
450 to 499 florins	1,215	561	3.6	7.2
500 to 549 florins	2,219	344	6.5	4.4
550 to 599 florins	2,074	321	6.1	4.1
600 to 649 florins	2,246	685	6.6	8.8
650 to 699 florins	2,349	401	6.9	5.1
700 to 749 florins	1,979	278	5.8	3.6
750 to 799 florins	1,691	179	5.0	2.3
800 to 849 florins	1,514	184	4.5	2.4
850 to 899 florins	1,198	197	3.5	2.5
900 to 950 florins	1,191	206	3.5	2.6
950 to 999 florins	1,041	135	3.1	1.7
1,000 to 1,099 florins	1,216	280	3.6	3.6
1,100 to 1,199 florins	1,045	273	3.1	3.5
1,200 to 1,299 florins	368	39	1.1	.5
1,300 to 1,399 florins	449	31	1.3	.4
1,400 to 1,499 florins	356	6	1.0	.1
1,500 to 1,599 florins	294	3	.9	.....
1,600 to 1,699 florins	125	.....	.4	.....
1,700 to 1,799 florins	58	.....	.2	.....
1,800 to 1,899 florins	96	.....	.3	.....
1,900 to 1,999 florins	40	.....	.1	.....
2,000 florins and more	101	.....	.3	.....
Total	33,999	7,805	100	100

If the foregoing data are grouped we obtain the following representation:

Salaries.	Men.	Women.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*
Less than 600 florins	48.8	62.9
600 to 1,000 florins	42.5	32.6
More than 1,000 florins	8.7	4.5
	100	100

This shows that nearly one-half of the men and two-thirds of the women teachers receive the "minimum of existence," which statisticians have estimated at 630 florins ($303.66); 42½ per cent of the men and 32.6 per cent of the women receive salaries ranging from 600 to 1,000 florins. This again shows a very disadvantageous position of the female sex, which is particularly noticeable in the highest group, where only 4½ per cent of the women are ranged, while 8.7 per cent of the men are found there.

The foregoing tables plainly exhibit the fact that the income of teachers, be they men or women, is low, about 650 florins at an average. Although the sum total paid to the teachers amounts to nearly 26,000,000 florins, and although this social class has become an important political factor, it must still be admitted that the pecuniary condition of many teachers in Austria is very modest indeed. This is the more striking as the school laws passed in 1868 lifted the profession of teaching to a new social footing. The appropriations and taxes voted for and paid by communities, districts, and Crown lands for school purposes, and which have during the last thirty years added new burdens to the taxpayers, are constantly increasing. Modern life lays claims upon the exchequer of the modern State which were unknown in former times. The new school buildings, furniture, and equipment require enormous sums; so that interest-bearing debts increase the annual appropriations for school purposes and even frustrate the best intentions of raising the salaries of the teachers. Austria has just cause to be proud of its enormous expenditures for school purposes in recent years, and particularly for its magnificent school buildings. The teachers of Austria stand foremost in the profession and command the respect of the world for their heroic efforts in behalf of public education.

Reform Schools in the Grand Duchy of Baden, Germany.

The system of reform schools[1] in the Grand Duchy of Baden in Germany is regulated by law of May, 1886, which began to operate January, 1887. The secretaries of the departments of justice and the interior

[1] These data are translated from a German magazine of recognized authority in statistics, Jahrbücher für National Oekonomie und Statistik, Volume XIII, Heft 3, page 446.

prepared the rules and regulations necessitated by the new law. The law is similar to paragraph 55 of the Imperial Criminal Code, adopted February 26, 1876. According to this code, persons who commit a crime before they are 12 years of age can not be tried for crime, but may be kept in custody for the purpose of reforming them, according to the special law of the separate State. Such children may be placed under reform training, if both the criminal and the orphan court have so decreed.

The Baden law goes two steps farther than the general imperial code: (1) It fixes the maximum time limit at 16 years of age; that is to say, juvenile criminals are not prosecuted or tried for crime in Baden if less than 16 years of age, but are retained in reform schools. (2) The law does not confine its operations to criminal acts, but requires that youths up to 16 years of age be assigned to reform schools for moral misdemeanors, provided (*a*) that parents or guardians endanger the moral life of the children by misuse of their authority or by neglect; or (*b*) that the conduct of the children proves that neither the good efforts of parents and guardians nor the means of discipline in school are adequate to prevent their moral depravity.

The Baden law (section 12) further decrees that if a person accused of crime between 12 and 18 years of age[1] is acquitted owing to his tender age and want of good judgment, the court shall state whether he is to be returned to his family, or placed in custody of another family, or be detained in a reform school.

The execution of the law is left in the hands of the county courts (criminal and probate "Bezirks-Aemter"). The courts are charged with the careful investigation of the conditions of the child's home environments, in order to decide whether the home gives proper assurance of wholesome influence in the future. In aggravated cases of moral depravity, which require constant supervision and strict discipline, the culprit is to be sent to a reform school without further delay.

Concerning the age of reform school pupils, only the maximum (16 or 18 years, respectively) is clearly defined, while with regard to the minimum the law is silent; but the ministerial regulations state that children under 6 years should be sent to reform schools only in specially urgent cases. The law specifically states that poorhouses, hospitals, and asylums for persons of defective senses are not to be regarded or used as reform schools in the sense of the law; but it admits to legal recognition as reform schools all institutions established by corporations and private persons or through endowment which have the purpose of saving morally depraved children and training them to be useful citizens and members of society. This recognition is granted by the secretary of the interior; courts are not permitted to designate any institution as a reform school so long as the secretary of the interior withholds his recognition.

[1] In exceptional cases the time limit is extended to 19 years.

The State's right to educate "by force" (that is, in reform schools) ends with the completed eighteenth year of the juvenile offender. Pupils may be dismissed from reform schools before they are 18, if the purpose of their reform training has been accomplished, or if it is reasonably secured by other means. This release is revocable at first, for if inquiry reveals that the guardians fail to follow up the good work of the school, a pupil may be brought back by the police.

One-third of the costs of this compulsory training is borne by the poor fund of the town or district from which the pupil comes. In case the parents can afford to defray the expense, the town may collect from them, and the State bears two-thirds of the expenses, except the cost of traveling, which must be borne by the town or district.

So much concerning the legal requirements. Now let us see what the results of this compulsory training are. According to official statements (year 1893) the number of pupils in the various institutions for that purpose and under the charge of families, was:

Number of pupils under reform training.

Year.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	Ratio of illegitimates.
						Per cent.
1887	69	48	117	96	21	18
1888	181	88	269	224	45	16.7
1889	303	138	441	368	73	16.6
1890	410	191	601	507	94	15.6
1891	505	229	734	622	112	15.3
1892	583	267	850	721	129	15.2
1893	697	341	1,038	893	145	14

From this table it is seen that more boys than girls were subjected to compulsory training. In 1893 the number of boys amounted to 67.2 per cent of the total number, hence more than two-thirds. It is of interest to note, also, that the percentage of illegitimate children decreased from 18 to 14 per cent within six years. It is evident that family life in Baden has improved even in the strata from which refractory and depraved children are taken to reform schools. The official statement from which the contents of this article are drawn gives no information concerning the occupation or profession of the fathers.

With reference to the kind of provision made for the children in need of compulsory training, it is stated that 440 (36.5 per cent) of the total number in 1893 were assigned to private families and 763 (63.4 per cent) to institutions, so-called reform farms or reform schools. Of the whole number (1,038), the majority (namely, 888) were less than 14 years old, and of these 336 (37.8 per cent) were placed in private families, while 552 (62.2 per cent) were assigned to institutions. Of the 315 who had passed the fourteenth year of life, 104 (33 per cent) were placed in families, and 211 (67 per cent) in institutions. Year after year, as the operation of the law became more effective, and the number of children assigned to compulsory training increased, the number of

those assigned to reformatory institutions remained in the majority. The latter proportion amounted to 57.3, 61, 60.8, 68.4, 65.7, 68.2, and 61.3 per cent in the successive years from 1887 till 1893. At the close of the year 1893, 19 pupils (1.9 per cent) of reform schools or given into custody of private families had escaped from supervision.

Of the 290 boys over 14 years of age assigned to families, 224 were apprentices learning trades; 114 in cities, 110 in the country. Of these apprentices 144 were between 14 and 16 years of age, while 68 were 17 years, 6 were 18 years, and 6 were 19 years of age.

The causes which induced the authorities to assign these boys to reformatory training were (*a*) degrading influence on the part of the parents in 71 cases, (*b*) depravity of the children despite good home influence in 153 cases. The conduct of 186 apprentices out of 224 (83 per cent) was reported to be good or satisfactory. Forty trades or occupations were represented by the apprentices; 33 were employed as stable boys, 23 as farm hands, 19 learned the cobbler's trade, 18 were in joiner's shops, 17 were bakers, 17 tailors, 11 saddlers, etc.

Of the 82 girls over 14 years of age assigned to families, 46 were employed as house servants, 3 as factory hands, 6 as dressmakers and seamstresses. Of these 55 pupils, 42 were between 14 and 16 years of age, 9 were 17, 3 were 18, and 1 was 19 years of age.

The causes for which they had been placed under compulsory training were (*a*) degrading influence on the part of the parents in 33 cases, (*b*) depravity of the children despite good home influence or neglect in 22 cases. The conduct of 45 (81.8 per cent) proved very satisfactory. The official data give no information concerning the occupation of children under 14 years of age, but it is presumed that they attend school.

Considerable differences are noticeable in the ages of the pupils. They are here tabulated in percentages for each year that the law has been in operation:

Age of pupils under reform training.

Year.	Under 10 years.	10 to 14 years.	Over 14 years.	Total.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1887	35	47	18	100
1888	28.6	57.8	13.6	100
1889	31.5	49.7	18.8	100
1890	21.3	51.1	27.6	100
1891	24.3	46.1	29.6	100
1892	20	44.1	35.9	100
1893	19.8	46.8	33.6	100
Average	25	48.8	26.2	100

While the annual number of children between 10 and 14 years of age remained at about one-half of the sum total, the numbers of those under 10 and over 14 show an almost uniform change, the former of descending the latter of ascending tendency. From this it is seen that the authorities commit young children to compulsory training much more

rarely of late years than seemed desirable at the beginning. It is possible that the cost of maintenance of these children induces the authorities not to resort to reform training.

German governmental authorities recognize in their statistical tabulations only three religious denominations: Catholic, Protestant, and Jews, to which sometimes they add a column for Dissenters "or others." The proportion of Catholics and Protestants among the children under discussion was as follows:

Year.	Catholics.	Protestants.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*
1887	58.1	41.9
1888	66.9	33.1
1889	61.9	38.1
1890	72.4	27.6
1891	65.7	34.3
1892	64.7	35.3
1893	64.7	35.3

This proportion is very nearly analogous to the proportion of Catholics and Protestants in the population which was in 1890, 36 per cent Protestants and 62 per cent Catholics.

It is interesting to observe how many of the children under reformatory training had parents. At the time when the courts decided upon their fate there had—

Year.	Both parents.	Only father.	Only mother.	Neither father nor mother.
1887	60	25	30	2
1888	76	21	48	9
1889	76	31	62	12
1890	72	28	67	7
1891	72	38	55	4
1892	92	26	44	8
1893	109	55	66	8
Total	559	224	372	50

Of the total number 46.3 per cent had both parents living, 18.6 per cent had only father left, 30.9 per cent only a mother, and 4.2 per cent were orphans. The remarkably greater representation of children who had no father is explained by the relatively large proportion of illegitimate children, partly owing to the relatively larger number of widows. The census of 1890 showed that Baden had 29,521 widowers and 70,236 widows. Another cause of the apparent disproportion may be found in the fact that woman's labor is poorly paid, hence that lone mothers are not always able to properly train and look after their children. Likewise interesting is the fact that among the 224 children who had only a father 29 per cent were girls, and that among the 372 who had only a mother 35.5 per cent were girls.

The following table gives information concerning the causes that made reformatory training necessary:

Year.	Parents endangering children's character.		Depravity or inadequate home training.		Criminal acts.	
	Number.	Ratio.	Number.	Ratio.	Number.	Ratio.
		Per cent.		*Per cent.*		*Per cent.*
1887	77	65.8	39	33.3	1	0.9
1888	82	53.2	71	46.1	1	.7
1889	80	44.2	97	53.6	4	2.2
1890	75	43.1	94	54.0	5	2.9
1891	69	40.9	94	55.6	6	3.5
1892	67	39.4	98	57.7	5	2.9
1893	93	39.1	138	58.0	7	2.9
Total	543	45.2	631	52.4	29	2.4

The length of reformatory training in 26 cases was less than one year; in 44 cases, one to two years; in 65 cases, two to three years; in 51 cases, three to four years; in 41 cases, four to five years; in 17 cases, five to six years, and in 5 cases, over six years. Children released were returned to their parents in 63 cases; given over to relatives or guardians in 16 cases; 121 entered some sort of service; of the remaining 32 cases, 5 "went to America;" 9 having learned a trade, became traveling journeymen; 3 remained in the institutions to learn housekeeping; 3 were sent to asylums for idiots or insane; 7 escaped; 4 were taken to prison, and 1 girl was "lost in bad company."

Of all those who since 1888 had been released, 125 (among whom were 13 girls) entered upon some kind of industrial pursuit; 23 (only boys) chose farm labor; 41 (of 70) girls entered upon domestic service. These facts give hints as to the strata of society from which the children came.

The results or effects of reformatory training depend essentially upon the causes which necessitate it, that is to say, whether the children are subjected to dangerous parental influence, or whether their home influence, though not vicious, is nevertheless injurious, because inadequate, or whether their own depravity is so great that society is endangered by them. It depends, furthermore, upon the sex, age, and method of training of the pupils, and, lastly, upon their being assigned to an institution or to a private family. With regard to these various influences, the statistical data at hand state results which may be tabulated. To facilitate comparison ratios are employed. Of every 100 pupils the effect was—

	Satisfactory.	Doubtful.	Not satisfactory.	Unknown.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Of those released	77.1	12.1	10.4	0.4
Of all the pupils	76.8	7.8	13	2.4

Generally the effect was satisfactory. Of every 100 pupils—

	In families.	In reform schools.	Average.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Of all the pupils	85.2	71.7	76.8
Of boys	84.2	71.6	76
Of girls	87.6	71.8	78.4
Of children under 14	92.3	69.1	78.6
Of children over 14	82.1	74	75.8
Of boys under 14	91.2	67.5	76.1
Of boys over 14	81.9	75.8	76
Of girls under 14	93.9	72.1	82.7
Of girls over 14	82.7	71.6	75.1
Of children admitted because endangered by parents (cause *a*)	88.2	80.2	83.3
Of children admitted owing to inadequate home training or viciousness (causes b and *c*)	82	66.1	71.4
Of boys (cause *a*)	85.6	78.4	81.1
Of boys (causes *b* and *c*)	83.1	68.3	72.9
Of girls (cause *a*)	92.3	82	86.3
Of girls (causes *b* and *c*)	77.2	61.8	66.9
Of released pupils:			
Total	75.6	88.3	77.1
Boys	76.7	84.4	75.6
Girls	72.7	93.8	80.5

The data show that the effect of compulsory training is not the same for both sexes, nor the same with regard to institute and family training. Generally speaking, the results are less favorable with the boys than with the girls; much more favorable with children under 14 years of age than with those over 14, and less favorable among those who were admitted owing to inadequate home influence or their own depravity. In viewing the effects of family and institute training it must be borne in mind that (1) the worst characters are assigned to institutions—children who could not well be put in families, and (2) that the opinion concerning what is satisfactory conduct in institutions and families is not in all cases equally well based.

The expenditures for the support of pupils under compulsory training amounted to—

Year.	In families.	In institutions.	Total.	Per capita.
1889			$9,857	$22.71
1890	$3,731	$10,773	14,504	22.16
1891	4,087	12,848	16,935	21.12
1892	5,083	15,614	20,697	21.74
1893	3,549	16,277	19,826	19.10

The decrease in expenditures is explained by the more frequent assignment of children to families who desire to take them free of cost, a practice which does not recommend itself, since experience shows that the children thus assigned are unduly burdened with work and merely used as drudges, and that the families who petition that pupils be assigned to them do not always exercise the most wholesome educational influence upon their charges.

It is a matter of self-evidence that the cities furnish a larger proportion of pupils who need reformatory training than the rural districts. Mannheim, Karlsruhe, Freiburg, and Heidelberg are represented with

37 per cent of the sum total of pupils, though these cities have only 23 per cent of the population of the Grand Duchy.

The population of the United States is about thirty-six times greater than that of Baden; hence we ought to have 39,368 children under reformatory training, taking the number Baden represents as a criterion, while actually we have only 20,201, according to the statistics offered in the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1893–94. These 20,201 children cost the States (in 1893) $2,562,411, which is $126.85 per capita, cost of permanent improvements for grounds and buildings not counted. The per capita in Baden was $19.10 in 1893. This enormous difference is explained by the foregoing facts.

STATISTICS OF GERMAN, AUSTRIAN, AND SWISS UNIVERSITIES, POLYTECHNICA, AGRICULTURAL, VETERINARY, FORESTRY, AND MINING ACADEMIES.

The statistical data concerning German universities offered in the following tables are based upon official publications for the two semesters quoted, namely, the winter semester of 1894–95 and the summer semester of 1895. The Lyceum Hosianum in Braunsberg has not been included, inasmuch as the characteristics of a university are wanting there; it comprises only a theological faculty. The data concerning the agricultural school in organic connection with the university of Bonn do not reveal a separate number of students; this, however, is a mere trifle.

The data concerning the polytechnical and other professional schools are based upon direct information furnished by the officials of these institutions. It was somewhat difficult to state the totals correctly, since the course of study in these institutions varies considerably, some leaning more toward mechanical engineering, others toward other branches of technology. The statements concerning the number of foreigners among the students of technological universities are not complete, although it would be particularly interesting to compare the attendance of foreign students in these institutions with that in universities. Irregularities and peculiarities in the employment of professors and the attendance of students are stated in footnotes to each table.

The tables are compiled by the editor of the Academische Revue, published in Munich. (No. 16, vol. 2, pp. 200–212.)

I.—*German universities.*

PROFESSORS IN 1894-95.

University.	Total number of professors and instructors.	Catholic theological faculty.					Protestant theological faculty.					Law faculty.					Medical faculty.						Philosophical faculty.					
		Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Docents of dentistry.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Tutors.	Total.
Berlin	347	....	....	....	....	....	8	1	7	2	18	11	3	4	10	28	14	4	33	69	1	122	51	3	40	82	4	180
Bonn	140	8	....	2	....	10	6	....	3	2	11	9	....	1	2	12	11	1	11	16	....	39	30	....	14	23	2	69
Breslau	142	9	....	2	....	11	6	....	3	2	11	6	....	1	3	10	11	....	14	18	1	44	34	....	10	20	3	67
Erlangen	60	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	2	9	7	....	....	....	7	9	....	6	....	....	15	20	....	4	5	....	29
Freiburg	107	7	2	1	1	11	....	....	....	....	....	10	....	....	....	10	13	....	9	12	....	34	18	3	18	12	1	52
Giessen	62	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	1	....	6	5	....	2	....	7	10	....	4	3	....	17	22	1	4	5	....	32
Göttingen	117	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	1	4	12	8	1	1	2	12	11	1	6	7	1	26	38	....	13	14	2	67
Greifswald	85	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	3	10	6	....	1	1	8	9	....	10	3	....	22	23	....	7	15	....	45
Halle	135	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	2	3	12	9	1	1	1	12	12	....	19	9	....	31	27	2	16	27	8	80
Heidelberg	125	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	1	8	7	....	4	....	11	11	2	8	13	....	34	20	8	28	13	3	72
Jena	93	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	1	2	8	7	2	1	....	10	10	2	9	4	....	25	17	4	18	11	....	50
Kiel	91	....	....	....	....	....	5	1	1	....	7	5	....	1	2	8	7	....	8	9	....	24	24	....	10	16	2	52
Königsberg	106	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	4	2	11	6	....	....	3	9	8	....	10	15	1	34	29	....	9	12	2	52
Leipzig	196	....	....	....	....	....	8	1	2	3	14	10	1	3	6	20	11	1	18	22	....	52	38	10	33	29	....	110
Marburg	96	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	....	5	11	7	....	1	4	12	11	1	3	7	1	23	24	....	11	13	2	50
Munich	172	9	....	....	1	10	....	....	....	....	....	10	....	1	6	17	14	....	10	28	1	53	36	3	12	41	....	92
Münster	43	7	....	2	2	11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	15	1	11	4	1	32
Rostock	42	....	....	....	....	....	4	....	....	....	4	5	....	....	....	5	8	....	5	1	....	14	12	....	6	1	....	19
Strassburg	128	....	....	....	....	....	8	....	2	1	11	9	....	2	....	11	12	....	11	11	....	34	31	3	14	22	2	72
Tübingen	83	5	....	1	....	6	5	....	1	....	6	7	....	1	....	8	9	....	4	4	....	17	25	....	10	9	2	46
Würzburg	79	7	1	1	....	9	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	....	1	7	9	1	6	16	....	32	18	....	4	9	....	31
Total	2,451	52	3	9	4	68	103	3	31	32	169	150	8	25	41	224	210	13	195	267	6	691	552	38	290	385	34	1,299

PROFESSORS IN 1895.

Berlin	355	....	....	....	....	....	9	1	7	2	19	11	3	3	9	26	15	4	31	73	1	124	52	3	40	87	4	186
Bonn	144	8	....	2	....	10	6	....	3	2	11	9	....	2	2	13	11	1	11	17	....	40	30	....	14	24	2	70
Breslau	141	10	....	2	....	12	6	....	3	2	11	6	....	1	3	10	11	....	14	13	1	39	34	....	14	18	3	69
Erlangen	60	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	2	9	6	....	....	....	6	10	....	5	....	....	15	20	....	5	5	....	30
Freiburg	107	8	1	2	....	11	....	....	....	....	....	10	....	....	....	10	13	....	11	11	....	35	17	3	18	12	1	51

Giessen	66	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	1	....	6	5	....	2	....	7	10	....	5	4	....	19	23	1	4	6	....	34
Göttingen	116	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	4	11	8	1	1	2	12	11	1	6	8	1	27	37	....	11	16	2	66
Greifswald	85	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	3	10	7	....	....	1	8	9	....	10	3	....	22	23	....	7	15	....	45
Halle	138	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	2	4	13	9	1	1	1	12	13	....	9	10	....	32	29	2	16	26	8	81
Heidelberg	123	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	1	8	7	....	4	....	11	11	2	9	13	....	35	20	8	28	13	3	72
Jena	93	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	1	2	8	7	2	1	....	10	10	2	10	4	....	26	17	4	16	12	....	49
Kiel	89	....	....	....	....	....	5	1	1	....	7	6	....	....	2	8	7	....	8	9	....	24	24	....	8	16	2	50
Königsberg	105	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	3	2	11	6	....	....	3	9	8	....	10	15	1	34	29	....	9	11	2	51
Leipzig	195	....	....	....	....	....	8	1	3	2	14	10	1	3	6	20	9	1	17	25	....	52	37	10	33	29	....	109
Marburg	94	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	....	4	10	7	....	1	4	12	11	1	3	8	....	23	26	....	8	13	2	49
Munich	166	9	....	....	1	10	....	....	....	....	....	11	....	....	4	15	14	....	10	28	....	52	35	4	12	38	....	80
Münster	44	6	....	3	2	11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	15	1	11	5	1	33
Rostock	43	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	....	....	5	5	....	....	....	5	8	....	5	1	....	14	13	....	5	1	....	19
Strassburg	131	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	2	1	10	9	....	2	....	11	12	....	13	9	....	34	32	3	15	24	2	76
Tübingen	82	5	....	1	....	6	5	....	1	....	6	7	....	1	....	8	10	....	4	5	....	19	22	....	11	9	1	43
Würzburg	78	7	1	1	....	9	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	....	1	6	9	1	6	15	....	31	18	....	4	10	....	32
Total	2,458	53	2	11	3	69	104	3	31	31	169	151	8	22	38	219	212	13	197	271	4	697	553	39	289	390	33	1,304

I.—*German universities*—Continued.

STUDENTS IN 1894-95.

University.	Total number of hearers.	Total number of matriculated students.	Theology.		Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.					Germans.			Foreigners.
			Catholic.	Protestant.			Total.	Philosophy, philology, and history.	Mathematics and natural sciences.	Finance, political economy, and agriculture.	Pharmacy and dentistry.	Total.	Natives of the State in which university is located.	Natives of other German States.	
Berlin	8,652	4,807	.....	473	1,617	1,166	1,551	764	512	41	234	4,179	3,467	712	628
Bonn	1,613	1,539	218	89	373	245	614	153	63	333	65	1,488	1,412	76	51
Breslau	1,339	1,282	245	105	326	295	311	109	68	31	103	1,253	1,233	20	29
Erlangen	1,168	1,131	.....	267	209	355	300	53	137	.....	110	1,099	591	508	32
Freiburg	1,216	1,136	215	.....	253	289	279	71	114	17	77	1,041	510	531	95
Giessen	556	528	.....	61	134	139	194	64	64	44	22	522	395	127	6
Göttingen	843	807	.....	142	208	207	250	98	101	28	23	740	611	129	67
Greifswald	774	748	.....	198	93	385	72	32	12	.....	28	735	652	83	13
Halle	1,660	1,553	.....	522	297	249	485	134	35	277	39	1,408	1,163	245	145
Heidelberg	1,230	1,028	.....	77	339	222	387	138	249	.....	.....	851	429	422	177
Jena	667	635	.....	59	133	190	253	96	32	25	100	559	187	372	76
Kiel	546	513	.....	68	77	257	111	36	36	2	37	505	401	104	8
Königsberg	745	706	....	101	207	216	182	50	48	16	68	665	655	10	41
Leipzig	3,112	2,985	.....	392	985	727	881	349	232	161	139	2,691	1,559	1,132	294
Marburg	853	799	.....	100	207	225	267	135	57	1	74	764	651	113	35
Munich	3,561	3,475	157	.....	1,112	1,125	1,086	415	285	118	268	3,273	1,869	1,404	202
Münster	419	409	275	.....	.....	.....	134	73	32	.....	29	406	373	33	3
Rostock	420	420	.....	46	88	110	176	19	133	3	21	409	206	203	11
Strassburg	989	949	.....	103	269	313	264	113	151	.....	.....	863	509	354	86
Tübingen	1,184	1,165	170	263	224	223	285	39	69	177	.....	1,141	892	249	24
Würzburg	1,492	1,347	128	.....	244	723	252	110	86	.....	56	1,291	603	688	56
Total	a33,039	27,962	1,403	3,066	7,395	7,764	8,334	3,051	2,516	1,274	1,493	25,883	18,368	7,515	2,079

STUDENTS IN 1895.

Berlin	7,464	4,018	.....	386	1,178	1,015	1,439	696	480	42	221	3,486	2,980	506	532
Bonn	1,850	1,776	239	84	424	325	704	183	86	372	63	1,726	1,629	97	50
Breslau	1,449	1,387	306	101	345	334	301	118	71	24	88	1,358	1,335	23	29
Erlangen	1,200	1,154	.....	314	234	332	274	58	132	.....	84	1,124	577	547	30

Freiburg	1,504	1,412	233	.....	448	443	288	88	116	12	72	1,328	442	886	84
Giessen	598	568	.....	64	157	152	215	73	71	53	18	562	437	125	6
Göttingen	909	878	.....	154	232	219	273	101	120	32	20	813	668	145	65
Greifswald	893	878	.....	255	127	404	92	45	19	.....	28	853	751	102	25
Halle	1,567	1,492	.....	502	283	242	465	157	48	229	31	1,357	1,136	221	135
Heidelberg	1,428	1,252	.....	73	472	275	432	163	269	.....	.....	1,046	370	676	206
Jena	768	730	.....	68	184	195	283	107	37	31	108	652	229	423	78
Kiel	783	759	.....	71	151	408	134	41	52	2	39	742	574	168	17
Königsberg	753	727	.....	109	206	242	170	46	60	5	59	687	677	10	40
Leipzig	2,957	2,798	.....	364	911	617	906	351	271	145	139	2,540	1,575	965	258
Marburg	979	954	.....	122	273	247	312	165	68	.....	79	893	753	140	61
Munich	3,754	3,662	139	.....	1,202	1,209	1,112	432	284	114	282	3,469	1,777	1,692	193
Münster	446	433	295	.....	.....	.....	138	76	34	.....	28	423	393	30	10
Rostock	432	413	.....	37	97	101	178	17	125	13	23	403	209	194	10
Strassburg	1,021	986	.....	93	307	300	286	119	167	.....	.....	893	499	394	93
Tübingen	1,262	1,241	167	298	279	215	282	53	73	156	.....	1,206	804	402	35
Würzburg	1,456	1,342	123	.....	262	707	250	99	96	.....	55	1,284	568	716	58
Total	33,473	28,860	1,502	3,095	7,772	7,957	8,534	3,188	2,679	1,230	1,437	26,845	18,283	8,462	2,015

a Exclusive of Braunsberg, which is attended by 45 students.

II.—*German technological universities.*

PROFESSORS IN 1894-95.

Institution.	Total number of professors.	Department of architecture.					Department of engineering.					Department of mechanical engineering.					Department of chemical technology.					Miscellaneous branches.					General department.				
		Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Assistants.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Assistants.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Assistants.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Assistants.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Assistants.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Assistants.	Total.
Aix la Chapelle	59	5	2	1	2	10	5	....	....	2	7	6	1	....	4	11	7	1	....	9	17	....	....	....	....	....	6	3	3	2	14
Berlin-Charlottenburg	325	9	11	14	72	106	6	3	4	28	41	6	9	9	59	83	6	6	11	13	36	....	....	....	....	....	6	8	20	25	59
Brunswick	113	13	7	....	....	20	15	4	....	....	19	17	3	....	1	21	10	5	4	2	21	5	....	4	1	10	8	10	4	....	22
Darmstadt	61	5	2	1	....	8	3	3	....	1	7	4	....	1	3	8	3	1	4	4	12	2	....	....	2	4	9	4	6	3	22
Dresden	69	5	3	....	1	9	4	3	....	2	9	6	....	....	6	12	5	....	1	7	13	....	....	....	....	....	15	1	5	5	26
Hanover	70	7	3	2	2	14	6	....	1	5	12	5	1	....	4	10	5	1	4	9	19	....	....	....	....	....	5	7	1	2	15
Karlsruhe	79	8	1	4	2	15	5	2	....	2	9	7	1	1	6	15	2	3	....	6	11	3	2	....	....	5	10	7	1	6	24
Munich	86	7	1	2	4	14	5	....	1	5	11	5	2	1	5	13	4	1	2	8	15	3	2	....	4	9	11	2	5	6	24
Stuttgart	78	5	1	1	....	7	5	....	2	1	8	5	3	1	3	12	2	2	2	3	9	7	2	6	3	18	3	15	6	....	24
Total	940	64	31	25	83	203	54	15	8	46	123	61	20	13	91	185	44	20	28	61	153	20	6	10	10	46	73	57	51	49	230

PROFESSORS IN 1895.

Aix la Chapelle	61	5	2	1	2	10	5	....	....	2	7	6	1	....	4	11	7	2	....	10	19	....	....	....	....	....	6	3	3	2	14
Berlin-Charlottenburg	265	9	11	....	55	75	6	3	3	20	32	6	9	10	47	72	6	7	10	14	37	....	....	....	....	....	6	8	22	13	49
Brunswick	114	13	7	....	....	20	15	4	....	....	19	13	7	....	1	21	10	6	4	2	22	5	....	4	1	10	8	10	4	....	22
Darmstadt	61	5	2	1	....	8	3	3	....	1	7	4	....	1	3	8	3	1	4	4	12	2	....	....	2	4	9	4	6	3	22
Dresden	69	5	3	....	1	9	4	3	....	2	9	6	....	....	6	12	5	....	1	7	13	....	....	....	....	....	15	1	6	4	26
Hanover	75	8	4	4	3	19	6	....	1	5	12	5	1	....	3	9	5	2	4	9	20	....	....	....	....	....	5	7	1	2	15
Karlsruhe	77	8	1	4	2	15	5	2	....	2	9	7	1	1	5	14	2	3	....	6	11	3	2	....	....	5	9	7	1	6	23
Munich	85	7	1	2	4	14	5	....	1	4	10	5	2	1	5	13	3	1	2	8	14	3	2	....	5	10	11	2	5	6	24
Stuttgart	80	5	1	1	....	7	5	....	2	1	8	5	4	1	3	13	2	2	2	3	9	7	2	7	4	20	3	14	6	....	23
Total	887	65	32	13	67	177	54	15	7	34	113	57	25	14	77	173	43	24	27	63	157	20	6	11	12	49	72	56	54	36	218

II.—*German technological universities*—Continued.

STUDENTS IN 1894–95.

Institution.	Total number of students.	Germans.			Foreigners.	Department of architecture.				Department of engineering.				Department of mechanical engineering.				Department of chemical technology.				Miscellaneous branches.				General department.			
		Natives of State.	From other States.	Total Germans.		Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.
Aix-la-Chapelle	305	230	15	245	60	27	21	....	48	31	3	....	34	90	27	....	117	65	29	....	94	....	....	....	....	....	12	....	12
Berlin-Charlottenburg	2,632	2,414		2,414	218	324	....	180	504	451	....	21	472	988	....	300	1,288	140	....	31	171	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Brunswick	370	133	208	341	29	31	9	....	40	45	5	....	50	88	63	....	151	40	22	....	62	21	....	....	21	6	....	40	46
Darmstadt	743	252	412	664	79	63	....	14	77	80	....	7	87	181	....	21	202	66	....	16	82	237	....	20	257	21	....	17	38
Dresden	518	278	101	379	139	56	24	....	80	129	3	....	132	150	25	....	175	93	13	....	106	....	....	....	....	22	3	....	25
Hanover	814	586	138	724	90	63	13	41	117	154	3	10	167	196	3	58	257	132	39	60	231	....	....	....	....	4	37	1	42
Karlsruhe	902	370	532	902	....	99	....	16	115	90	....	1	91	380	....	37	417	125	....	11	136	41	....	....	41	19	....	2	21
Munich	1,415	847	322	1,169	246	143	83	23	249	311	5	5	321	380	47	11	438	95	14	31	140	22	7	9	38	59	14	156	229
Stuttgart	570	356	123	479	91	66	69	....	135	85	10	....	95	129	69	....	198	58	13	....	71	2	16	....	18	46	7	....	53
Total	8,269	3,052	1,851	7,317	952	872	219	274	1,365	1,376	29	44	1,449	2,582	234	427	3,243	814	130	149	1,093	323	23	29	375	177	73	216	466
		2,414																											

STUDENTS IN 1895.

Institution.	Total number of students.	Germans.			Foreigners.	Department of architecture.				Department of engineering.				Department of mechanical engineering.				Department of chemical technology.				Miscellaneous branches.				General department.			
		Natives of State.	From other States.	Total Germans.		Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.	Matriculated students.	Hearers.	Hospitants.	Total.
Aix-la-Chapelle	316	238	20	258	58	30	19	....	49	35	3	....	38	92	26	....	118	64	30	....	94	....	....	....	....	2	....	15	17
Berlin-Charlottenburg	2,396	2,214		2,214	182	320	....	135	455	423	....	20	443	895	....	287	1,182	129	....	27	156	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Brunswick	368	138	196	334	34	30	8	....	38	46	3	....	49	95	55	....	150	55	21	....	76	19	....	....	19	5	....	29	34
Darmstadt	770	251	436	687	83	66	....	7	73	93	....	5	98	191	....	20	211	67	....	13	80	256	....	20	276	25	....	7	32
Dresden	580	318	115	433	147	70	24	....	94	152	3	....	155	166	28	....	194	96	16	....	112	....	....	....	....	21	4	....	25
Hanover	964	696	168	864	100	73	14	50	137	186	3	14	203	218	4	71	293	161	41	82	284	....	....	....	....	5	41	1	47
Karlsruhe	834	332	502	834	....	95	....	12	107	87	....	1	88	351	....	37	388	122	....	9	131	34	....	7	41	20	....	....	20
Munich	1,356	783	343	1,126	230	157	68	18	243	311	4	4	309	373	43	14	430	88	14	19	121	15	4	11	30	67	9	137	213
Stuttgart	494	306	122	428	66	58	49	....	107	65	11	....	76	116	70	....	186	50	12	....	62	2	16	....	18	42	3	....	45
Total	8,078	3,062	1,902	7,178	900	899	182	222	1,303	1,398	27	44	1,469	2,477	226	429	3,132	832	134	150	1,116	326	20	38	384	187	57	189	433
		2,214																											

III.—*German veterinary schools.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS.

Institution.	Winter semester, 1894-95.								Summer semester, 1895.							
	Professors.			Students.					Professors.			Students.				
				Germans.								Germans.				
	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total.	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total.
Berlin	10	7	17	414		414	1	415	10	7	17	376		376	1	377
Dresden	13	4	17	51	71	122	4	126	13	4	17	59	75	134	5	139
Hanover	8	6	14	183		183	1	184	8	6	14	199		199	1	200
Munich	8	4	12	172	19	191	7	198	8	4	12	153	21	174	7	181
Stuttgart	12	5	17	37	50	87	0	87	12	5	17	34	49	83	1	84
Total	51	26	77	260	140	997	13	1,010	51	26	77	246	145	965	15	980
				597								574				

IV.—*German agricultural colleges.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS.

Institution.	Winter semester, 1894-95.								Summer semester, 1895.							
	Professors.			Students.					Professors.			Students.				
				Germans.								Germans.				
	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total.
Berlin	32	.....	32	516	46	562	35	597	32	.....	32	491		491	51	542
Hohenheim	18	.....	18	39	52	91	34	125	18	.....	18	29	42	71	25	96
Poppelsdorf	24	6	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	24	6	30	350	25	375	11	386
Weihenstephan	8	13	21	30	20	50	16	66	8	13	21	29	26	55	14	69
Total	82	19	101	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	82	19	101	408	93	992	101	1,093
												491				

V.—*German forestry academies.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS.

Academy.	Winter semester, 1894–95.								Summer semester, 1895.							
	Professors.			Students.					Professors.			Students.				
				Germans.								Germans.				
	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total.	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total.
Aschaffenburg	8	1	9	121		121	10	131	8	1	9	120		120	10	130
Eberswalde	12	9	21	28	4	32	25	57	12	9	21	21	5	26	25	51
Münden	13	1	14	24	13	37	2	39	13	1	14	23	12	35	4	39
Tharand	11	.....	11	21	17	38	28	66	11	.....	11	16	15	31	24	55
Total	44	11	55	77	34	228	65	293	44	11	55	60	32	212	63	275
				121								120				

VI.—*German mining academies.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS.

Academy.	Winter semester, 1894–95.								Summer semester, 1895.							
	Professors.			Students.					Professors.			Students.				
				Germans.								Germans.				
	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total.	Lecturers.	Assistants.	Grand total.	Natives of State.	Natives of other States.	Total.	Foreigners.	Grand total.
Berlin	20		20	124	7	131	11	142	20		20	94	2	96	9	105
Claustnal	13	4	17	85	13	98	32	130	13	4	17	83	12	95	31	126
Freiberg	19	3	22	97		97	74	171	19	3	22	82		82	93	175
Total	32	7	59	209	20	326	117	443	32	7	59	177	14	273	133	406
	20			97					20			82				

VII.—*Austrian universities.*

PROFESSORS IN 1894-95.

University.	Total number of professors.	Catholic theological faculty.					Faculty of law.					Medical faculty.						Faculty of philosophy.					
		Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Professor of dentistry.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Tutors.	Total.
Agram	50	6	....	1	2	9	8	....	1	5	14	....	....	....	....	....	....	12	....	4	6	5	27
Czernowitz	41	5	....	....	2	7	7	....	3	2	12	....	....	....	....	....	....	15	....	3	2	2	22
Graz	107	7	....	....	1	8	12	....	1	1	14	13	....	8	15	1	37	24	....	14	10	....	48
Innsbruck	87	4	1	5	2	12	10	....	2	6	18	9	....	7	5	....	21	23	....	5	7	1	36
Krakau	96	7	....	....	1	7	7	....	6	2	15	10	....	11	7	....	28	26	....	6	12	2	46
Lemberg	72	8	....	1	4	13	11	1	5	4	21	1	....	....	....	....	1	15	....	7	12	3	37
Prague:																							
German	111	6	2	1	2	11	7	....	4	1	12	13	....	9	16	....	38	28	....	8	11	3	50
Bohemian	111	4	....	2	4	10	11	....	3	4	18	12	....	10	8	....	30	21	....	10	14	8	53
Vienna	428	9	....	1	1	11	16	4	3	23	46	25	....	32	130	....	187	46	....	15	70	53	184
Total	1,103	55	3	11	19	88	89	5	28	48	170	83	....	77	181	1	342	342	....	72	144	77	503

PROFESSORS IN 1895.

University.	Total number of professors.	Catholic theological faculty.					Faculty of law.					Medical faculty.						Faculty of philosophy.					
		Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Professor of dentistry.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Tutors.	Total.
Agram	52	6	....	1	3	10	8	....	1	5	14	....	....	....	....	....	....	12	....	5	6	5	28
Czernowitz	40	5	....	....	2	7	9	....	1	2	12	....	....	....	....	....	....	17	....	1	2	1	21
Graz	107	7	....	....	1	8	12	....	1	1	14	15	....	6	15	1	37	24	....	14	10	....	48
Innsbruck	88	7	1	2	3	13	10	....	2	6	18	8	....	7	5	....	20	23	....	6	7	1	37
Krakau	97	6	....	....	2	8	7	....	6	3	16	12	....	10	6	....	28	25	....	7	11	2	45
Lemberg	72	8	....	1	4	13	12	1	4	4	21	1	....	1	....	....	2	15	....	6	12	3	36
Prague:																							
German	111	6	2	1	2	11	6	....	4	1	11	14	....	9	16	....	39	28	....	8	11	3	50
Bohemian	111	4	....	2	4	10	11	....	3	4	18	11	....	11	8	....	30	21	....	10	14	8	53
Vienna	428	9	....	1	1	11	16	4	3	23	46	25	....	32	130	....	187	46	....	15	70	53	184
Total	1,106	58	3	8	22	91	91	5	25	49	170	86	....	76	180	1	343	211	....	72	143	76	502

VII.—*Austrian universities*—Continued.

STUDENTS IN WINTER OF 1894-95 AND SUMMER OF 1895.

University.	Total number of students in 1894-95.	Catholic theology.	Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.				Nationality.		Total number of students in 1895.	Catholic theology.	Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.				Nationality.	
					Total.	Philosophy, philology, and history.	Mathematics and natural science.	Pharmacy.	Natives.	Foreigners.					Total.	Philosophy, philology, and history.	Mathematics and natural science.	Pharmacy.	Natives.	Foreigners.
Agram	479	82	291	.....	106	45	37	24	468	11	425	79	245	.....	101	39	38	24	414	11
Chemowitz	370	57	264	.....	49	41		8	363	7	371	57	272	.....	42	34		8	363	8
Graz	1,552	95	606	702	149	119		30	1,480	72	1,369	90	592	556	131	100		31	1,302	67
Innsbruck	1,009	296	249	323	141	129		12	747	262	926	291	244	254	137	128		9	659	267
Krakau	1,305	69	609	438	189	47	128	14	1,221	84	1,230	66	615	370	179	45	119	15	1,157	73
Lemberg	1,455	314	922	84	135	119		16	1,414	41	1,413	310	906	68	129	113		16	1,348	65
Prague:																				
German	1,369	85	543	604	137	87	34	16	1,311	58	1,179	72	506	474	127	72	42	13	1,128	51
Bohemian	2,779	159	1,364	962	294	214		80	2,769	10	2,451	151	1,283	756	261	193		68	2,445	6
Vienna	6,714	190	2,550	3,207	767	307		460	5,150	1,564	5,459	176	2,436	2,213	634	236		398	4,385	1,074
Total	17,032	1,347	7,398	6,320	1,967	179	199	660	14,923	2,109	14,823	1,292	7,099	4,691	1,741	156	199	582	13,201	1,622
						929										804				

VIII.—*Austrian technological universities.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS IN 1894-95.

University.	Professors.								Students.								
	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Supplementary professors.	Private docents.	Other teachers.	Assistants.	Total.	Total number of students.	Natives.	Foreigners.	General department.	Department of engineering.	Department of architecture.	Department of mechanical engineering.	Department of chemistry.	Other hearers in different departments.
Brünn	15	6	3	.....	5	.....	14	43	232	229	3	.....	.....	81	92	33	26
Graz	16	4	8	1	7	5	9	50	204	188	16	3	12	91	58	23	17
Prague:																	
German	17	2	5	2	3	4	16	49	318	310	8	8	10	96	101	58	45
Bohemian	20	1	7	.....	11	7	23	69	635	627	8	30	36	198	130	184	57
Vienna	29	11	2	1	18	7	25	93	1,199	1,199		26	88	367	482	142	94
Total	97	24	25	4	44	23	87	304	2,588	1,354	35	67	146	833	863	440	229
										1,199							

IX.—*Austrian mining academies.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS IN WINTER OF 1894-95 AND SUMMER OF 1895.

Academy.	Winter semester, 1894-95.											Summer semester, 1895.										
	Professors.					Students.						Professors.					Students.					
	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Other teachers.	Total.	Total number of students.	Austrians.	Foreigners.	General department.	Mining department.	Smelting department.	Other students.	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Other teachers.	Total.	Total number of students.	Austrians.	Foreigners.	General department.	Mining department.	Smelting department.	Other students.
Przibram	4	.....	3	3	10	22	21	1	.....	18	4	4	4	.....	3	3	10	23	22	1	.....	19	4	4
Leoben	6	1	5	6	18	214	200	14	132	44	21	17	7	1	5	8	21	207	193	14	127	44	20	16
Total	10	1	8	9	28	236	221	15	132	62	25	21	11	1	8	11	31	230	215	15	127	63	24	20

X.—*School of agriculture and forestry in Vienna.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS IN WINTER OF 1894-95 AND SUMMER OF 1895.

Semester.	Professors.						Students.					
	Ordinary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Teachers.	Assistants.	Total.	Total.	Austrians.	Foreigners.	Department of agriculture.	Department of forestry.	Technical department.
Winter of 1894-95	14	3	15	3	9	44	291	283	8	117	149	25
Summer of 1895	14	3	15	3	9	44	248	241	7	88	139	21

XI.—*Swiss universities.*

PROFESSORS IN WINTER OF 1894-95.

University.	Total number of professors.	Catholic theological faculty.					Protestant theological faculty.					Law faculty.					Medical faculty.					Philosophical faculty.					
		Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Total.	Ordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Private docents.	Lectors.	Total.
Basel	95	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	3	1	11	7	....	1	3	11	12	....	5	11	28	17	....	17	11	....	45
Berne	113	4	....	....	....	4	4	1	2	....	7	10	1	....	5	16	10	3	5	17	35	17	4	9	20	1	51
Freiburg	46	10	....	....	....	10	....	....	....	....	....	13	....	1	1	15	....	....	....	....	....	17	....	2	2	....	21
Geneva	118	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	....	2	7	8	....	1	4	13	15	2	3	19	39	22	7	13	17	....	59
Lausanne	87	....	....	....	....	....	4	1	1	1	7	4	6	4	1	15	6	....	8	7	21	13	4	19	6	2	44
Neuchâtel	40	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	....	1	6	5	....	....	....	5	....	....	....	....	....	20	1	2	6	....	29
Zurich	118	....	....	....	....	....	6	1	1	4	12	8	....	2	7	17	9	1	4	20	34	18	....	11	26	....	55
Total	617	14	....	....	....	14	31	3	7	9	50	55	7	9	21	92	52	6	25	74	157	124	16	73	88	3	304

PROFESSORS IN SUMMER OF 1895.

Basel	94	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	1	1	9	6	....	1	3	10	13	....	4	12	29	18	....	16	12	....	46
Berne	113	4	....	....	....	4	5	1	1	....	7	10	1	....	5	16	10	3	5	19	37	17	3	9	19	1	49
Freiburg	47	10	....	....	....	10	....	....	....	....	....	12	....	2	1	15	....	....	....	....	....	16	....	4	2	....	22
Geneva	117	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	....	2	7	8	....	1	2	11	15	2	3	18	38	22	7	13	19	....	61
Lausanne	92	....	....	....	....	....	4	1	3	....	8	4	7	4	1	16	7	....	7	7	21	12	4	21	6	4	47
Neuchâtel	40	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	....	1	6	5	....	....	....	5	....	....	....	....	....	20	1	2	6	....	29
Zurich	117	....	....	....	....	....	6	1	1	4	12	9	....	3	5	17	9	1	4	20	34	19	....	10	25	....	54
Total	620	14	....	....	....	14	32	3	6	8	49	54	8	11	17	90	54	6	23	76	159	124	15	75	89	5	308

XI.—*Swiss universities*—Continued.

STUDENTS IN WINTER OF 1894-95.

University.	Total number of students.	Matriculated students.		Hearers.		Matriculated students.		Theology.				Law.		Medicine.		Philosophy.	
								Catholic.		Protestant.							
		Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Natives of Switzerland.	Foreigners.	Students.	Hearers.	Students.	Hearers.	Students.	Hearers.	Students.	Hearers.	Students.	Hearers.
Basel	527	456	3	60	8	360	99	.....	.....	78	5	62	1	162	3	157	59
Berne	712	548	82	39	43	444	186	7	.....	34	.....	142	8	212	1	235	73
Freiburg	305	240	.....	64	1	115	125	128	24	.....	.....	60	6	.....	.....	52	35
Geneva	815	521	132	101	61	246	407	.....	.....	61	7	86	11	235	39	271	105
Lausanne	516	382	20	70	44	236	166	.....	.....	54	.....	107	18	97	1	144	95
Neuchâtel	130	58	1	50	21	54	5	.....	.....	17	4	6	3	.....	.....	36	64
Zurich	822	548	133	69	72	394	287	.....	.....	30	.....	80	22	318	13	253	106
Total	3,827	2,753	371	453	250	1,849	1,275	135	24	274	16	543	69	1,024	57	1,148	537

STUDENTS IN SUMMER OF 1895.

Basel	609	434	3	170	2	350	87	.....	.....	75	6	56	3	149	6	157	157
Berne	648	527	80	26	15	437	170	5	.....	25	1	142	5	186	2	248	34
Freiburg	308	235	.....	72	1	115	120	131	30	.....	.....	58	8	.....	.....	46	35
Geneva	826	542	125	96	63	229	438	.....	.....	60	1	118	6	217	40	272	112
Lausanne	493	406	20	43	25	214	212	.....	.....	51	.....	149	12	92	2	134	53
Neuchâtel	107	65	2	30	10	59	8	.....	.....	18	1	6	1	.....	.....	43	38
Zurich	770	550	125	59	36	369	306	.....	.....	36	.....	75	14	296	10	268	71
Total	3,761	2,759	355	495	152	1,773	1,341	136	30	265	9	604	49	940	60	1,168	500

XII.—*Swiss Polytechnical University.*

PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS.

	Professors.				Students.												
	Ordinary professors.	Honorary and private docents.	Assistants.	Total.	Number of matriculated students.	Architecture.	Engineering.	Mechanical engineering.	Chemical department.	Pharmacy.	Forestry.	Agriculture.	Cattle raising.	Specialists.	Hearers.	Natives.	Foreigners.
Semester, 1894–95	54	47	34	135	757	39	198	288	129	9	27	26	9	32	473	431	326

SUMMARY.

	Germany.				Austria (Cisleithania).				Switzerland.			
	Higher institutions.	Professors.	Students and hearers.	Foreign students.	Higher institutions.	Professors.	Students and hearers.	Foreign students.	Higher institutions.	Professors.	Students and hearers.	Foreign students.
Universities, including Braunsberg	22	2,468	33,523	2,015								
Universities and theological seminary					10	1,112	14,343	1,622				
Universities									7	635	3,800	1,341
Polytechnica	9	887	8,153	900	6	344	2,719	90				
Polytechnicum									1	135	757	326
Veterinary schools	5	77	980	15								
Agricultural academies	4	101	1,093	101	1	44	248	7				
Forestry academies	5	70	310	63								
Mining academies	3	59	406	133	2	31	230	15				
Total	48	3,662	44,465	3,227	19	1,531	18,040	1,734	8	770	4,557	1,667

RATIOS.

There is therefore in Germany 1 professor for 12.1 students, an average of 78.4 professors and 926.3 students (of whom 67.2 are foreigners) to 1 higher seat of learning; in Austria 1 professor for 11.7 students, an average of 80.5 professors and 949.4 students (of whom 91.1 are foreigners) to 1 higher seat of learning, and in Switzerland 1 professor for 5.9 students, an average of 96.2 professors and 569.6 students (of whom 208.3 are foreigners) to 1 higher seat of learning.

Foreigners in Universities and other Higher Institutions of Learning in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, Summer of 1895.

The statistics offered in the following tables are taken from official statements furnished by the rectors of the various institutions mentioned. They are here reproduced from the Academische Revue of March, 1896. A glance at the totals shows that the number of foreigners studying in Germany is not inconsiderable. It must be borne in mind, however, that the numbers given represent only those of matriculated students, for those are the only ones who can be considered in official reports. The number of those who visit German institutions as hearers for some length of time, and without being matriculated attend clinics, work in laboratories, and listen to private lectures, is very large, but can not be stated with accuracy. It is estimated that that number exceeds those of matriculated foreigners. In the summer of 1895 the universities and other institutions of learning in Germany had upon their rolls the names of 3,362 foreigners. That is, in comparison to the total number of matriculated students, equal to 8.48 per cent. Of these 3,362 foreigners the universities proper had 2,015 (7 per cent), the polytechnica 1,041 (13.1 per cent), the veterinary schools 15 (1.53 per cent), the agricultural academies 101 (9.37 per cent), the forestry academies 58 (18.6 per cent), and the mining academies 132 (32.4 per cent). Of the 3,362 foreigners there were 966 Russians, 514 Americans, 467 Austrians and Hungarians, 346 Swiss, 180 Englishmen, 158 Hollanders, 142 Bulgarians, 116 Swedes and Norwegians, 82 Roumanians, 69 Italians, 57 Asiatics, 53 Frenchmen, 37 Servians, 36 Belgians, 36 Turks, 27 Greeks, 26 Danes, 22 Africans, 14 Australians, 8 Spaniards, 4 Portuguese, and 2 Montenegrians.

In the Austrian universities and other institutions there were matriculated 1,106 foreigners in the summer of 1895 among a total of 18,031 students, or 6.14 per cent. Of these 1,106 foreigners there were 987 (6.58 per cent) students of universities, the polytechnica had 84 (3.1 per cent), the mining academies 16 (7 per cent), and the agricultural academy in Vienna had 19 (7.66 per cent). The 1,106 foreigners consisted of 239 Germans, 236 Russians, 115 Servians, 111 Italians, 106 Americans, 76 Roumanians, 71 Bulgarians, 33 Turks, 31 Englishmen, 25 Swiss, 11 Greeks, 10 Frenchmen, 9 Hollanders, 9 Swedes and Norwegians, 8 Africans, 6 Belgians, 6 Asiatics, 3 Spaniards, and 1 Montenegrian.

The Swiss higher seats of learning matriculated no less than 1,667 foreigners among a total of 3,908 students. The percentage of foreigners here was 42.6. The universities alone enrolled 1,341, or 42.2 per cent, and the polytechnical school in Zürich 326, or 43 per cent, of a total number of the matriculated students. Of the 1,667 foreigners Germany had sent 549, Russia 399, Austria-Hungary 143, Bulgaria 137,

Roumania 86, Italy 68, America 65, France 63, Asia 26, Holland 25, Turkey 22, England 20, Greece 19, Servia 17, Sweden and Norway 15, Denmark 5, Belgium 3, Portugal 2, Africa 2, Spain 1.

From these summaries it is seen that as far as attendance of foreigners is concerned, Switzerland ranks first with 42.6 per cent of the total number, then follows Germany with 8.48 per cent, and lastly Austria with 6.14 per cent. This does not, as has been said before, include the so-called free lances who attend these higher seats of learning only for a time and who, being without proper preparation, can not matriculate, hence can not be counted as students by the officers of the institutions. They have, as a matter of self-evidence, most of the privileges of the students by becoming the private students of renowned professors, have access to the libraries, laboratories, experimental stations, and other accessories which are open to those who can pay the fees. In Germany it is the mining academies which are, comparatively, attended most frequently by foreigners (32.4 per cent), and the veterinary schools are attended least by foreigners (1.53 per cent). The proportion of foreigners in German universities has risen from 5.16 per cent in the year 1880 to 8.48 per cent in 1895. In Austria the school of agriculture in Vienna has the greatest proportion of foreigners, namely, 7.66 per cent, while the polytechnica have only 3.1 per cent. In Switzerland universities and the polytechnical school are attended by foreigners at about an equal ratio.

We give the tables in full as found in the Academische Revue.

A.—*Germany.*

1. UNIVERSITIES.

University.	Natives of Germany.	Foreigners.																					Total matriculated students.
		From European States.																	Other continents.				Total foreigners.	
		Belgium.	Bulgaria.	Denmark.	France.	Greece.	England.	Italy.	Montenegro.	Netherlands.	Austria-Hungary.	Portugal.	Roumania.	Russia.	Sweden and Norway.	Servia.	Switzerland.	Spain.	Turkey.	Africa.	America.	Asia.	Australia.		
Berlin	3,486	3	12	5	9	....	24	12	....	15	69	....	9	157	7	....	43	2	3	....	159	9	....	532	4,018
Bonn	1,726	3	....	1	3	....	6	....	....	4	4	....	....	15	1	1	3	....	....	....	9	....	....	50	1,776
Braunsberg	51	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....	51
Breslau	1,358	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	14	....	....	13	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	29	1,387
Erlangen	1,124	....	....	....	1	....	3	2	....	1	7	....	....	2	....	....	3	....	1	1	4	5	....	30	1,154
Freiburg	1,328	9	3	....	6	1	7	1	....	5	....	....	2	17	....	....	9	1	2	....	18	3	....	84	1,412
Giessen	562	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	1	....	3	....	....	6	568
Göttingen	813	....	1	....	....	1	5	....	....	3	7	....	....	10	2	....	4	....	1	....	30	1	....	65	878
Greifswald	853	1	....	1	1	....	1	....	....	1	5	1	....	3	2	....	2	....	....	2	4	1	....	25	878
Halle	1,357	3	8	....	3	2	5	....	1	1	39	....	1	45	1	1	5	....	2	....	17	1	....	135	1,492
Heidelberg	1,046	1	8	1	4	3	24	....	....	8	30	....	1	33	4	2	33	....	....	1	48	5	....	206	1,252
Jena	652	....	18	....	2	1	3	....	....	2	15	....	....	13	....	5	3	....	2	1	12	1	....	78	730
Kiel	742	....	....	1	....	....	1	....	....	1	1	....	....	2	....	....	6	....	....	....	4	1	....	17	759
Königsberg	687	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	34	....	....	....	....	1	1	1	....	....	40	727
Leipzig	2,540	2	17	....	7	5	18	4	1	5	28	....	9	56	2	5	33	....	6	....	53	6	1	268	2,798
Marburg	893	....	....	....	1	....	23	....	....	5	7	....	....	12	1	....	7	....	1	2	7	4	1	61	954
Munich	3,469	1	19	....	4	5	10	6	....	6	24	1	3	22	1	4	50	....	2	2	29	3	1	193	3,662
Münster	423	2	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	3	....	....	10	433
Rostock	403	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	1	4	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	10	413
Strasburg	893	1	1	1	2	....	6	....	....	6	15	....	1	9	....	2	23	....	2	2	17	5	....	93	986
Tübingen	1,206	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	....	8	....	3	5	....	4	10	....	....	....	....	2	....	35	1,241
Würzburg	1,284	1	2	2	2	....	3	2	....	5	10	....	....	13	....	1	6	....	1	2	6	2	....	58	1,342
Total	26,896	27	89	14	45	19	133	27	2	73	289	2	29	462	22	25	241	3	25	14	422	49	3	2,015	28,911

2. TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITIES.

Aix la Chapelle	258	4	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	28	2	....	....	19	1	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	58	316
Berlin	2,183	1	1	2	....	2	7	1	....	15	18	....	9	88	31	8	5	1	2	....	20	....	2	213	2,396
Brunswick	334	....	4	1	....	....	2	1	....	....	3	....	1	14	5	....	1	....	....	....	2	....	....	34	368
Darmstadt	687	2	6	1	2	1	1	....	....	4	8	....	5	37	3	....	7	....	....	....	6	....	....	83	770
Dresden	504	....	10	1	....	....	2	1	....	....	21	....	5	54	22	1	23	1	....	....	9	1	....	151	655

Hanover	692	....	4	6	....	....	6	2	....	10	5	....	....	16	23	....	....	....	....	....	11	1	....	84	776
Karlsruhe	711	1	3	....	....	....	3	6	....	6	17	....	1	63	....	....	11	....	....	....	8	1	3	123	834
Munich	1,126	....	14	....	1	5	3	18	....	5	46	....	11	73	1	2	28	2	7	....	13	....	1	230	1,356
Stuttgart	428	....	4	....	2	....	2	6	....	1	7	1	6	6	....	....	22	....	....	....	7	1	....	65	493
Total	6,923	8	47	11	5	8	27	35	....	69	127	1	38	370	86	12	98	4	9	....	76	4	6	1,041	7,964

3. VETERINARY SCHOOLS.

Berlin	376	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	377
Dresden	134	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	139
Hanover	198	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	199
Munich	174	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	2	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	7	181
Stuttgart	83	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	84
Total	965	....	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	2	....	....	6	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	15	980

4. AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

Berlin	491	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	7	....	....	30	4	....	3	....	....	....	3	2	....	51	542
Hohenheim	71	....	....	....	1	....	....	1	....	1	8	....	1	10	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	25	96
Poppelsdorf	359	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	5	....	....	2	....	....	....	1	....	....	11	370
Weihenstephan	55	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	....	1	1	....	1	....	1	....	1	....	....	14	69
Total	976	1	....	1	2	....	....	1	....	6	24	....	1	46	5	....	6	....	1	....	5	2	....	101	1,077

5. FORESTRY ACADEMIES.

Aschaffenburg	123	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	130
Eberswalde	26	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	22	2	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	25	51
Eisenach	36	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	36
Münden	37	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	39
Tharand	31	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	8	....	....	11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	24	55
Total	253	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	14	....	1	35	2	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	58	311

6. MINING ACADEMIES.

Berlin	96	....	....	....	....	....	3	3	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	9	105
Clausthal	95	....	....	....	....	....	3	1	....	5	3	1	....	3	....	....	1	1	....	3	8	....	1	30	125
Freiburg	82	....	....	....	1	....	14	2	....	....	6	....	11	44	1	....	....	....	....	5	2	4	3	93	175
Total	273	....	....	....	1	....	20	6	....	5	11	1	11	47	1	....	1	1	....	8	10	4	5	132	405

B.—*Austria.*

1. UNIVERSITIES.

University.	Natives of Austria-Hungary.	Foreigners. From European States. Belgium.	Bulgaria.	Denmark.	Germany.	France.	Greece.	England.	Italy.	Montenegro.	Netherlands.	Portugal.	Roumania.	Russia.	Sweden and Norway.	Switzerland.	Servia.	Spain.	Turkey.	Other continents. Africa.	America.	Asia.	Australia.	Total foreigners.	Total matriculated students.
Agram	414	....	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	1	....	....	....	....	11	425
Czernowitz	363	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	371
Graz	1,302	....	6	....	17	....	....	....	2	....	1	....	1	3	....	....	19	1	15	....	2	....	....	67	1,369
Innsbruck	659	....	....	....	89	2	....	1	93	....	2	....	....	12	....	....	33	2	....	....	33	....	....	267	926
Krakau	1,157	....	1	....	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	66	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	73	1,230
Lemberg	1,385	....	3	....	2	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	17	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	28	1,413
Prague:																									
German	1,145	....	1	....	25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	1	1	1	....	....	....	3	....	....	34	1,179
Bohemian	2,445	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	2,451
Vienna	4,966	4	29	....	75	7	10	28	13	....	6	....	55	105	7	19	43	....	11	8	67	6	....	493	5,459
Total	13,836	4	47	....	216	10	10	29	108	1	9	....	67	209	8	20	99	3	28	8	105	6	....	987	14,823

2. TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITIES.

Brünn	229	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	232
Graz	175	....	....	....	4	....	....	1	1	....	....	....	1	4	....	2	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	15	190
Lemberg	240	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	2	242
Prague:																									
German	313	....	....	....	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	321
Bohemian	591	....	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	9	600
Vienna	1,079	....	14	....	6	....	1	1	2	....	....	....	4	4	....	3	8	....	3	....	1	....	....	47	1,126
Total	2,627	....	23	....	15	....	1	2	3	....	....	....	5	14	....	5	10	....	5	....	1	....	....	84	2,711

3. AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES AND MINING ACADEMIES.

Vienna	229	2	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	9	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	19	248
Przibram	20	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	22
Leoben	193	....	....	....	7	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	4	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	14	207
Total	442	2	1	....	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	13	1	....	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	35	477

C.—*Switzerland.*

1. UNIVERSITIES.

University.	Natives of Switzerland.	Foreigners.																						Total foreigners.	Total matriculated students.
		From European States.																	Other continents.					
		Belgium.	Bulgaria.	Denmark.	Germany.	France.	Greece.	England.	Italy.	Montenegro.	Netherlands.	Austria-Hungary.	Portugal.	Roumania.	Russia.	Sweden and Norway.	Servia.	Spain.	Turkey.	Africa.	America.	Asia.	Australia.		
Basel	350	....	1	....	60	2	....	2	....	....	....	9	....	....	10	2	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	87	437
Bern	474	....	3	....	36	4	....	2	1	....	1	15	....	8	89	2	2	....	2	....	5	....	....	170	644
Freiburg	115	1	20	....	79	....	....	1	2	....	5	1	....	2	2	....	....	....	3	1	3	....	....	120	235
Geneva	229	1	51	....	117	46	10	....	19	....	6	9	....	16	117	....	8	....	4	....	13	21	....	438	667
Lausanne	214	....	50	....	100	4	1	2	5	....	2	4	....	7	25	....	....	....	6	....	3	3	....	212	426
Neuchâtel	59	....	....	....	1	1	....	1	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	8	67
Zürich	369	....	9	1	114	1	1	5	4	....	1	25	2	18	101	...	5	...	1	...	18	....	....	306	675
Total	1,810	2	134	1	507	58	12	13	35	....	15	63	2	51	344	4	15	....	16	2	43	24	....	1,341	3,151

2. TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY.

Zürich	431	1	3	4	42	5	7	7	3½	....	10	80	....	35	55	11	2	1	6	....	22	2	....	326	757

CHAPTER V.

MUSIC IN GERMAN SCHOOLS.

CONTENTS.—Introduction.—Opinion of T. W. Surette.—Historical review of singing in German schools.—Present state of method in Germany.—Selection of matter for singing.—Methods of instruction in the United States.—Methods of instruction in Germany.—Value of folk songs in school.—List of German poets and composers.—Literature: German books on theory and method.—German song collections.

INTRODUCTION.

The study of music in the schools of this country is attracting special attention among teachers, especially since the department of music of the National Education Association has been making inquiries into the history and methods of this branch of study. The situation is rather emphatically stated in an article in The Citizen (June, 1896) by Prof. T. W. Surette. The author asks:

WHAT PART SHOULD MUSIC HAVE IN EDUCATION?

Looking at the present condition of music in America—taking the country as a whole—one is struck by the fact that in spite of our great progress there does not yet exist any real relation between music and life. By this I mean that we have not yet apprehended what music really is; it appeals to most of us only as an innocent sort of amusement, and the idea of giving it any place in education and thinking of it as a potent factor in civilization, is only in its infancy.

It seems timely, therefore, to say a word as to what may be done in the way of bringing music more closely to people, so that a better use may be made of its great power as an educational factor, and to show wherein that power lies; to explain, as far as may be, just what the relation is between music and life, and how it may reach us and help us.

It is not difficult to understand why music is universal. It antedates language. It is the cry, in its infancy nothing but a wild chant of joy or sorrow, analogous to the cry of animals; afterward the rude song of victory or the wail of death; then the fisherman's song, the reaper's, the soldier's—each giving expression to those feelings for which speech is inadequate; without art, but true to nature. Through all these stages of civilization it has been increasing its power of expression, keeping pace with the widening range of human activity, with the spread of knowledge, growing as naturally as a tree grows, having a form as beautiful and well ordered as any form nature has molded. Where once it expressed the emotions of rude peoples, it now has come to be the voice of our highest aspirations, to picture for us what we should, without it, never see. As Carlyle puts it, "It takes us to the edge of the infinite and lets us for moments gaze into that."

It is the language of the emotions; in its highest expression it gives you the very essence of beauty. Take the Heroic Symphony, for example. If you understand it, you get from hearing it a picture more vivid and real than any verbal description could be of that turbid, fitful, solitary, and tragic thing which is the life of a great man. No words can convey to you as this music does the heroism, beauty, and love which are there. The inevitable and onward marching fate, the very ideal of it all—its essence—is perfectly expressed by the music. Words are but symbols through which the ideas and emotions try to find vent; music is their natural and real voice. Every other medium gives them to you at secondhand.

But of what practical use is all this? you say. What relation between music and life have you established by this statement of what music is? How does it affect morals or conduct?

It all depends on your point of view. If you think education consists in knowing facts; if your idea of a thorough preparation for life is a knowledge of geometry, history, and the other things usually learned in school and college, then you will not agree with me that music should find a place in our scheme of education. Music will not make two cabbages grow where there was only one before; it will not satisfy you as a good dinner will; it will not give you the consolation to be derived from a spring bonnet.

But if education is that sweetening of life which comes from happy surroundings, from a home where only the most refined influences gather; if it is the broadening of your mind and heart from love of nature, from observation, from experience; if it is the growth in your soul of the love of beauty; in short, if it is all those things which tend to make you a better man and a better citizen, then music is a serious, a logical, and a powerful factor in it.

I don't suppose any argument is necessary to prove the influence on character of great poetry, painting, or sculpture. What I desire to show is how much more active the influence of music is; how thoroughly wholesome, and how easily obtained.

There is a whole side of our nature which is left untouched by the ordinary affairs of life, and you find men who have devoted themselves to business exclusively, or to the pursuit of knowledge in one form or another, in whom the perception of beauty, with all the inspiration which comes from it, is almost totally inactive. It is perhaps a rather extreme case, but an interesting one, which Darwin's life presents. He says in his autobiography that up to the time he was 30 he derived great pleasure from Milton, Byron, Wordsworth, and Shelley; that Shakespeare gave him intense delight, and that he was fond of music; but in later life he could not endure to read a line of poetry; Shakespeare nauseated him, and he had entirely lost his taste for music.

"My mind," he says, "seems to have become a kind of machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts. If I had to live my life over again I would have made a rule to read some poetry and listen to some music at least once a week; for perhaps the part of my brain now atrophied would thus have been kept active through use. The loss of these tastes is a loss of happiness, and may possibly be injurious to the intellect, and more probably to the moral character, by enfeebling the emotional part of our nature."

This is, perhaps, too negative an illustration to carry conviction with it; but a positive expression of what the effect would be if one were to hear music continually is a little difficult. You can not measure such things by the rule of three. A tape measure is not of much use in estimating the beauty of the Venus of Milo, but there is no doubt that we are moved to the depths of our natures by the visions which we are vouchsafed by great music. When we are educated to listen to it, it touches us as nothing else can. For this reason, as well as because it is a so much more common factor in life than painting or sculpture—so much more easily obtained—I believe it should be an active influence in education.

For you may reasonably hope to do more with an art which appeals to the mass of the people than with one in which only a few are interested. In addition, there is

this further point: The influence of music is without taint; it does not give you immorality under the guise of art.

But you may say that music is fast becoming all that it is claimed it should be. We have our seasons of opera, our great orchestras; we crowd to the recitals of a famous pianist, and from one end of the country to the other thousands of people are engaged in teaching music; every country village has its half dozen professors, and altogether it seems as if we were really making music a factor in education. And there is no doubt whatever that we have advanced very much in the last twenty-five years; we have passed through the stage when Monastery Bells was a classic. But there is one fundamental difficulty with it all; we are on the wrong track. We are not making music a logical factor in education; we do not study it, nor understand it in a logical way; we do not even look on it as possessing the quality of logic, and we take it, or tolerate it, as a harmless kind of amusement. There is no doubt, for example, that in our church services, where it plays so important a part, it is simply tolerated by many people, even by some of the clergy. The names of the men who have written great church music are, in many cases, entirely unknown. As a consequence of this ignorance, a great part of our church music is vapid, not to say irreligious, and it rarely appeals to you as an integral part of the worship.

Of course, if it is to be the factor in education which we have here proclaimed it, it must possess the qualities of greatness. To be great an art must be capable of quickening the imagination; it must present beauty which compels you in spite of yourself; it must give you a consistent, logical, and satisfying picture; it must have a physiognomy, a plan, a consistent purpose throughout. Everything great has these qualities, this organic nature. Without it nothing can exist, neither an institution, nor an art, nor the human body.

Furthermore, it will be conceded that some understanding of this organic nature is necessary if we are to derive great good from the thing which possesses it, and, in the case of music, the conditions which surround it as an art are so peculiar that an understanding of its organism is absolutely necessary. A symphony possesses to an eminent degree the qualities I have enumerated as essential to a great piece of art, and, to a less degree, the same thing may be said of all music.

A moment's thought about the manner in which our impressions from music are received, however, will convince anyone that order and balance are absolutely essential to it. A piece of music which lasted ten or fifteen minutes, in which those qualities were absent, would be meaningless to everyone. The very nature of a musical phrase demands its repetition in some form or another in order to have continuity; otherwise it would not remain in the memory. In a symphony or sonata the themes are changed, thrown into new lights, dismembered, enlarged, treated in a dozen different ways, not unlike the manner in which ideas are developed in a sermon, or characters in a book or play. But it is all done in the ten or fifteen minutes, and when it is over you have only a faint notion of a tune here and there and of a hopeless noise which has seemed confusing and meaningless.

Most persons who have never studied music in a systematic way are incapable of recognizing a theme when it is changed, however slightly. Consequently, when they listen to a piece of music, they are like a person who enters a theater in the middle of a play and who has no programme and does not know what it is all about.

These qualities, then, which distinguish great music, which are essential to its greatness, must be apprehended by us—we must be instructed in its form and manner of speech; then it will educate us.

We must take it out of the place it now occupies as a parlor accomplishment, or as the pleasure of the passing hour, and study it understandingly. Our chief aim should be appreciation of the masterpieces of the art.

* * * * * * *

University extension suggests a right method of dealing with this music question. If we can get our audiences to see the value of a musical education, and how much

that is good and wholesome may be brought into their lives and the lives of their children by cultivating the musical faculty with which they are endowed, we shall have carried out the legitimate function of university extension.

If our colleges, besides teaching harmony and counterpoint to a few students, would have courses in analysis in which the form and structure of music is explained, and the pieces performed so that an intelligent understanding of them were possible, the amount of real education to be derived from the music courses would be incalculably increased. As they now stand, they occupy no vital relation to the college life and work.

If we can convince the people that there is more in music than mere pleasure; if we can make them see that their children may all have something of its blessings in their lives; if we can substitute for or join with the conventional music lesson a study of musical form, an understanding of the way musical ideas are presented, we shall be in a fair way to make music a factor in education.

Music having been raised to the highest degree of perfection by the Germans, it would seem proper to inquire into the methods of teaching employed in the schools of that country. This inquiry will naturally first turn to the history of musical education. The best statement on this point is found to have been published by Dr. Johannes Plew, professor in the lyceum in Strasburg, Alsace, Germany. Some results of his profound historical researches, as well as those of Prof. J. Helm, of Schwabach, are translated here in introducing a sketch of matter and method of musical instruction.

HISTORY OF SINGING IN GERMAN SCHOOLS.

In the school of the Middle Ages singing was, next to Latin, the most important branch. The reason of this is found in the fact that teachers and scholars were servants of the church. The church demanded of its servant, the school, that it prepare its pupils for singing during religious services. How generally this was regarded one of the chief objects of the entire instruction may be seen from the fact that Pope Gregory I, who is considered the founder of church music, is also revered as the patron saint of the school in Catholic countries. But since the services of teachers and pupils were required several times a day, and also occasionally in civil life, it was not always possible to let the whole school participate; and since not all voices were suited for figurate counterpoint, differentiation and selection took place, which resulted in the establishment of permanent choirs, variously called "chancery currende" or "symphoniaci." These choirs were recruited chiefly from indigent but highly talented students. In payment of their services as choristers they received free tuition and board. A source of private income was offered to singers by performing at all kinds of festive occasions in private houses. Instrumental music was not known. People even danced to the accompaniment of songs.

The importance given to the instruction in singing in school had, however, another reason—one that is often overlooked nowadays. It is that music belonged to the liberal arts, and that no student could acquire the degree Artium Magister (A. M.) unless he had mastered the

art of vocal music. It was the general opinion that no one could be a good theologian or a teacher without being a trained musician. Hence musical knowledge and skill became a "conditio sine qua non" for appointment. All through the sixteenth century this opinion prevailed.

The great division in the church during that century affected music least of all the liberal arts, and if it be remembered that two of the greatest musical compositions known, namely, Bach's High Mass and Grell's Mass in sixteen part music,[1] that is, two masses for Catholic church service, were composed by Protestants during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, it may be claimed that the great schism never actually affected the musical domain. Luther, as is well known, desired that Catholic church music be retained in the Protestant churches, and hence we see that the compositions of the old masters kept their prominent place in school till far into the nineteenth century. According to school regulations in force in 1559, the pupils sang in church "The 'Magnificat,' a hymn corresponding to the pure divine scriptures, a 'responsorium;' on Sundays and minor festivals a 'kyrie eleison,' and on high festivals a Christian 'sequence' (sic) or 'gradual.'"

Luther also utilized school singing as an essential agency in introducing chorus singing of church congregations. School singing was not only intended to prepare for participation in congregational singing, but also to prepare the choirs for figurate counterpoint, and for leading the chorus, for the organ as an accompanying instrument came into use much later.

Music was not only required for Protestant church service, but for the religious instruction of children it was found indispensable, since hymns and other church music awakened veneration of God in the hearts of the young. Luther, making the school the most important place, next to the church, for the teaching of the Gospel, considered school-singing the highest and most elevating expression of filial piety. "School," he said, "shall be the means to promote the art of music and through it the true recognition of God, the Creator and Saviour." Hence, because music had an effect similar to that of theology, as he thought, he gave to musical exercises a place next to religious instruction. If thus it would appear that Luther valued music only for its religious effect, we have evidence of his valuing it as important for education in general, and in this he was quite in harmony with the views of former times. Numerous expressions of his in confirmation of this might be quoted. Two will suffice:

To keep music in school is a necessity and youth should be kept practicing this art, for it makes skillful, genteel people of them. A schoolmaster must be able to sing, or I would not recognize him.

Music is a disciplining mistress that makes people gentle, tender-hearted, sweet-mannered, and rational.

[1] A composition in which soprano, alto, tenor, and bass are each subdivided into four-part music.

The methods of teaching thus far had tended more toward stunting than developing the mind. Not a trace in the schools of that time can be found where instruction conformed to the laws of growth. During the century marked by the thirty years' war all promising germs of popular education and good tendencies toward the cultivation of the people declined. With the close of the war (1648) the desire to live and to attend to education and culture returned. According to the school regulations of this period, the teaching of singing was compulsory. The most important pedagogical theorist of the seventeenth century, Johann Amos Comenius, includes singing in his course of study. In the eighteenth century, the Pietists made school instruction in music successful. Their laying stress upon individual feeling led to individualism in all teaching. They had a singular abhorrence to wholesale or class instruction, and hence studied and influenced each individual pupil. This had its effect upon music in their schools; songs adapted for individual feeling, arias, and melodies received the most attention.

Methods of teaching greatly improved in the eighteenth century. The dull, mechanical singing by rote was set aside in a regular system of instruction. Normal schools, though inefficient and imperfect as they were at the time, included singing among their studies, and endeavored to make excellent singing masters of their students. In the appointment of teachers musical ability was taken into consideration. The relatively best standard was attained by the institute of August Hermann Francke (1633 to 1727). Boys and girls received two hours' instruction a week in vocal music. That for the girls was limited to the practice of common hymns, while the principles of figurate counterpoint were taught in the boys' schools. Instruction in counterpoint began with the singing of the diatonic scale represented by letters on the lines, and followed by the chromatic scale and exercises in intervals. The technical exercises were connected with the singing of familiar melodies from notes which were followed by such new melodies as required similar notes for their expression in writing. Pupils were also taught pauses, tempo, and the different values of notes. The more advanced classes rendered religious airs of two parts in $\frac{2}{4}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$ time.

Increased attention was given to singing also in other parts of Germany during the eighteenth century. The school regulations of Hesse-Darmstadt (1733), Brunswick (1753), and Prussia (1794) are explicit on this subject. Singing was also advocated by Rochow (1734–1805), who urged special attention to church music. Rousseau makes his "Émile" cultivate a "pure, even, flexible, pleasing voice," and an ear for harmony and time. A systematic course of musical instruction was likewise pursued in the schools of the Philanthropinists, followers and apostles of Rousseau in Germany, as in the schools of the Austrian reformer, Ignatius von Felbiger (1724–1788). That these well-intended attempts toward improving instruction in singing brought about few results (for

it must be candidly admitted that at the close of the eighteenth century vocal music generally was below par) only proves how difficult it is to carry thought and honest efforts into effect, even when they are accredited true and just.

The most important epoch in the history of the development of instruction in singing dates from the time of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746–1827). Pestalozzi maintained that elementary education "should develop and perfect the inborn talents and powers of the human being—that is to say, the talents and powers of the mind, the heart, and the hand." For elementary education to attain this end, "observation (Anschauung) must be considered the absolute foundation of knowledge." By "Anschauung" Pestalozzi understands "the cognizance of external objects directly by means of the senses, and the consequent action of consciousness through the impressions received." As a matter of course, instances of the visible occur oftenest. Still the "simple presentation of sounds to the ear and the action of consciousness resulting from the impression received through the sense of hearing is just as much perception for the child as the perception of objects through the eyes."

Likewise, in advancing and originating the proposition, "from perception to idea," Pestalozzi maintained induction to be the only method conformable to the natural laws of development of a child's mind, and turned the course of instruction into exactly the opposite direction from that hitherto pursued. With the inductive method a new and broad field was opened to the teaching of singing. The increased interest awakened by Pestalozzi for enabling and educating the young in Germany benefited instruction in vocal music, too. School authorities paid greater attention to singing and how it was taught, and provided for a better musical education of elementary teachers. The best and most prominent men of the nation commended the art of singing as one of the most effective means for cultivation and education. That precious pearl of German life, the "folks' song," which had been forced into the background by church music, gained in importance and was looked upon as a valuable object of study. School authorities devoted more minute attention to vocal music in their plans of organization; the most important, however, was the development of a literature on the art of singing and its methods of instruction, which in a comparatively short time made such progress as to promise a rational system of instruction for even the most insignificant village school.

The earliest production of this literature is the Art of Teaching Singing, by Pfeiffer and Naegeli. Pestalozzi himself thus commented on this work: "There is promise in this work of excellent and welcome results for the educator and musician alike." These expectations were not realized, principally because Pfeiffer and Naegeli, as well as Pestalozzi, saw in music only an accomplishment easily acquired, if one had learned a little arithmetic and to measure. This narrow view

of the essence of music led to an overvaluation of rhythm and a depreciation of melody and harmony.

The Art of Teaching Singing, by Naegeli, is synthetic throughout. The first part, "Elementary work," is in two divisions, general and special theory of music. The first division treats of the duration, pitch, and strength of tones, the combination of these three elements, and the written characters for tones. Each new chapter is preceded by a thorough review of the preceding one. The second division, the special theory, treats of the methodical combination of text and melody. Single vowels, then syllables, words, and finally connected sentences, are set to tones and combinations of tones. Meter, breathing, analysis of text, etc., are taught in connection with the foregoing exercises.

Written especially for people's schools, it was just in these schools that it could not be used. As excellent as are its details—the chapter in notation, for instance, is valuable for all times—as a whole it is too comprehensive. Its methodic arrangement, moreover, contradicts Pestalozzi's "principle of sense-perception," particularly in that the beautiful in art in its perfection is withheld from the pupil until he has learned all its forms. Rhythm, dynamics, and melodics are, as the words betray, not objects perceived directly through the senses, but results of thought; in other words, abstracts derived from the production of music. A sufficient number of examples of melody and harmony should be presented for direct sense-perception before the discussion of scales, keys, strength, pitch, and the like is admissible.

Thus the merits of Naegeli narrowed down to the deep reflections which he aroused on the methods to be employed in teaching.

The demand for a method of instruction in singing which retained what had been approved in the works of Naegeli, and which covered their deficiencies by better and more practical suggestions, was met by B. C. L. Natorp in his instructions for the teaching of singing. Natorp also presents his exercises in rhythm, melody, and dynamics separately; and his exercises in rhythm and dynamics are, on the whole, similar to Naegeli's; in everything else he and Naegeli differ essentially. The latter begins at once with theoretical instruction, whereas Natorp prefaces every lesson with introductory exercises, confined wholly to singing by ear. Beginning with single vowels, and proceeding to syllables and words, these preparatory exercises were always to be used with accompanying text, so as to insure a pure, distinct enunciation, and a natural and easy intonation. Texts and combinations of tones should be taken from what comes within the compass of a child's life. Children, in this way, acquire an amount of musical material by experience that forms the foundation for a later knowledge of the elements of music. They have sung and heard many "thirds," before they are required to form the idea of a "third;" and often perceived two and three part music through the senses, before they are expected to distinguish the difference clearly and distinctly.

Another advantage is that Natorp, unlike Naegeli, does not conclude the subject of rhythm before proceeding to melody, and so on. He grades the different exercises proceeding from the first grade of rhythm to the first grade of melody, and from this to the first grade of dynamics. With melody, Natorp for the first time introduces the tones of the major chord for understanding and practice, first without, then with regard to rhythmic order. The other tones of the diatonic major scale follow the tones of the major chord. From here on the instruction consists altogether of practice. Nothing is offered but songs which contain elements that have been explained and practiced during the preceding lessons. Natorp uses dynamic exercises in combination with other elements, or in special lessons combined with melody. He uses ciphers as written characters instead of the customary notes.

Natorp's book is obscure on the psychological relation between the systematic or technical exercises and the songs and melodies learned. Nevertheless, the work met with general approval. For several decades it, together with Naegeli's "Art of Teaching," was considered authoritative on the teaching of singing; it molded the literature on the subject. The many text-books that appeared in the second and third decades incline either to Natorp or Naegeli. All deal with their subject synthetically; none proceeded from songs to study by way of analysis, in order to arrive at the elements of melody, rhythm, and dynamics.

Educators in Germany continued to interest themselves in methods of singing during the years from 1840 to 1850. Ernst Hentschel (musical director and teacher of the normal school in Weissenfels) brought about the next and most effectual measures for further improvement. He found fault that "in some schools pupils scarcely get as far as singing songs and hymns, being constantly kept at exercises in pitch, tempo, and note reading, etc. In many other schools singing of cheerful melodies was persisted in to the utter neglect of the formal end to be gained." Hentschel maintained that "the elementary course should combine technical exercises with singing of melodies, for both are important. Both should be taught during the entire school course. During the first two years, however, the pupils should sing by rote only; after that they should be taught altogether from notes." He urged that young children had enough difficulties in mastering the symbols of reading (letters) and arithmetic (ciphers). An 8-year old child might begin another set of symbols, the musical notes.

Hentschel's claims were soon admitted, and received full consideration in the "Course of study in singing for people's schools" by Friedrich Wilhelm Schuetze. He proceeded from the fundamental thought that "a child first receives the impression of an object in its entirety; after which it analyzes its individuality and examines the different parts severally." "Musical education, therefore, progresses conformably to natural law, if, as soon as sound becomes perceptible to a child,

repeated single tones, a succession of tones, sounds in rhythmic form, or, as should oftenest be the case, real musical compositions are presented to it, and it is thus first of all brought into contact with the world of sound." Consequently, "children must first become familiar with musical language in learning to sing by ear," and "subsequently in singing from written characters."

The valuation set by Hentschel upon songs as essential material for instruction in the theory, which valuation has remained unchanged to the present day, created the demand for suitable collections of songs. This demand was speedily supplied, and continues to act as a stimulus to composers. Though it is a lasting honor for Hentschel to have assigned the proper place for songs in the course for people's or elementary schools, and to have pointed out their educational value, it is still claimed that the complete banishment of the technical exercises from the primary school is a mistake, because it breaks the uniform connection of instruction. During the last ten years authorities in the method of singing, almost without exception, have decided upon the union of both. Hentschel himself modified his first opinion. As a rule songs are so combined with the elementary exercises that a greater or smaller number of exercises are directly supplemented by songs and hymns, the melodic and rhythmic construction of which embodies the elements of the preceding exercises. The only difference is that some lay the greater stress on the exercises, while others attach greater importance to the songs, to which the technical exercises are considered secondary. This naturally depends upon the musical education of the individual teacher.

To the text-books which make songs the living center of instruction belongs among others the "Theoretical and practical singing school," by Johann Rudolph Weber. This book advocates that the teaching of singing should be nothing more than "instruction which helps pupils on to songs." "The singing of songs and technical instruction in singing should be combined and support each other." "In every grade, the essential material of the organic (elementary) exercises consists of the elements of songs to be practiced and learned by heart, because to these as an entity in art the exercises are most easily applied." "Instruction must show the pupil how to perceive and recognize sounds severally in regard to time, tone, and volume." All the material for singing must be made "elementary." The simplest element, rhythm, forms the beginning. In connection with melodies the pupil becomes acquainted with major and minor chords, the chord of the dominant seventh, as well as with the foundation of all melodies, the major scales.

Departing from custom, J. G. F. Pflueger has adopted an analytic-synthetic method in his "Introduction to the teaching of singing in schools." After several introductory exercises, consisting of children's songs, the text and melody of which must be learned by ear, he develops the theory for the holding of tones, for pitch and volume, and the ideas

of scales, time, chords, and pauses; his lessons on notes, intervals, and the most familiar major and minor scales are directly connected with the preceding songs and hymns.

Pflueger advocates the method of induction, proceeding from simple tones and combinations of tones to the chief elements of music.

A warm interest is being shown at present in singing and in the instruction of vocal music. A number of practical educators are assiduous in their efforts so to plan instruction in singing in people's schools that it must lead to favorable results. Psychology and pedagogy suggest the principles for the perfection of methods.

(1) Instruction in singing must not be isolated; by means of song texts it must be kept in touch with other subjects.

(2) The concrete material for instruction in singing in sacred and national hymns and those peculiarly popular songs which in Germany for a long period of years have proved to be a real production of art.

(3) All technical exercises should proceed from songs and lead back to them; the elements for comparison in the process of abstraction should be taken from the melodies practiced.

(4) Symbols of tones, be they notes, ciphers, or letters, should be nothing more to the pupil than visible signs and forms for the special sensations of sounds. The eye should only support the ear.

PRESENT STATE OF METHOD IN GERMANY.

Dr. G. A. Lindner, in his Cyclopedia of Education, sketches the present state of method in teaching school singing in Germany. His sketch is here presented in translation:

In modern times instruction in singing has become an integral part of the course of study in common schools, because it is generally recognized that it forms the taste, ennobles the emotions, and proves to be also a good means of discipline, since it concentrates the attention and forms a means which will unite many into a community. The object of this instruction is to awaken a sense of melody, to promote the æsthetic and emotional training of children, and to stimulate patriotism.

In singing we recognize three elements: (1) the melodic, which refers to the pitch of tone; (2) the rhythmic, which refers to the duration of tone; (3) the dynamic, which refers to the strength and volume of tone and also to correct expression. Melody gives life to the song, rhythm gives regularity, and expression causes impression. These three elements must be considered by the singing teacher. It will not do, of course, to treat the one element exclusively until all necessary information is given and then take up the next, but the essentials of each of the three elements are to be given, which are then followed by more difficult work; but whatever song is taken up, it is first the melodic, then the rhythmic, and, lastly, the dynamic element which must be considered. In other words, first the melody is taught, then the proper time, and, lastly, the expression by means of variations in the volume of tone. For the common school the melody is not only the most essential, but almost the exclusive element, for tempo and expression are subject to individual preferences and emotional conditions.

Concerning the method and the course of study for lessons in singing in the public schools, the following points may be considered to have found general approbation in Germany. During the first two years of school, singing is practiced by rote. The chief object here is the development of the voice and the musical ear; later on instruction is based upon the foundation of reading music. It is generally conceded

best to confine the children's knowledge to one key, making the Do movable as occasion requires. In German schools a number of popular songs of interest to children, both with reference to text and melody, are firmly memorized and frequently practiced. Above all, it has been found necessary to begin the singing of pleasant, catchy airs quite early, so that the musical ear be trained, and since Germans, as a rule, are very musical, it is found that mothers and nurse girls work hand in hand with the school teacher.

A second and higher step in the singing lessons is singing from notes. The pupil is introduced into the laws and symbols of the art of music. A song which he has learned by rote is analyzed into its elements, and the elements thus obtained are reduced to the scale, sharps and flats are introduced, and the various keys developed. Instruction in singing from notes should not be neglected, because the subsequent musical training of the pupil makes it very desirable that he have knowledge of music. Methodical instruction in singing by means of which the pupil obtains a clear consciousness of the intervals, time, etc., is not possible without the ability to read music. Moreover, in practicing songs of two, three, and four parts, it would be exceedingly tedious to learn the several parts by ear only, since the accompanying parts rarely carry melody, and thus will allure those who cannot read music to sing the treble "unisono." The success of any instruction in singing, however, lies not in the skillful reading of music, but in the production of melody; in other words, not in the notes, but in the tones. It is therefore very essential that the teacher should sing, or that he play a musical instrument, and thus make his pupils hear the tones which they are to sing.

In the lower grades of the school the greatest simplicity is the greatest art. In the selection of songs much care, taste, and tact are required. Cheerful, joyous songs are to be preferred, especially when they have some reference to nature and the seasons; also patriotic songs, and airs which express general human sentiments, such as popular airs. In the selection of these songs the scope of the voices of children must be considered. In schools where music is read, the various symbols or signatures are to be considered in class before the melody of the song is taken up. In order to secure firmness and skill in singing, songs that have been learned should be frequently practiced in class, especially if they are sung in two or three parts, because the musical ear, while very faithful to melody, is less efficient in retaining accompaniments.

The National Teachers' Association of Germany, in its meeting of 1879, passed a number of resolutions, a declaration of principles, as it were, concerning the instruction in music in the elementary schools. These theses deserve to be translated and reproduced here, since they express the theory and method followed generally in German schools.

(1) School should educate and instruct for life; hence for the instruction in music the same principle should prevail.

(2) School instruction in singing should, first of all, nurse German popular songs (Volkslieder).

(3) Artistic results can not be expected and must not be demanded, but an aspiration for musical perfection should be awakened in the pupils.

(4) No songs should be taught and practiced which are not of undoubted poetic and musical value.

(5) In the teaching of even the simplest popular song the object must be to express that which poet and composer intended. The technique is not to be an aim but a means.

(6) Music is not only to create pleasure in melody and harmony, but must have an ennobling effect upon the heart.

(7) Pedagogical treatment in music lessons presupposes a teacher who is professionally prepared and skilled in the art of music.

(8) The education of the German nation by means of music and through music has a national significance.

(9) Singing should be taught in every school, not in lessons after school hours, but during school sessions.

(10) Instruction in singing should be given with the aid of a musical instrument, be that the violin, piano, or organ, and such instruction can be successful only when the teacher is well trained in the use of his instrument.

(11) Every normal school should have an experienced singing teacher, who has been well trained both in music and pedagogy, is acquainted with the methods of composition, and understands the value of popular airs and hymns.

(12) It is the duty of school authorities to see to it that in every schoolhouse at least one teacher be engaged who is trained in music.

(13) No pupil shall be excused from taking part in singing lessons.

(14) Exercises in reading music should be a part of every singing lesson all through the course.

(15) As to the matter of instruction, popular airs (Volkslieder) and hymns should be preferred in elementary schools.

(16) Only such songs should be practiced whose texts express noble, refining sentiments. The texts must be brought to the comprehension of the pupils before they are memorized.

(17) Punishment should rarely be administered during singing lessons, corporal punishment never.

(18) Lessons in singing are most suitably reserved for the last hour of the forenoon or afternoon, since they serve as recreation after severe mental work.

SELECTION AND ARRANGEMENT OF MATTER.

Mr. J. Helm, of Schwabach, Bavaria, Germany, an authority on school singing and methods of teaching, says with reference to the proper selection of songs that it is defined by the educational significance of singing and also by the position it occupies within the system of education. A translation of his opinion on this subject seems desirable, and is here inserted:

The beautiful is the sister of the good. The contemplation of the beautiful awakens a feeling of satisfaction similar to the contemplation of the good. Æsthetic enjoyments elevate and idealize; they belong to the highest pleasures of life. Though moral education is the highest of all human education, the cultivation of taste and artistic schooling are by no means superfluous. Occupation with art refines the mind, ennobles the emotions, and makes the individual more sensitive to the highest, which is moral beauty. Within the wide compass of art, music, next to poetry, can be brought within easy reach of the young, and within the extensive domain of music nothing is better adapted for class instruction than singing. The combinations of tones which instruction in singing presents to the ear excite involuntary pleasure in the pupil, and offer him elements for his ideas of the beautiful.

Singing delights the human heart and enlivens and animates the emotions. It is the language of feeling, the expression for pleasure and sorrow. There is no purer or more productive source of pleasure, and no nobler or more beautiful form of expression for the feelings than song. Singing combines melodic, dynamic, rhythmic, and text elements in such perfect symmetry, and so smooths contradictions and restraints by harmonic combinations that nothing else can provoke greater æsthetic pleasure. If technically correct relations and combinations of tones are often brought to bear upon the pupil's mind, more agreeable feelings will predominate to the probable development of a bright and cheerful disposition. The latter factor, however, is one of the most important presuppositions for the development of the interest and

the education of the will. Singing and the art of music should therefore not be withheld from the young.

However great the pedagogical value of instruction in singing may be estimated, it can not be admitted that it follows musical laws exclusively, or satisfies its own demands alone. Consideration for the general aim of educational factors makes it necessary for instruction in singing to keep in touch with other studies. Its texts make this possible. Instruction can be purely musical only with reference to melody, rhythm, and dynamics, while with reference to the text it must consult the sentiments expressed as well as the special claims of school life. Where this rule is observed, the songs to be practiced are adapted to feelings and moods of the pupils awakened by preceding lessons. They are then received with more interest, sung with greater feeling, and a deeper meaning is attached to their study. A lasting disposition of mind can be awakened by instruction only when the subject treated, to which interest is attached, is of such a nature that it appears of value not only to the child but also to the adult.

The greatest attention must therefore be paid to the selection of texts. Only such songs should be chosen in which text and melody are æsthetic, and have been proved to be productions of true poetical and musical art. Moreover, texts and melodies should be in proportioned relation to individuality of mind and vocal organ; otherwise songs can never become flesh and blood, so to speak; or, as the psychologist has it, can never be apperceived by children.

If these claims are justified, the elementary schools must abandon all attempts at presenting and studying complicated works, as well as songs of four parts, as they are above the capacity of the pupils. They must also set aside all songs specially composed and set to music for "school purposes," because they are seldom poetic in thought or musical in form, and, as a rule, rarely meet the requirements of a noble art. Moralizing songs must likewise be omitted, since they never originate in a healthy, strong, or vigorous sensibility, and therefore soon become distasteful to children. The source upon which instruction for people's schools should draw, can and must be no other than the national song, sacred or profane (secular).

"National songs are irreproachable music of God's grace; their author and contents are everywhere and at all times the same—the nation itself and the spirit of national life embodied in song. Whatever events excite national feeling, whatever affects the heart of the people, or is treasured in its mind in thoughtful moods, forms the inexhaustible contents of its songs and life."—(A. B. Marx.) The architecture of the national song is so transparent and so simple, the glorified deeds and events celebrated appear so plastic to the eye in their poetic garb, that it seems highly adapted to a child's perception; it is besides an inexhaustible spring of æsthetic and moral pleasure, truly classic in form and content, and never losing its magnetic force and its vivifying and refreshing charm for the mind.

Only those national songs (which term includes some of our church hymns) should be accepted as suitable for elementary schools which in the course of time have been permanently appropriated by the people, and have entered abidingly into mind and heart.

The sacred church hymn must be sung and studied in its original form, which is rhythmic. Melody, rhythm, and text are the essential elements of every song, and can not be separated without offending a cultivated ear. They exert a beneficial influence on taste and excite æsthetic pleasure only when they cooperate and leave the impression of mutuality. The movement and complexity of the rhythmic hymn is conformable to musical law, and therefore uniform; the restfulness and sameness of the hymn without meter and proper tempo end in a monotony calculated neither to thrill nor to animate. The hymn without rhythm dates from the time in which the life of the church and religious feeling had degenerated, and therefore can never be considered the result of a healthy, historical development. It is the consequence of religious indifference, and an idle self-relinquishment. That the rhythmic hymn is not above the ability and comprehension of the pupils in elementary schools is

sufficiently proved by the fact that many of our national songs, as they are sung in schools, display as great a diversity in rhythmic forms and as much interchange of accentuated and quantitative rhythm as the rhythmic hymn. The fact that church congregations in a large part of the Empire observe the rules of rhythm in their singing goes to prove that no insurmountable obstacle prevents its adoption in the course of school singing.

Material for instruction in singing may be divided into the poetical and the musical. The poetical half, the texts of songs, should be derived from object and language lessons. These studies should be so arranged that before a child begins to learn the singing of a song it has already become acquainted with the form and contents of the text. Where instruction in singing has not received this consideration, it must analyze the text. A systematic acquisition of the text by the mind of the pupils—not mere thoughtless memorizing—must under all circumstances be insisted upon. Neither in language nor in singing lessons should an incomprehensible jumble of mere words be permitted.

The chief duty of instruction in singing is to give out the melody, and in such a way that the pupils not only understand it, but are capable of repeating it with technical correctness. Involuntary pleasure on the part of the pupil created by the melody is to be developed gradually to æsthetic pleasure based upon comprehension. This is possible only when the pupils are made to understand the technique of music in an elementary way. Hence it will not suffice to teach by rote songs of one and two parts, but the elements of melodics, dynamics, and rhythm must be taught, supplemented, perhaps, by the barest elements of harmony.

DETAILS OF THE AMERICAN METHOD OF TEACHING SINGING.

Before the very successful mode of teaching singing in German schools is presented in detail it may be well to quote an American opinion on this subject. Dr. Edward Brooks, superintendent of public schools of Philadelphia, in a special report to the board of education of that city described the methods in vogue in America. This report, by showing how singing is taught in some cities, incidentally bears witness to the advanced state of method in this country. The author says:

Two distinct systems of reading vocal music have been current among musicians and have divided the judgment of the musical world. These two systems have each intelligent and earnest advocates, and it is therefore necessary to compare their merits and reach a conclusion as to which one is best suited to the work of the elementary schools.

The method of staff intervals.—The old system, which may be called the Italian system, taught singers to read music by the intervals of the staff, somewhat as in playing an instrument. The intervals between the lines and spaces in the natural key were learned and readily applied to music written in this key. In the different keys the intervals were determined by the flats and sharps of the signature, and these intervals were sung without regard to the key in which the music was written. Music was conceived as made up, not of scale intervals, but of a succession of tones without any relation to the tonic of the scale in which the music was written. That the method presented great difficulties is shown by the fact that comparatively few persons taught by this method ever became ready readers of music by sight. Most of them required the use of an instrument to learn new pieces, and many singers read music through the instrument which they played, imagining how it would sound upon the instrument. In this system, when the syllables *do, re, mi,* etc., were used, these syllables were fixed for the natural key and remained stationary throughout all the different keys, the system being known as that of the "fixed *do.*"

This system has been advocated by many of the leading musicians of this country and of Europe. This advocacy is not unnatural or surprising, as most of these musicians are instrumentalists, and the instrumentalist does not necessarily think of his scale or key note; he sees the note and touches the key or string which corresponds to it on his instrument, sharping or flatting in accordance with the signature of the key. He plays, or may play, entirely unconscious of scale relations, thinking only of the note on the staff or upon his instrument. It is entirely natural, therefore, that he should regard a method of singing by means of a movable scale as unnecessary and inconvenient. Especially if the syllables *do, re, mi,* etc., are used, does it seem to him not only inconvenient but absurd to change the position of these syllables for the different keys in which the music may be written.

This system of singing by staff or tone intervals is the one that has been generally used by those who train to artistic singing. The object in this instruction is not "sight singing," but vocal culture and the artistic use of the voice. Such singers are seldom ready readers of music; they depend on the instrument to give them the tune, their aim being the beautiful and artistic rendering of the music. Even the great singers like Patti are said to be very poor or indifferent readers of music, their dependence being upon the instrument in learning a new score. These facts demand our attention, so that the popularity of this method among so many eminent musicians may be clearly understood and properly estimated. The advocates of the method are largely instrumentalists and have not been interested in sight reading of a vocal score; or, when they were teachers of singing, the object was not to make independent readers of music, but artistic performers. Their views upon the subject are thus not only natural, but, under the circumstances, entirely reasonable.

The method of scale intervals.—The second method of reading music is that of scale intervals and the movable scale. This method does not think of musical sounds as intervals upon the staff or as abstract tone intervals, but as degrees of the scale in their relation to one another and to the tonic. The scale is regarded as a musical unit of thought, and each tone is considered or conceived in relation to this unit. The mind thus thinks music through scale relations, conceiving a tone as the *second, third, fourth,* etc., of the scale. The course of instruction begins with drilling the pupil upon the major scale of eight notes until he has mastered it and its intervals. These intervals are learned in relation to the fundamental note of the scale as well as in relation to one another. Having mastered this scale, which is purely a vocal exercise, the pupil is taught how to represent it on the staff in what is called the natural key. He is then drilled in reading by the degrees of the scale until he can tell at a glance the position in the scale which any note upon the staff indicates. Knowing the sound of the different tones of the scale, he can then readily read any score of the major scale in the natural key set before him.

He is then taught the use of flats and sharps and drilled upon the simpler intervals of the chromatic scale. The next step is to show how these flats and sharps, placed upon certain degrees of the staff, give a scale beginning on some other degree of the staff than *C*. For example, he learns that with the signature of *F* sharp the scale starts on *G*, with the signature of *F* sharp and *C* sharp the scale begins on *D*, etc. He is then drilled upon reading in the different keys, naming successively the degree of the scale indicated by the notes, reckoning from the location of the tonic, precisely as he did in the natural key of *C*.

In all this work he reads and sings not by staff intervals or tonic relations, but by scale intervals. In looking at a new score he looks at the signature, determines the place of the keynote or tonic, and counts the degree of the scale from that place of the keynote. He does not think of *F* sharp or *B* flat, etc., but of the degree of the scale which the note represents. Thus in the first two or three measures of "Home, sweet home," no matter in what key it may be written, his thought would be *one, three, four, six, five, three, five, four, three, four, two, three;* or if he uses the syllables which are often employed to designate the degrees of the scale, he thinks *do, mi, fa, la, sol, mi, sol, fa, mi, fa, re, mi.*

This method, it will be seen, is entirely different from that of tone or staff relations: it is based upon the musical scale and conceives of the different notes of the melody in their relations to the scale. If the syllables *do, re, mi*, etc., are used, *do* is always the first of the scale, *mi* the third, *sol* the fifth, etc. If the scale begins on *C*, then a note on *C* is called *do;* if the scale begins on *F*, as in the key of one flat, then a note on *F* is called *do*, a note on *A* is called *mi*, etc. The *do* thus naming the *first* degree of the scale is moved with the movable scale, from which the system has been called that of the "movable *do*."

The difference between the two methods may be illustrated by the reading of the following exercise:



By the method of scale relations and the movable scale this would be read as follows: One-three | five-three | four-six | five || five-six | four-seven | two-one | five || five-one | seven-four | three-two | one || .

By the method of tonic or staff relations one would think and read as follows: E_b–G, a major 3d | B_b, a minor 3d–G, a minor 3d | A_b, a minor 2d–C, a major 3d | B_b, a major 2d | B_b–C, a major 2d | A_b, a minor 3d–D_b, an extended 4th | F, a minor 3d–E_b, a major 2d | B_b, a 4th || B_b–E_b, a 5th | D, a minor 2d–A_b, a diminished 5th | G, a minor 2d–F, a major 2d | E_b, a major 2d || .

I have merely named the intervals between successive notes, without indicating whether they are ascending or descending. It will be noticed that in reading by the method of tonic intervals one must distinguish between major and minor seconds, major and minor thirds, perfect, augmented, and diminished fourths; perfect, augmented, and diminished fifths, etc., a thing not difficult for the accomplished musician who is familiar with an instrument, but exceedingly difficult for the ordinary reader of vocal scores. By the method of scale relations these intervals present no difficulties to the singer.

The method of the movable scale, as stated above, is usually known as that of the "movable *do*." This name does not characterize it fully, however, as the method of scale relations may be employed without the use of the syllables *do, re, mi*, in which case of course there is no *do* to be moved. While it is believed that there are advantages in using these syllables with beginners to indicate the different degrees of the scale, yet many good teachers of the method of scale relations use other syllables, as *la* or *ta*, for all the degrees of the scale. The essential nature of the method is not indicated by the use of the syllables; it consists in the conception of sounds in respect to their relations to the scale, this scale being moved on the staff as indicated by the signature of the key in which the music is written.

These two methods have been and to a limited extent are still competitive for public favor. While both have strong and intelligent advocates, the tide of opinion is now setting strongly in favor of the "movable scale" system. This is the method that is generally used in the elementary schools of Switzerland and Germany. In France the same system is gaining ground under the name of the Cheve method, which is so well represented in this city by Professor Zobanaky. In England the old system was found so difficult that in order to simplify the work of popular musical instruction they dropped not only the staff relations but the staff itself, giving rise to Mr. Curwen's method, known as the "tonic sol-fa system." The method of the movable scale was introduced into the United States largely through the influence of Dr. Lowell Mason, one of the most accomplished Pestalozzian instructors that this country has produced. The widespread introduction of musical instruction in the public schools of the United States is largely an inheritance from and an outgrowth of the labors of Dr. Lowell Mason.

The tonic sol-fa method.—In this discussion a passing word should be said in respect

to the tonic sol-fa system. This method originated with a Miss Glover, of Norwich, England, but is generally credited to Rev. John Curwen, through whose influence it has been so widely introduced. The method is based on scale relations, and therefore in pure musical conception agrees with the method of scale relations already described. It differs in the representation of music to the eye, introducing an entirely different notation from the one in general use. This notation is simple and readily learned by the pupil; and it is this simplicity, especially as contrasted with the method of intervals, which has given it so large a degree of popularity. The objection to the method is that it does not present a universal musical language or one that can ever become universal. Modern instrumental music would be impossible by this system. A person when taught to sing by this method must afterwards learn the generally accepted notation, or be restricted to a very limited number of musical compositions. The present mode of writing music has been accepted by the musicians of every country; and a person taught only by the tonic sol-fa method would be unable to read the simplest score written in the common notation. The method is, however, extensively used in England and Canada, and is widely recommended and strongly indorsed by some of the leading musicians and educators of both Europe and America. It is especially commended as an introduction to the staff notation. This reference to the method is not designed as a recommendation of its introduction into the elementary schools, but is merely given because in the discussion of systems this is too conspicuous not to receive a passing notice. Even if it were thought best to use it in teaching the elements of music to little children, it should be regarded merely as a stepping-stone to the generally accepted system of musical notation.

In the introduction of music into the public schools of the city it is necessary to decide upon the merits of the two principal systems described and to determine which one should be adopted. My own judgment, based on a wide observation and the experience of several years in early life in teaching music, is strongly biased in favor of the method of scale relations and the movable scale. Children, even those who have not much natural ability for music, can be readily taught by this method to read music by sight. The other method presents far greater difficulties to the learner, and is entirely unsatisfactory for use in the elementary schools. The arguments in favor of the method of scale relations and the movable scale seem to me to be conclusive. The method is simple and logical and in accordance with the essential principles of the art of music. The unit of the system is the scale, which is the foundation of all musical compositions. Each tone of the scale has its relation to the tonic and should be so conceived. When the key is changed, and thus the position of the scale upon the staff is changed, the relations of the tones to the keynote are always the same; the scale is simply started from another pitch indicated by another degree of the staff. Furthermore, all work in harmony is based on the scale rather than the staff relations; the chord of the tonic, the dominant, the subdominant, etc., are all conceived in scale relations as these expressions indicate. Indeed, it seems almost impossible for anyone to have an intelligent idea of either melody or harmony without thinking of them in their relations to the musical scale.

The foregoing description of Dr. Brooks is inserted because it will aid us in understanding the subsequent statement by Prof. J. Helm of the details of the method in vogue in elementary schools in Germany, which is offered in translation:

DETAILS OF THE GERMAN METHOD OF TEACHING SINGING.

It will be generally conceded that teaching singing in school has a double purpose in view, the acquisition of a number of songs and knowledge of the elements of music. In regard to the place songs are to occupy in the method, opinions differ as much as they do in regard to the understanding and presentation of the relation

which elementary technical exercises are to maintain to the songs. However, one thing seems to be decided. For the purpose of imparting knowledge of the musical system, authorities on the method of singing have during the last ten years decided upon the organic combination of exercises with songs. As a rule this combination is effected by connecting a number of elementary exercises from the beginning with songs and hymns in the melodic and rhythmic construction of which the elements of the preceding exercises are applied. A difference of opinion exists in that some lay the greater stress on the elementary exercises to precede the song, while others give the preference to songs as a starting point. Pflueger and Reissmann propose a different method. They suggest that the technical exercises depend entirely upon the elements of music found in the songs. Anything of musical notation, etc., not found in the songs presented to the children should not be taught. "Climb the hill when you get to it." Dornstedt maintains that as botanical knowledge is gained by the observation of single plants and parts of plants, geographical knowledge by the observation of the earth, by the study of relief maps and flat-surfaced maps and apparatus, and a knowledge of language by the study of classic extracts in prose and verse, so all musical knowledge should be gained from the study of songs and their notation. All technical exercises should be derived from simple songs and their analysis into the melodic and rhythmic elements. Regard for the pupils' interest alone can decide the method.

A tone in itself is no more calculated to arouse a child's interest than a separate letter or single sound. Pleasure is involuntarily excited by a natural, and, at the same time, technical combination of tones only. The compass of musical thought, too, is enlarged only by combinations of tones. The musical judgment of the pupil, in other words, his comprehension of the musical system, should be developed by the study of combinations of tones æsthetical in every sense. Interest is aroused by the concrete; the abstract in itself is not interesting. Consequently, the elements of melody, dynamics, rhythm, and probably musical notation are of direct interest to the pupil only when they rest upon a concrete foundation of songs. For this reason the technical course should depend upon songs, and with a few incidental exceptions, the systematic instruction of singing should ever proceed from songs and lead back to them.

Though detached from the melody the technical exercise may reduce the elements of songs to single tones and intervals, they yet appear to the pupil as parts of a whole which it has learned to like. It is this which assures the interest and attention of children. The objection can not be made that an "analytic consideration" of a song robs it of poetic form and artistic character, as the song itself is not the object of systematic instruction, but is only used as a starting point and to furnish rhythmic and tonic elements. Truly systematic instruction can only be given after the pupil has learned a number of songs; singing in elementary schools should therefore begin with songs. The only question is whether 6 and 7 year old children are capable of comprehending and reproducing easy songs without having practiced preparatory exercises. I believe that experience has found it to be so. Children 2 and 3 years of age are able to repeat short songs, which they hear at home, quite correctly with reference to tone and rhythm. And what the family and kindergarten can accomplish is certainly possible in the lower classes of elementary schools. It stands to reason that great versatility and thoroughness can not be required of children. The very name of the "elementary" school precludes that.

A child knows the difference among a hundred trees and shrubs before it is expected to distinguish typical leaf forms. The first is in reality easier, although a tree is far more complex than a leaf. It is much more difficult for the uncultivated ear of a child to detect intervals when they are isolated than when they occur in the phrases of a song. The clearness of any idea, and hence that of a distinct idea of sound, depends not only upon the light and distinctness which the idea itself possesses, but also upon that which it receives from combinations with and relations to other ideas that throw light on it from many sides. Thus a pupil is more easily

impressed with the methodic succession of tones in a chord when it is studied as a part of a phrase in song than when it is presented as a separate chord. It would not be impossible to begin the teaching of singing in elementary schools, and continue it correlatively with the subsequent technical course in such a way that the separate exercises may prepare for the reading and singing of new songs, and these again apply to those exercises from which the technical work of musical instruction must be abstracted or derived.

Hearing is the sense of music. The deaf are incapable of musical education. Ideas of music can not be gained through any other sense than that of hearing; but as the idea of an object becomes clearer and livelier in the mind it can be more easily retained if the object has been presented to the mind simultaneously, or in direct sequence, through more than one sense; thus other organs of sense are a help to the ear; in other words, impressions of sound are clearer and more easily reproduced when combined with other impressions. This is the psychological reason for using characters to represent sound in the teaching of singing, motions of the hand and other gestures to indicate height or depth of tone, intervals, etc. It necessarily follows that the symbols used, be they figures, letters, or notes, can be no more than visible signs for definite sensations of sound. The eye can only support the ear, never take its place.

As with all objects of ideation, so with music. We distinguish between ideas belonging to immediate knowledge and originated by perception through the sense of hearing and ideas that form a part of mediate knowledge and are originated by reason. Symbols are required for both kinds of musical ideas. The ideas gained by immediate perception and apprehension are defined in the genesis of sensations of sound.

The matter for hearing is sound, in the same sense that color is a matter for sight. Every sound is produced by the impulse and vibrations of elastic bodies. These impulses and vibrations are communicated first to the air surrounding the oscillating bodies; their motion to and fro displaces the particles of air, thus causing condensation on the one side and rarefaction or expansion on the other. Thus the stratum of air surrounding the vibrating body alternately condenses and expands, producing a wave-like motion which extends to all sides. If these waves reach the tympanum of the ear they impart to it, to the air confined in the drum, and to the four small bones their vibrating motion, which continues to the labyrinth and the nerve fibers of the cortical organ. This causes an excitement of the nerves which, as soon as it is perceived by the mind, is recognized as a sensation of sound. If the vibrations of the elastic body and the air waves have been regular—that is, repeated in equal periods of time and in the same manner—we call the sensation a musical sound. Every impression of sound bears an adequate relation to the air waves by which it was produced. Consequently, there are just as many kinds of sensations of sound as there are kinds of air waves. According to present investigations, the nerve fibers of the ear seem to possess in groups a limited specific sensibility for similarly limited groups of sound waves. The differing in groups of this sensibility of the nerve fibers of the ear has, as a consequence, that every tone quality is actually represented to us simultaneously by a sum of quantitively similar sensations which collectively are apprehended only as a more forcible single concept. But if two kinds of sound or air waves strike the ear, they produce two sensations of different quality, which at first, like other sensations simultaneously presented, leave a single impression; subsequently, however, when the mind has developed sufficiently for discerning between them, the distinction affords a criterion for further judgment. If we try to reduce the qualities of sound, like those of color, in a comprehensive scheme, all noises, namely, those sensations of sound which are produced by irregular vibrations and are capable of no qualitative fixation and comparison, must be omitted.

Every sound sensation, called musical tone, progresses in two opposite directions. If we continue this progression for any great length, we have a straight line that extends infinitely in both directions, but in which every sensation of sound, by

reason of its quality, has a distinct place; that is to say, is assigned to a definite height or depth. This line should really be conceived as a continuity without break or demarcation of single points. Still, in the scale empirically presented, we find single points separated and defined by special names. These points—absolute tones—form the elements of our musical system. They are likewise the foundation of all empiric musical knowledge.

Though we are not able so to perceive and retain all of the sensations of sound unlimited in both directions of the line as to recognize in them a part of immediate knowledge, it certainly is possible to make clear to our consciousness the above-mentioned points of the line, when they are presented again and again at the same height. After a little practice, we can easily perceive them, and do not confuse them with other sensations. We easily succeed in this, if we call upon the eye to help the ear, and if we fix the marked points of the series of sensations of sound in the scales in writing. A definite sensation of sound and a definite sensation of sight are, then, associated; but it is always presupposed, as a most essential condition, that the tone which is fixed by a special name and symbol must invariably be presented at the same height. If this is the case, these tones, in which we see the elements of the musical system and the perceivable material for practical music, gradually become more clearly distinct from the combinations and series of sound sensations. If this were not the case, sound sensations would not be qualified to form æsthetic relations. The firmly established and finely articulated contrasts of tone qualities specially adapt sensations of sound for such relations.

If several sensations of sound are produced simultaneously by dissimilar sound waves or in such quick succession that we are still conscious of the preceding sensation when the next one is perceived, there arises a complex idea of sound, which is presented to consciousness as a concrete relation as soon as the mind has been sufficiently exercised in making distinctions to be able to recognize single tones as members of a relation. Every concrete relation is an object of perception, a unit of its kind, strikingly individual, and can only be represented by symbols in fixation of its members. In the apprehension of the elements of our musical system and all concrete sound relations, the mind can be supported by written characters only, i. e., by musical script.

The presentation of absolute tones and concrete relations of tones and exercise in their apprehension sharpen the hearing and acquaint the pupil with the diversity of musical material. An insight into the inner connection of this material and musical ideas, laws, and rules can only be gained by comparing absolute tones and concrete relations, and by abstracting what is common to include it in higher unities. To these higher unities belong the ideas of scales and keys, and particularly the ideas of intervals, as seconds, thirds, fourths, fifths, etc. As the ideas of scales and keys are formed by comparing single phrases with regard to their material and accompanying concrete tone relations, we gain the ideas of different intervals as they occur in any scale, and by comparing the intervals of different scales we retain what is common to them, namely, the uniform distance of tones (intervals) among all scales. Like any other material of thought, these higher unities can be retained by fixation in language only. They are named, and thus a common understanding is established concerning them. We then get names for both the tones and their symbols.

Absolute tones and concrete relations are best represented by notes, because they are used exclusively in practical music; but intervals and abstract relations by figures, because figures are familiar to the pupil and express the rise and fall peculiar to tone relations. The fact that it is difficult to comprehend absolute tones, because of their limited individuality, so as to reproduce them exactly, is no sufficient reason to omit symbols of tones from instruction in singing, and to use only the symbols of intervals.

The ability to comprehend a combination of tones does not imply the ability to reproduce it. It is easily possible to understand a series of tones perfectly without being able to reproduce them. We are able to recognize them again, however, and

can tell with certainty whether they have been heard in the same or another key. How else could we speak of character in reference to keys, or be differently affected by hearing an adagio played in A (natural) which is familiar to us in A flat?

The ability to reproduce presupposes more than the correct understanding of what has been heard. It is, moreover, dependent upon the anatomical and physiological construction of the voice, which is not at all essential for musical comprehension. The gift of understanding combinations of tone is much more frequent, and is generally found in a higher degree than the ability of musical reproduction. It is in the nature of instruction in singing to require both accomplishments of the pupil. There will be greater and more pleasing success if the ear be supported by the eye, sensations of sound by their symbols, and if the ear be continuously exercised in perceiving not only what is general, but what is distinctive in tone relations, i. e., the height and depth of their members.

Any writing of symbols of intervals represents what is distinctive in concrete relations of the same kind, and therefore does not exercise the ear in the apprehension and distinction of different keys. Ideas of intervals can only be gained by hearing absolute tones. They fix only what is general to concrete combinations, namely, abstract ideas of sound. The characters receive sense and meaning by the ear's perceiving a succession of absolute tones; that is to say, of any one of the diatonic scales to the parts of which the letters or figures refer. A system of instruction which fixes in writing musical ideas, wholly notional, acquaints the pupil with the unity of the musical system before he has learned its concrete elements. "The psychological medium that should lead to the heights of perception is overleaped," and this results at last in a weakening if not in a complete stunting of musical sensibility. For this reason no symbols of intervals can replace notes, though they may contribute to the advancement and thoroughness of musical education if they follow the learning of the customary notation, or supplement it.

The matter of which instruction in singing treats belongs to mediate and partly to immediate knowledge. With the latter the inductive method should be followed; hence the elements of mediate knowledge must be derived from the immediate. If the combinations and relations of tones belonging to immediate knowledge include what is abstract thought (definition, law, or theory), then the development and fixation in the memory of this abstract element must directly follow upon the presentation and fixation of the knowledge gained concretely. The presentation and learning of concrete relations and combinations, and the development and learning of musical ideas and laws, become in this way a series of school occupations which are in harmony with the inherently connected psychological processes of perception and conception, apperception, abstraction, and secure retention of what is general. From this it follows that the laws of intellectual growth require instruction in singing to adhere to the formal steps of analysis and synthesis, association, system, and application.

Analysis is divided into the analysis of text and musical analysis. Analysis of text must precede musical analysis, so that the pupil may imbibe the poetic spirit of the song at the very beginning of the lesson. If the text be familiar to the pupils, a short review will suffice. If not, the form and contents must be studied. In this case, analysis consists in the reproduction of those concepts and ideas which are related to the song text, so that when the new text is given out correlative thoughts are fresh in the mind of the pupil, and it need not be feared that its apperception is hampered by distractions and contradictions.

Musical analysis aims at enabling the pupil to comprehend and reproduce the new melody; to reproduce the rhythmic and melodic elements already familiar, in so far as they are found to exist in the new melody, and may be freshened in the pupil's mind. Musical analysis does not consist in a reproduction of previously studied matter, but it refers in a special manner to that knowledge already acquired which is suggested by the new subject. As soon as the pupils are acquainted with scales and the chord of three, analytic exercises should commence. The tones of the

diatonic scale and of the tonic triad (in the same key, of course, as the new song) must be so combined that the melodic turns and phrases which the song contains are heard in the analytic exercises. The chief tactic motive of the song to be learned must be the foundation for the rhythming of scales and triads. Musical analysis necessarily presupposes a certain development of musical thought. During the first year of the school course it is therefore impossible to any desirable extent. Understanding of and feeling for what is novel are only conceivable when there is a residue of apperception material in the mind. But as most newly entered pupils have very few or no musical ideas new concepts must be developed from correct perceptions and sensations, although aids to apperception can not be readily supplied, because relative as well as opposing concepts are wanting.

So long as instruction in singing has not developed the most important elements of musical knowledge—the ideas of scales, keys, measure, time, etc.—musical analysis must be confined to reviewing previously practiced songs of similar tempo, which begin and end with the same tone and include similar series of tones. A recapitulation of all that the pupil knows of the laws of tones, of musical construction, enunciation, accentuation, and notation belongs to analysis, in so far as it is important in connection with what is to be learned, and only for so long as the pupil is not sure of applying his knowledge.

Synthetic instruction is modified and ruled by the pupil's advancement and the subject to be considered. If the text is new, form and contents must be studied and learned by heart. The melody must be then practiced, and the other stanzas of the text learned. It is of great importance that the new melody be presented pure, namely, without the mixture of alien elements. The teacher must render it correctly and as finished as possible, either by voice or on an instrument. Pupils are then involuntarily pleased, the new melody enters their minds, and is appreciated with proper sentiments. The more beautiful and perfect the song at first appears, the more earnestly will the pupil strive to learn it. If the new melody is short and simple, so that the children are still conscious of the first tones while the last are perceived, then, for a deeper æsthetic effect, the whole should be at once presented to the ear. Practice, however, must always follow the law of successive clearness, line by line. The presentation and practice of new melodies must continue in the prescribed manner until the pupils are familiar with the written music. After that, new means of imparting must be resorted to out of consideration for the pupil's self-activity. The melody is then presented to the eye in writing, and the pupils, under their teacher's direction, must convey the meaning of the notes, line by line, in corresponding tones and successions of tones or phrases.

After having learned the melody, the pupil's attention is directed to the time or rhythmic construction. While the teacher or different pupils sing the others observe whether an accented be followed by one or two unaccented tones, or whether the different tones of a phrase have the same value or not. After some thoroughness in this has been attained, the pupils may begin to reproduce the melody in writing, under the teacher's direction.

Synthesis concludes with the writing of the melody and the study of the text. In the first, probably in the second, school year, during which periods the foundation of musical knowledge is laid, the study of melodics can not successfully be carried beyond synthesis. But from the moment in which the eye supports the ear, or notation is made use of, the teacher may go beyond synthesis. Is it necessary, however?

It has been said that involuntary pleasure can only develop into æsthetic, rational pleasure after the pupil has an insight into the musical system, and that therefore instruction can not rest with the practice of a number of songs, but must acquaint the pupil with the elements of melody, rhythm and dynamics, etc. These elements are the foundation; they have the force of musical laws of general value and necessity in the world of sound. The concrete includes this pleasure; but it is clearly and distinctly defined by consciousness only when separated from the concrete, or what is accidental and individual. It receives a "general value" only after it has

proved to be the same always in concrete combinations of tones, or after it is found to be a common attribute of relations of tone.

The next step in instruction is to compare the concrete tones hitherto practiced, or the phrases of the songs learned (step of association). The combinations of tones submitted for comparison can be taken either from the last or earlier synthetic exercises or from airs learned at home. In any case, only such series of tones should be compared with which the pupils are familiar. Comparisons may follow in different directions and may extend to melodic succession, rhythmic form, strength, tempo quality, etc. The results of these comparisons are fixed in proper technical language.

Whatever has proved to be common or general value in the step of association must be isolated and learned in the shortest and most concise form—be it an idea, as key or time, or a law, such as "every measure has the same value," or "a word must not be torn asunder by taking breath." This work forms the next step, that of systematizing or generalizing.

Although, in general, it must be maintained that musical ideas and rules, like all that is abstract, can only be derived from the concrete, now and then, for the purpose of rounding off knowledge, a new idea may be presented, when ideas of similar origin are discussed, which may "absorb or apperceive" a new but relative idea. Thus, for instance, the idea of A major may be suggested if the pupils have in the course of their exercises met with those of C, G, F, D, and B major and abstracted the general law.

What the pupil has found common to all lessons he may note in a separate book. In this way he writes a kind of "singing school" for himself.

As the different parts of synthesis can be treated with a regular insertion of correlative analytic material, so a definite part of the step of systematizing can be directly anticipated by concrete associate material; in other words, every lesson in singing and technical exercise can be followed by an abstraction of its salient points and general facts.

Thus, if, by way of example, the newly learned song be compared with one previously studied in regard to quality of tone, what is found to be common may at once be defined in a statement, as, "Both songs are in the key of G;" or "Both songs have $\frac{3}{4}$ measure;" or "Both are to be sung allegro," etc. Several songs being compared, this statement may follow: "All these songs begin and end with C, hence are written in the key of C." The comparison is continued, and interrupted by a process of abstraction. Thus, by induction, and according to the laws of intellectual development, the pupils become possessed of many fundamental musical ideas, laws, and rules. This knowledge would be worth little if the elements of music could only be applied to that concrete material from which they were derived. If, for instance, the key, kind of key, measure, and time could only be applied to those melodies which formed the stock of the pupil's knowledge of songs, the musical education would be sadly deficient. The pupils must, therefore, be directed and practiced in observing and reading other combinations and melodies, and applying the rules and laws to new phrases and songs. Reading easy melodies and "second parts" must be aimed at. This work forms the last of the formal steps—that of application. If these exercises are extensively practiced during the last year of school, the pupil will be able to tell with tolerable certainty the signature of a new piece, whether it be major or minor, the kind of meter or tempo, etc., and he will, slowly perhaps, but correctly, read the series of tones, i. e., read the notes while singing; he will also observe the rules of breathing, voice culture, and enunciation in songs on which he has received no special instruction. The exercises in application also include the transposition of a melody from one key to another; transcription of a phrase in the different symbols for notes and intervals; the singing of different texts to the same melody; the reproduction of scales, ascending and descending, and using tones as the tonic; the singing of the tones of the triad and

its inversion, etc. This is a comprehensive programme of work, but German teachers succeed in carrying it on in elementary schools.

The matter gone over in the music lessons is, comparatively speaking, very insignificant. The children learn a far greater number of facts in arithmetic, geography, and grammar. The only difference is that the application of the facts learned is more difficult, owing to the frequent undeveloped musical ear; but as the sense of hearing is developed the difficulties disappear.

THE VALUE OF FOLKSONGS (VOLKSLIEDER).

From the foregoing exposé of the German method of teaching singing in schools, and from other authoritative sources, it is seen that the Germans pay much attention to their national airs in school, both to sacred and secular songs. It is done upon the principle that in elementary schools it is not the chief object to increase the store of knowledge of the children, but to train their minds to correct modes of thinking, to build up their characters and will power for correct action, to ennoble the emotions to perceive refining sentiments and guide the will, and to generally educate the young rather than instruct them, to use these terms as the Germans do in implying a differentiation which we in this country do not usually accept. In literature, and even in simple language lessons, we naturally use the best selections from the works of classic native writers; in geography we direct the child's attention, first of all, to his home surrounding and the topographical conditions of his own country; in history it is the events and memorable deeds of his own forefathers and countrymen which he studies, and so on through the course of study. We always bear in mind that the civilization and culture of his own nation are the sources from which his own culture derives its strength. Precisely so the Germans proceed in the teaching of music in elementary schools. Of course, music may be severed from its national influence and taught purely as a science and an art, but if taught in that way it does not serve the purpose of a school study which purposes to aid in the child's mental and moral development. Every study in elementary school must do that. The reasons for using the musical treasures of the nation are pedagogical and ethical and eminently sound.

The national airs of every nation reflect, more than anything else, its peculiar traits of character, both in text and music. The Slavic songs, mostly written in minor keys, reflect the melancholy mood of these peoples; the wild, weird ditties of Hungary reflect the fierce character of the Magyars; the placid temper of the Scandinavians is seen in their sweet hymns; the Scotch Highlander's sturdiness is noticeable in his songs; the gaiety of the southern Frenchman, the cheerfulness of the Tyrolean and the Swiss—all these peculiarities are plainly discernible in the native songs and lays of these peoples.

The vast treasures of mind, soul, and heart of the German nation have from time immemorial been reflected in its folksongs, or popular melodies and rhymes, most of which were composed no one knows by whom,

but which were sung by all. From the fourteenth century to the present day the treasures of German popular airs have been increasing. The German "Volkslied" runs through the entire scale of internal and external life of the nation; it courses through feeling and thinking of all layers of society, and it is always true to nature, always grown on home soil, always genuinely German. The popular airs of Germany, both text and melody, are the most fragrant blossoms of the civilization of that country. In these songs, the sources of which never clog, the sounds of joy and merriment are as genuine and sincere as those of sorrow and grief; the tones of mockery and defiance as true as those of wrath and complaint. The heart of the German people pulsates in these songs, and he who studies them will find revealed in them the German nation in all its strength and weakness, in its virtues and faults. A collection of German "Volkslieder" may be considered the secret history of the people. He who knows history can see in these songs that long chain of remarkable historical deeds that have made Germany famous, from the "Nibelungen Saga" down to the "Wacht am Rhein." Everywhere along the line traces are found of events and deeds which alternately raised and degraded the nation.

The period in which the sources of popular airs and popular poetry were most prolific was the second half of the fifteenth century and the beginning of the sixteenth century (the era of Reformation). The dried-up court poetry of chivalry in the castles of knights and princes was superseded by the people's poetry; the middle ages were sung to their grave and a new era was welcomed. But like the ancient stories of classic Hellas and mythical Germany, so have the songs and airs changed by adapting themselves to many new moods, conditions, and sentiments. Most of the airs now in use were composed or remodeled during the second half of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries. Of most of these we are able to state definitely both poet and composer. A list of these is here added.

List of Poets of German Folksongs.

Adrian, J. V.
Anschütz, Ernst.
Arndt, E. M.
Arnim, Achim von.
August, E. F.
Baggesen, Jens.
Becker, Wm. G.
Becker, Niklas.
Binzer, Aug. von.
Bornemann, Wm.
Brentano, Clemens.
Bretzner, Chr Fr.
Brun, Friederike.
Bühl, J. L. am.
Bürger, Gottfr. A.
Chamisso, Adelbert von.
Claudius, Matthias.
Cramer, K. G.
Cronstein, Henriette von.
Dach, Simon.
Dirnböck, Jacob.
Disselhoff, August.
Drimborn, E. G.
Dunker, B. A.
Eberhard, G. A.
Eichendorff, Jos. von.
Eisenbart, Joh. Andr.
Ekschlager, A.
Falk, Joh.
Feuchtersleben, Ernst von.
Fink, G. W.
Fischer, Carl.
Franz, Agnes.
Freiligrath, Ferdinand.
Fresenius, A.
Geibel, Emanuel.
Gellert, Chr. F.
Gerhard, Wilhelm.
Gerike, J. L.
Gleim, J. W. L.
Goeckingh, L. Fr.
Goethe, Wolfgang von.
Goettling, K.
Griese, F.
Grübel, Joh. C.
Güll, Fr.
Hahn, Carl.
Halem, G. A. von.

List of Poets of German Folksongs—Continued.

Hancke, G. B.
Haschka, L. Leop.
Hauff, Wilhelm.
Haug, J. C. Fr.
Hebel, Joh. Peter.
Hecker, L.
Heim, Heinr.
Heine, Heinr.
Hell, Theodor.
Herder, J. G. von.
Herlossohn, Carl.
Hermes, Joh. Thim.
Hiemer, Franz C.
Hinkel, Carl.
Hoffmann von Fallersleben.
Höfling, Eugen.
Holtei, Carl von.
Hölty, Ludw. C.
Jacobi, J. G.
Jäger, Daniel.
Jünger, Fr.
Keil, Georg.
Kerner, Justinus.
Kind, Friedr.
Kleinschmidt, E. C.
Klesheim, Anton von.
Kletke, H.
Klopstock, Fr. G.
Kopish, August.
Körner, Theodor.
Kosegarten, L. Th.
Kotzebue, August.
Krummacher, Ad.
Kugler, Franz.
Kuhn, Gottl. J.
Langbein, August.
Lange, Friedr.
Lappe, Karl.
Lavater, Joh. Kaspar.
Lessing, Gottl. Ephr.
Löwe, Feodor.
Ludwig, Fritz von.
Maas, J. G. E.
Mahlmann, Aug.
Matthison, Fr. von.
Methfessel, A.
Miller, Joh. Martin.
Morhof, Dan. G.
Mosen, Julius.
Muechler, Carl.
Mueller, Fr.
Mueller, J. M.
Mueller, Peter.
Mueller, Wenzel.
Mueller, Wilhelm.
Nänny, J. C.
Nesmueller, E.
Nicolai, Fr.
Niebusch, Karl.
Niemann, August.
Nostiz, G. A. E. von.
Novalis, Fr. von Hardenberg.
Opitz, Martin.
Opitz, Moritz.
Overbeck, Christ. A.
Perinet, Joachim.
Pfeffel, Gottl. C.
Praetorius, Johann.
Raimund, Ferdinand.
Recke, Elisa von der.
Reinhard, K.
Reinick, Robert.
Roquette, Otto.
Rückert, Friedr.
Rudolphi, Caroline von.
Runge, Phil. O.
Salis, Von.
Salomon, Elias.
Sauter, Sam. Fr.
Schenkendorf, Max von.
Schiller, Fr. von.
Schmidt, Christ.
Schmidt, Geo. Ph.
Schmidt, Klamer.
Schneckenburger, Max.
Schönhuth, Otto.
Schreiber, Aloys.
Schubart, Chr. F. D.
Schubarth, (?).
Schwab, Gustav.
Seume, Joh. G.
Seyferth, Carl.
Simrock, Karl.
Smets, Wilhelm.
Stamford, Heinr. Wm.
Starke, Gotth. W. Chr.
Stein, K.
Steinhausen, Fr. Wm.
Stockhausen, A. C.
Stolberg, Fr. Leop. Graf zu.
Strakerjan, Chr. Fr.
Straube, Karl.
Sturm, Chr. Chr.
Sturm, Julius.
Sturm, Marcellin.
Tenner, C. Christ.
Tieck, Ludwig.
Tiedge, Christ. Aug.
Ueltzen, Wilhem.
Uhland, Ludwig.
Urner, Barbara.
Usteri, Martin.
Veith, Emanuel.
Voigt, Friedr.
Voss, Joh. Heinrich.
Vulpius, August.
Wächter, Leonhard.
Wackernagel, Phil.
Wackernagel, Wm.
Wagenseil, Chr. Jacob.
Wagner, Heinrich.
Weidling, Wilhelm.
Weigle, Gottlieb.
Weisse, Chr. Felix.
Wiesener, M.
Wolf, P. Alexander.
Wyss, Joh. Rud.
Zarnack, August.
Zehelein, Justus Fr.

List of Composers of German Folksongs.

Note.—Many German "Volkslieder" are adaptations, both in text and music, of songs in vogue during the Middle Ages and the time of the "Minnesänger," hence some modern composers are credited with having composed the music and some poets of having written the words to songs that bear evidences of a much older age; but there is no way of arriving at definite conclusions concerning their origin, hence the names of poets and composers to whom the songs are credited nowadays are mentioned in this list. There are numerous songs of which neither poet nor composer are known; they have been collected by noted musicians, such as the brothers Ludwig

and Friedr. Erk, as Grimm collected the German fairy stories by listening to their recital by grandmothers and village-sages.

Abt, Franz.
Ahlstroem, J. A.
Albert, Heinrich.
André, Anton.
André, Johann.
Arndt, E. M.
Auberlen, S. G.
Becker, Wm. Gottl.
Beethoven, L. van.
Beneken, Fr. B.
Berg, (?)
Berger, Ludwig.
Bergt, August.
Berls, Joh. Rud.
Berner, F. W.
Bornhardt, Joh. H. Carl.
Briesewitz, (?)
Burgwedel, Karl von.
Call, Leonhard von.
Coron, Alex E.
Dietrich, Friedrich.
Ditters, Carl.
Döbbelin, Karl.
Drechsler, Josef.
Düringer, Philipp J.
Ebers, Karl Friedr.
Eberwein, Max.
Eidenbenz, Chr. Gottl.
Erk, Friedrich.
Erk, Ludwig.
Etzler, Karl Fr.
Feska, Friedr. Ernst.
Fink, G. W.
Fischer, Ludwig.
Flemming, Fr. F.
Fuss, Johann.
Gackstatter, J. G. D.
Gehricke, (?)
Gersbach, Jos.
Gerstenberg, I. D.
Gilbert, Hermann.
Gläser, K. L. Tr.
Gluck, Chr. von.
Glück, Friedrich.
Grann, Karl H.
Greith, Johann.
Groos, Carl.
Grosheim, G. Chr.
Haibel, Jacob.
Hanitsch, Georg F.
Harder, Augustin.
Haydn, Joseph.
Hering, Carl G.
Hiller, Joh. Adam.
Himmel, Fr. Heinr.
Hisel, (?)
Hoffmann von Fallersleben.
Hoffmeister, F. A.
Hurka, Fr. Franz.
Keller, Carl.
Kempt, F. A.
Kirnberger, Joh. Phil.
Klein, B.
Klein, Christ. Ben.
König, Karl Gottl.
Kreipl, J.
Kretzschmer, Andr.
Kreutzer, Conrad.
Kücken, Friedr. Wm.
Kücken, Heinrich.
Kuhlau, Friedrich.
Kuhn, Gottl. J.
Kunze, G.
Lindpainter, Peter von.
Löffler, A.
Mendelssohn-Bartholdi, Felix.
Methfessel, Albert.
Moritz, C. T.
Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus.
Müller, Peter.
Müller, Wenzel.
Nägeli, Hans Georg.
Nathusius, Maria.
Naumann, J. A.
Pilz, Carl Phil. Em.
Pohlenz, August.
Pöthko, (?)
Regnart, Jacob.
Reichardt, Gustav.
Reichardt, Joh. Friedr.
Reichardt, Luise.
Reissiger, Carl G.
Righini, V.
Rolle, Joh. Heinr.
Rust, Fr. Wm.
Schneider, Friedr.
Schneider, J. G. W.
Schneider, Wilhelm.
Schnorr, Heinr. Christ.
Schnyder, von Wartensee, X.
Schubart, Chr. F. D.
Schubert, Franz.
Schultz, Christ.
Schulz, Joh. A. P.
Seckendorff, Fr. L. A. von.
Seidel, Fr. Ludwig.
Seydler, Ludw. Carl.
Sievers, J. F. L.
Silcher, Friedrich.
Spazier, Carl.
Spohr, L.
Steifensandt, Wm.
Sterkel, Joh. F. Xaver.
Streber, Valentin.
Thümmel, Julius.
Türk, Daniel G.
Weber, B. A.
Weber, Carl Maria von.
Weiss, Fr. Wm.
Werner, H.
Wilhelm, Carl.
Winter, P. von.
Witthauer, Joh. Geo.
Wolf, Ernst Wm.
Wollank, Friedrich.
Zahn, Christ. Jacob.
Zelter, Carl Friedr.
Zumsteg, J. R.

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"music schools" and discussions of method.

Albrecht, F. A. Uebungen und Lieder zu einem methodischen Gesangunterricht in Schule und Haus. Four parts.

Barner, A. (*a*) Methodische Anleitung zur Ertheilung des Gesangunterrichts nach dem Gehöre. (*b*) Gesanglehre für die Volksschule. Two parts, (*a*) for teachers, (*b*) for the pupils.

Baumert, L. Der Gesangunterricht in der Volksschule.

Bell, A. Anleitung zur Ertheilung des Gesangunterrichts in der Volksschule, nebst Vertheilung des Lehrstoffs.

Boenicke, G. Der Gesangunterricht nach dem Gehöre.

Braun. Die Ziffernmethode beim Unterricht im Singen.

Drath, Th. Der Gesanglehrer und seine Methode.

Ehni, J. A. Stufenmässig geordnete Gesanglehre für den Schulgebrauch.

Gelhausen, J. Abhandlung über die neueste Gesangsmethode.

Grell, Fr. Gesanglehre für Volks- und Bürgerschulen.

Hanslik. Vom Musikalisch-Schönen.

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Hohmann, Chr. H. Praktischer Lehrgang für den Gesangunterricht in den Volksschulen. Four courses.

Jeltsch, Max. Der Gesangunterricht in der Volksschule.

Jimmerthal, H. Gesanglehre und Liederbuch. Four parts.

Kehr, C. Two vols. (*a*) Geschichte der Methodik. (*b*) Praxis der Volksschule.

Kothe, B. Vademecum für Gesanglehrer. Theoretisches und Methodisches.

Kothe Wm. Theoretisch-praktischer Leitfaden für die methodische Behandlung des Gesangunterrichts.

Kuhn, E. Gehör- und Stimmübungen.

Kuntze, E. Uebungsbuch beim Gesangunterricht nach Noten.

Lange, Rud. Winke für Gesanglehrer in Volksschulen.

Lange, Rud. Lehrplan für den Gesangunterricht.

Lehmann, J. G. Grundzüge zur methodischen Behandlung des Gesangunterrichts.

Linnarz, R. Methodik des Gesangunterrichts.

Mauss, Aug. Liederschule. Theoretisch-praktische Anleitung.

Müller-Brunau. Tonbildung oder Gesangunterricht?

Nierenberger. Wandtafeln für den Gesangunterricht. Twelve charts.

Osburg. Deutsche Gesanglehre.

Pflüger, J. G. F. Anleitung zum Gesangunterricht in Schulen.

Rau, C. G. Singtafel für Volks-, Real- und Lateinschulen.

Reichelt, G. Gesanglehrer und Gesangunterricht der Volksschule.

Rein, Pickel and Scheller. Theorie und Praxis des Volksschulunterrichts.

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Sacher, Hans. Ueber den Gesangunterricht, insbesondere das Treffenlehren.

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Schäublin, J. J. Dreissig Tabellen für den Gesangunterricht.

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Sering, Fr. Wm. Kurze theoretisch-praktische Anleitung für rationellen Gegangunterricht.

Sering, Fr. Wm. Die Kunst des Gesanges. Vollständige Methodik.

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Voss, Heinrich. Praktische Elementargesangschule.

Weber, Joh. R. Anleitung zum rationellen Gesangunterricht.

Widmann, Benedikt. Praktischer Lehrgang für einen rationellen Gesangunterricht in mehrklassigen Schulen.
Widmann, Benedikt. Kleine Gesanglehre für die Hand der Schüler.
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Widmann, Benedikt. Gehör- und Stimmbildung.

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Baumert, L. Deutsche Volkslieder für Schulgebrauch.
Bell, A. Liedersammlung für die Volksschule.
Berger, Gustav. Liederschatz für die deutsche Jugend.
Berger, Gustav. Jugendklänge.
Blied, J. Liederbuch für Volksschulen. Two parts.
Bouffier, Fr. Liederbuch für Mädchenschulen.
Brähmig, B. Liederstrauss für Töchterschulen. Five parts.
Christ, Bernh. Auswahl zweistimmiger Volkslieder.
Damm, Gust. Liederbuch für Schulen.
Drath, Theo. Schulliederbuch.
Erk, L., and Greef, Wm. Singvögelein, Sammlung von Liedern.
Erk, L., and Greef, Wm. Liederkranz. Auswahl heiterer und ernster Gesänge.
Erk, Lud., and Jacob, Aug. Deutscher Liedergarten für Mädchenschulen.
Frankenberger, H., and Kaiser, J. Liederbuch für Schulen.
Fricke, W. Liederschatz für Schule und Leben. Three parts.
Goethe, E. Kleine Gesangschule für Stadt- und Landschulen. Two parts.
Goetze, Heinr. Liedersammlung für mehrklassige Schulen.
Groffmann, C. Liederschatz für Deutschlands Volksschulen. Two parts.
Hamma, Franz. Liedersammlung für den systematischen Gesangunterricht. Three parts.
Helm, Martin. Liederbuch für Mittelschulen.
Hentschel, Ernst. Liederhain. Three parts.
Hentschel, Ernst. Kinderharfe.
Hering, Carl. Sang and Klang für Mädchenschulen. Two parts.
Janson, Friedr. Deutsche Schulgesänge für Mädchen. Four parts.
Jessen, A. Chr. Liederborn für Volks- und Bürgerschulen. Two parts.
Jütting-Billig, Fr. Grösseres Liederbuch.
Kern, C. Aug. Liederstrauss.
Köllen, Peter. Liedersammlung für obere Klassen in Mädchenschulen.
Kothe, B. Sängerlust. Schul- und Volkslieder.
Krause, Theo. Sang und Klang für Mädchenschulen.
Krieger, Ferd. Der Gesangunterricht in Volks- und Bürgerschulen. Five parts.
Kunze, E. Volksliederbuch für Schule und Haus. Three parts.
Lehmann, J. G. Deutsches Liederbuch. Two parts.
Linnarz and Bösche. Auswahl von Volksliedern.
Löchner, A. L. Deutsches Liederbuch für Schulen. Six parts.
Löflad, I. Liederbuch für Schule und Haus.
Lützel, J. Heinr. Liederkranz. Two parts.
Luz, Geo. Liederkranz für Volks-, Bürger-, Real- und Lateinschulen.
Maier-Kleemann. Sangesblüten.
Mettner, Karl. Deutsches Liederbuch für Schulen. Three parts.
Müller-Hartung, Bräunlich and Gottschalg. Neues vaterländisches Liederbuch für Volksschulen und höhere Lehranstalten. Four parts.
Müller, Richard. Liederbuch für Bürgerschulen.
Pflüger, J. G. F. Liederbuch für Schule und Leben. Three parts.
Schäublin, J. J. Lieder für Jung und Alt. Three parts.

Schneider, F. Liederbuch für Volksschulen. Three parts.
Schwalm, Rob. Volkslieder und Gesänge.
Seeger, Karl. Der Liederfreund. Two parts.
Seeger, Karl. Liederbuch für Volksschulen.
Seidel, O. Lieder für die Volksschule. Three parts.
Seidel, O. Volksschulliederbuch.
Sering, F. W. Liederbuch für drei- und mehrklassige Volksschulen. Five parts.
Sering, F. W. Elsass-Lothringischer Liederkranz. Three parts.
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CHAPTER VI.

THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL IN NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, AND PENNSYLVANIA DURING THE FIRST HALF CENTURY OF THE REPUBLIC.

By Rev. A. D. Mayo, M. A., LL. D.

NEW YORK.

We have already gone over the educational history of New York from its earliest settlement by the Dutch on Manhattan Island to the establishment of the first State constitution and the beginning of the career of what in population, wealth, and power is still the "Empire State" of the Union. We have seen why it was a practical impossibility that in a State settled by a cosmopolitan immigration, from the first distracted by sharp ecclesiastical differences, through long years before the Revolutionary epoch divided by antagonistic social and political tendencies, and during the seven years of conflict for national independence its only seaport in the possession of the enemy, could not be expected to inaugurate at once any effective system of education for the masses resembling the common district school of New England. Indeed, at the close of the great Revolutionary struggle the present State of New York west of the Hudson River and north of Saratoga could hardly be said to exist. The region that then constituted the Commonwealth, the islands surrounding the harbor of New York, the two banks of the Hudson through its lower 150 miles, and the eastern meadows of the Mohawk were the seat of the old aristocratic organization of society, and this portion of the State remained until recently the least progressive in all matters relating to the education of the whole people.

It is not, therefore, a matter of surprise that the first constitution of the State of New York contained no mention of the subject of education. But New York, like Virginia, can look back to the earliest years of its life as an American State with gratitude for the labors of a noble band of its most eminent statesmen in the cause of popular education. Contemporaneous with Jefferson, Washington, Madison, Marshall, and Cabell, in the Old Dominion, was found the entire body of the foremost statesmen of New York, who through the twenty years of its early history as a Commonwealth returned again and again to the almost hopeless task of waking the people to the fundamental obligation of uniting on the one common interest of a State, destined ere long to the political and industrial leadership of the Republic.

At the first meeting of the general assembly after the adoption of the constitution Governor George Clinton struck the keynote of the future of New York in these memorable words: "Neglect of the education of youth is one of the evils consequent upon war. Perhaps there is scarcely anything more worthy your attention than the revival and encouragement of seminaries of learning, and nothing by which we can more satisfactorily express our gratitude to the Supreme Being for His past favors, since piety and virtue are generally the offspring of an enlightened understanding." The response to this appeal was the act establishing the body known as "the Regents of the University of the State of New York."

Yet this was doubtless all that could be accomplished at the time. The people of New York in 1788 by no means proposed to surrender their prejudices of nationality, sect, class, and the furious antagonisms of partisan politics even to the sacred cause of the education of their own children together for the imperious claims of the new American citizenship. The board of regents was at first essentially a body formed to do all that was possible to improve and unify the loose system of private and denominational academies and colleges which had hitherto been the chief dependence of the people for education. It was doubtful if much could be done in that direction. The original King's College, at New York, after a troubled history of less than half a century, had collapsed in the earlier years of the war from the Toryism of its president, and from the first had been tied up as the representative of the Church of England. After its suspension, during the war, an attempt was made to reorganize it as a university, and on the failure of this scheme it became the Columbia College of the first seventy-five years of the present century—a respectable institution of learning, with limited patronage, but a reputation for large unavailable funds in unimproved lands on Manhattan Island. Besides this, there was no college in the State at the close of the war, and the academies and private schools were mostly in a demoralized condition from the strain of those terrible eight years. It did not yet appear that the legislature had in view, except in a vague and general way, the education of the whole people under the direction of the State.

It was not till five years subsequent to this that the board of regents responded, in 1793, in an indefinite and guarded way to the urgent representations of Governor Clinton concerning "the advantages which we conceive would accrue to the citizens in general from the establishment of schools in various parts of the State for the purpose of instructing children in the lower branches of education, such as reading their native language with propriety, and so much of writing and arithmetic as to enable them when they come forward into active life to transact with accuracy and dispatch the business necessary for the daily intercourse with each other." The Governor had already suggested the setting apart some of the unappropriated lands of the State for the "promotion of literature." This side light, thrown thus upon the condition of widespread illiteracy in certain portions of the Commonwealth, and the indifference of the influential classes of the people to this condition, is suggestive. There are no statistics that reveal the extent of the popular ignorance, especially in the region first settled under the dominion of the patroons, on the shores of the two chief rivers; but the energy of the successive governors of the State in pushing the cause of general education is in itself a revelation of what was needed and the difficulties in the way of establishing an effective scheme for the remedy of the evil.

A year later, 1795, Governor Clinton returned to the charge and pointed out the central difficulty of the situation in the following impressive words: "While it is evident that the general establishment and endowment of academies are highly to be commended and are attended with the most beneficial consequences, yet it can not be denied that they are principally confined to the children of the opulent, and that a great portion of the community is excluded from their immediate advantages. The establishment of common schools through the State is happily calculated to remedy this inconvenience and will therefore engage your early and decided consideration." The legislature had already moved, in 1789, by requiring "the surveyor-general to set apart the lots in each township of the public lands thereby to be surveyed for gospel and school purposes." Under this original provision, reaffirmed in subsequent acts, many of the towns in New York have public-school lands of more or less extent at the present time.

The legislature of 1795 responded to the public appeal of the governor by the first act for the education of the people of New York. It provided that the sum of $50,000 should be appropriated for five years for the purpose of "encouraging and maintaining schools in the several cities and towns of this State for instruction of the branches necessary to complete a good English education." The money was to

be distributed according to the taxable population of the towns. The supervisors of the county were required to raise, by tax upon each town, a sum equal to one-half that appropriated by the State for similar purposes. A mischievous permissive clause, at first voted down, was afterwards reenacted, and emasculated the law of much of its vigor, since the communities most in need of education could be relied on to shirk the burden of local taxation which entitled them to their portion of the State bounty. This bad amendment was afterwards repealed and the public school set upon its travels through the State. Each town was expected to choose a board of commissioners, from three to seven in number, to whom was committed the general supervision of the schools and the distribution of the moneys to the several districts. Each district of a town was authorized to elect two or more trustees, to whom should be intrusted the practical inauguration and management of the schools, under some oversight of the township commissioners.

Here, at the outset, was introduced the habit of locating the responsibility for education with the individual districts, so productive of mischief and so difficult to abolish in New England. As each district was to receive its portion of the State fund under conditions, it can readily be seen how little aid could be expected at best and how slow must be the progress of a school of this sort. In 1798, 16 of the 23 counties of the State reported 1,352 schools, in which 56,000 children were taught. The extreme sum available for all purposes under the law would be less than $2 per capita per pupil; all beyond was to be supplied by rate bills, if even these were, at that time, a substantial addition. In the record of sums appropriated for popular education no estimate seems to appear for this very unreliable element of support.

In 1799 the first practical effort to establish a school fund for the State was made, under the legislative leadership of two men of Connecticut antecedents, Jedediah Peck, of Otsego, and Adam Comstock, of Saratoga. The recent action of Connecticut, in dedicating the avails of her great landed estate in the Western Reserve of Ohio to the children, appears to have been the suggestion of this movement. The act authorized the attempt to raise $100,000 by four lotteries; $12,500 was to be at the disposal of the board of regents for distribution among the academies of the State, with $87,500 for the common schools. Whether this plan, which was not then regarded an inappropriate method of raising money for any laudable purpose, was a success may be doubted from the record of subsequent attempts to hold the State to its payment of the original $50,000 annually. A new act was passed in 1801 authorizing a new lottery of $100,000, the avails to be invested in real estate to be at the disposal of the legislature.

Governor Clinton again appears in 1802, twelve years after his first appeal, with the declaration: "The system of common schools having been discontinued, and the advantage to morals, religion, liberty, and good government arising from the general diffusion of knowledge being universally admitted, permit me to recommend this subject to your deliberate attention. The failure of one experiment for the attainment of an important object ought not to discourage other attempts." The legislature did not respond; and the good governor makes another demonstration in 1803, even more forcible in its appeal. The indefatigable Jedediah Peck, as chairman of the educational committee, reported a bill which died without attention. Again, in 1804, the governor prodded his legislature and Jedediah reported a new bill, with similar result. In 1804 a new governor, Lewis, seconded the efforts of his earnest predecessor in even more vigorous language: "Common schools, under the guidance of respectable teachers, should be established in every village, and the indigent should be educated at public expense. The higher seminaries also should receive every patronage and support within the means of enlightened legislation. Learning would then flourish and vice be more effectually restrained than by means of penal statutes."

In a special message Governor Lewis, in 1805, urged on the legislature the plan of placing the entire educational affairs of the State under the absolute control of the board of regents, who should be authorized to use the State lands as an educational

fund, appoint trustees for school districts, who should be empowered to raise money by taxation and generally administer educational affairs. But the people of no American State have, so far, looked with favor on the Continental European system of placing the entire control of popular education in the hands of the Government, and this system was not considered at the State house.

But the earnest appeal of the governor had this result, the passage by the legislature of the act that laid the foundation of the school fund of the State of New York. The entire proceeds of 500,000 acres of vacant and unappropriated lands were to be invested and, when the interest should amount to $50,000, an annual distribution was to be made to the school districts. In the same year the right to subscribe for 3,000 shares of a new bank in the city of New York was granted to the State and its avails added to the State school fund. In 1808 further provisions were made for the purchase of bank stock for the same purpose. But until 1810 no available system for the public schooling of the children of New York had been evolved from the efforts of the twenty previous years. Obstinate resistance continued as before, and the people were in no mood to be taxed for the cause of universal education.

But the result of this twenty years of public discussion was not lost. In 1811 Governor Tompkins again brought forward the whole subject of popular education, and was authorized by the legislature to appoint a board of five commissioners, to report on the organization of a system of common schools. The chairman of this important committee was our old friend Jedediah Peck. A report was soon forthcoming which deserves an honorable place in the national literature of education. In contrast with the past two centuries of the educational history of New York, it marked a great forward step. The committee heartily acknowledge the benefit derived from their careful examination of the common-school systems of the leading New England States, and the plan recommended by them was, in some respects, superior, first, in the provision for a larger responsibility assumed by the Commonwealth for education, and, second, the establishment of a State superintendency of schools. New York was the first State to strike this keynote of effective administration. For the next forty years, until 1851, the office of State superintendent of education, although for thirty years combined with that of secretary of state, was held by perhaps the ablest set of public men that ever stood in this relation to the people of any American Commonwealth.

When we consider the almost insuperable obstacles that prevented the establishment of a good working system of common schools in the Empire State eighty years ago, we can easily understand what a prodigious advantage to the good cause was its almost unanimous support by the series of wise, far-seeing, and persistent New York statesmen who filled the position of governor, and, after 1812, held the office of secretary of state and commissioner of public education. The administrations of Governors George Clinton, Jay, Lewis, Tompkins, De Witt Clinton, and Marcy cover the fifty years from 1790 to 1840. No American Commonwealth has been favored by a series of abler and more patriotic statesmen than filled the office of chief magistrate of New York during this period of its history. And, beginning with the close of the first superintendency of Gideon Hawley, the State was even more blessed, until the year 1851, by the administration of a series of eminent public men in the double office of secretary of state and commissioner of education. John Van Ness Yates, Azariah C. Flagg, John A. Dix, and John C. Spencer occupied this position for thirty years, until 1840, at which time, under the leadership of Governor William H. Seward and Superintendent Samuel Young, a positive advance movement was inaugurated along the whole line.

In their report to the legislature the five commissioners discussed at length a variety of topics connected with public education—its vital connection with the welfare of a republican State, the inability of any system of colleges and academies to satisfy the great need of common schooling for the masses of the people, the intimate relation of moral to mental training in schools, the necessity of a great uplift of the qualifications of teachers, and the improvement of school books, the

report closing with a fervent hope that "God would smile on the efforts of the people in a cause peculiarly His own."

The outlines of the plan submitted by the commissioners, and with some alterations afterwards adopted in the act of 1812 under which the State went on, with few changes of legislation, until 1838, were mainly these: (1) That every town should be divided into school districts by three commissioners elected by the citizens, who should have control of the distribution of all funds appropriated by the State or raised by local taxation according to the school population between the ages of 5 and 15. (2) That the voters of each district elect three trustees, to whom was to be intrusted the detailed management of a local school, under the general supervision of the three town commissioners. (3) That each town should raise by taxation as much money as it received from the State, the entire amount of State and town moneys being used for the support of teachers; and that a further power of taxation for building and furnishing schoolhouses and similar expenses should be vested in the district. (4) That the head of the whole system should be a State superintendent of education, chosen by the "council of appointments," to whom should be intrusted a general supervision of common-school affairs. The board of regents, as before, retained its vague and semi-advisory power of supervising the colleges and academies, the chief practical result being the distribution of $10,000 annually from the literary fund among an increasing number of secondary schools. At this time there were 45 counties and 449 towns in the State. The commissioners urged the point that the sum of $100,000, raised by local taxation and contributed by the Government, would not educate the people. But they pressed the absolute obligation of local effort to supplement the State and public aid, and relied on the rate bill, then in New York considered indispensable to any system of free schools, for the permanent support of education. The State fund then amounted to $115,000. The policy of the Commonwealth is outlined in this statement: "The object of the legislature is to arouse the public attention to the important subject of education, and, by adopting a system of common schools in the expense of which the State would largely participate, to bring instruction within the reach of the humblest citizen."

It will be observed that in this scheme there is no provision for public education beyond the ordinary elementary schools. The extension of the common-school system of New York, through the secondary up in touch with the higher education, was not then in the mind of any but its most radical friends. In fact, the State waited during a full generation for the advent of the village and city system of "union schools," which brought this opportunity to the children and youth residing therein. The original idea of public education in New York seems to have been a moderate subsidizing of the collegiate and academic institutions, without regard to their organization, requiring only the assurance that these schools maintain a certain grade of instruction, with some other conditions. But the early suggestion of the board of regents that the bounty of the State might be extended to the masses of the people was at once taken up by the foremost statesmen of the period, and after twenty years a legislature was found that gave to the people of New York a working system of popular instruction. But from that time on the State suffered in its educational interests by its division of responsibility in educational administration. Until a recent date the subsidizing of the academies had little effect, save to postpone the time when the common-school system should include the high and normal school and the State university. The subsidy was too small to be of any practical benefit to the numerous academic schools that received it, while it kept alive their jealousy of the enlargement of the sphere of common-school instruction.

But especially was the mischievous result of this policy apparent in the abortive plans by which the academies were subsidized with a view to obtaining from them the proper work of normal schools. While of course every good school in its way is a nursery of teachers, there was never a reasonable probability that the large number of academic and denominational schools receiving a pittance from the State would be able or willing to reconstruct their methods of instruction on a professional

basis and become, in any way, efficient training schools of common-school teachers. Yet for forty years did the State remain under the delusion that any class of non-professional schools, especially any class of seminaries free from public control, could be relied on to do the most important work of professional training—the preparation of competent teachers for the common schools of the State. It was only after the failure of this experiment had been demonstrated beyond question to every competent observer of public education that the first State normal school was established at Albany in 1851, and another long interval elapsed before the people finally swept away the persistent academical influence at the state house and put forward the present splendid organization of State and city normal schools and teachers' institutes. Even as late as fourteen years ago this hostile interest made its last demonstration in the opposition of Governor Robinson to the entire scheme of support of normal schools by the State. But the decided response of the people seems to have finally put this contention out of court. The later policy of the board of regents in cooperating with the public-school system by elevating the standard of the secondary education has been, perhaps, the most effective service ever rendered to the people of New York by that respectable body.

It was a great blessing to the children that the first State superintendent of schools in New York, Gideon Hawley, was a New England man with New England ideas of popular education and a graduate of Union College under Dr. Nott. At the time of his appointment he was a young lawyer in Albany and a warm friend of the common schools. His administration of eight years, from 1813 to 1821, was the genuine beginning of what is now the common-school system of the Empire State. He faced the difficulties and embarrassments of his trying position with a cheerful courage and persistent energy. At first, in 1814, he reported that the efficiency of the system was greatly hindered by the refusal of many towns to avail themselves of their permission to tax, and, by his suggestion, the permissive clause, that enabled a town to shirk its obligation to educate by refusing to receive its portion of State money was, changed and the power given to the supervisors of counties to impose a local town tax corresponding to the sum donated by the State. In his second report, in 1815, he was obliged to announce that because the returns from the several counties were so few and so defective he must still postpone a statement of the statistics of education. But in 1816, three years from his appointment, he was able to say that 338 towns in 33 of the 46 counties had sent in their reports. In 2,631 districts the number of children between 5 and 15 years of age was 176,449, of whom 140,106 "have been under instruction during a portion of the year," while, by estimate, there were 5,000 districts in the State, with 250,000 children, of whom 200,000 were "under instruction." The cities of New York and Albany were not included in this enumeration. Each school district received some $20 from the State, but the distribution of this small sum was regarded by the superintendent as a matter of great importance, especially in securing the organization of a general system which the State was pledged to keep alive, even by moderate subsidies.

In the year 1821 the office of State superintendent of schools was abolished and the duties of that office combined with those of secretary of state. During the eight years of his occupancy Superintendent Hawley had rendered good proof of his stewardship. Under his faithful supervision the number of school districts and the school attendance had doubled; a three-months term of common schooling was secured by State and local taxation, often supplemented by the rate bill and the private contributions of the people, and twenty-four twenty-fifths of the children of the State had been brought under the influence of the system. The American common school "had come to stay" in the Empire State.

The constitution of the State of New York, revised in 1822, contains the following provision for the permanent establishment of a State fund for the support of common schools:

"ARTICLE VII—*Section 9.*—The proceeds of all lands belonging to this State, except such parts thereof as may be reserved or appropriated to public use, or ceded to the

United States, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, shall remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated and applied to the support of common schools."

The long and brilliant administration of De Witt Clinton as governor of New York dates from the year 1822. The governor, in his message to the legislature, called attention to the distribution of the United States public lands to the new States of the Union; that in eleven of these States and Territories there had already been distributed one thirty-sixth of the public domain in their limits for common schools, and a fifth of that thirty-sixth part for colleges and academies. He urged the equal claim of the original thirteen States to a participation in the national bounty. According to his estimate, the share of New York in this distribution would be not less than 800,000 acres for common schools and 160,000 acres for colleges and academies, a patrimony which "would answer all the requirements of education."

In common with many of the leading educators and a majority of public men of that day, Governor Clinton was smitten with a great and persistent admiration of the Lancasterian system of instruction, and urged its merits upon the legislature. This method, which was a natural outcome of the crude provision then made in England for public instruction, gives the most important part of teaching, the elementary, to the older pupils. It had its long day of trial in the city of New York and elsewhere in this country, and is now cast away with other broken furniture and lumber in the educational attic. The "pupil-teacher" arrangement that followed it in Great Britain is now going the same way.

The legislature having conferred the duties of the State superintendency of schools upon the secretary of state, Thomas Van Ness Yates succeeded Gideon Hawley and administered the functions of the position from 1821 to 1826. He was succeeded from 1826 to 1833 by Azariah C. Flagg, who was followed by John A. Dix from 1833 to 1839. This period covers the administration of Governors De Witt Clinton, Throop, and Marcy, until the advent of William H. Seward, in 1840. It is doubtful if, by any different system of appointment, a body of men so eminent for statesmanlike ability and more earnest in the cause of the common school could have been placed at the head of its administration. Each of them endeavored to signalize his term of office by the introduction of some improvement, and none hesitated to keep before the people not only the substantial advantages of the new system, but the serious defects in its working, which, even more than they realized, impaired its efficiency and prevented it from securing the respect and confidence of the superior class in the education of their own children.

It is not necessary to follow in detail the history of the very gradual progress of the common school in New York during the period of twenty years from the law of 1820. The points gained were not unimportant, and the growing support of the system by the people was the best testimony that the State was working in the right direction. First and foremost should be mentioned the increasing attendance and support. From 6,332 districts with 305,000 children under instruction in 1820, there were 10,769 districts with 573,000 children instructed in 1840. From a State and local taxation of $200,000 in 1820, the expenditure in 1840 amounted to $1,386,000, of which $476,000 was in the form of rate bills or tuition fees, paid to secure a longer term of schooling. Superintendent Yates labored to inaugurate a system of school celebrations, to popularize the common schools and inspire interest in the children and parents, and puts the significant question, "Why should not our common schools be placed on a footing as respectable as any other seminaries of learning?" Governor Clinton opens up a most important discussion, in his message of 1826, on the subject of the curriculum of the common schools. Of the years spent in school he believes that two would be sufficient to acquire the elements of instruction, while the remaining eight are too often spent in "mere repetition, idleness, or neglect of the opportunity for further culture." He lays out a programme of instruction that includes our present grammar and high school course of study.

But the painful fact stared the educational reformer in the face that the mass of teachers were incompetent for this advanced movement. He therefore urged the establishment of "a seminary for the education of teachers." The governor also urged the increase of the State appropriation and the appointment of a board of supervisors between the State superintendent and the town commissioners. At this juncture Mr. John C. Spencer appeared as the chairman of the legislative committee on education, with a most suggestive report, the beginning of the long and fruitful service rendered by him, fifteen years later, as State superintendent of schools. He called attention to an abuse by which the academies were subsidized by the board of regents according to their number of classical students, and urged that the students in English should be included in the rule for distribution of these funds. He recommended the selection of academies for the preparation of teachers, and the printing, at public expense, of large editions of elementary school books, to be sold at cost.

Governor De Witt Clinton returned, year after year, to the task of stirring up the legislature to the importance of the schools. In 1827 an addition was made to the common school fund, and the regents were instructed to distribute a larger sum than before to the academies on the basis of the number of their students in the higher branches of an English education. In 1828 appeared the first suggestion for securing the schooling of children engaged in manufacturing establishments. In 1830 came the suggestion of the establishment of district school libraries, which later became an important factor in the common school policy of the State. The school fund had increased to $1,700,000, and now first appeared at the capitol the rising spirit of western New York in an important memorial to the legislature from the city of Rochester concerning the education of teachers, urging the establishment of three State normal schools and one proper grammar school in each town.

The administration of John A. Dix as superintendent of schools was signalized by a growing determination of the people to provide better agencies for the training of teachers. A sum of $12,000 per annum was to be distributed among such academies as would undertake the work of normal instruction. Superintendent Dix had still abundant confidence in the ability and disposition of these seminaries to do the great work for the uplifting of the common school teacher's profession, an experiment of cooperation never yet realized between the people's schools and the denominational colleges and academies. Several academies were selected, and the sum of $400 given to each for this purpose. In 1835 the policy of the State of New York concerning the district school library was inaugurated by authorizing the districts to impose a tax of $10 a year. By the whole-hearted cooperation of Hon. James Wadsworth, of Geneseo, this act was so administered as to become a great blessing to the people of the State. In 1838 the large amount of $160,000 from the income of the United States deposit fund was added to the general appropriation for education, $55,000 of which was to be appropriated for the building up of the district school libraries. The Hon. Daniel D. Barnard, one of the ablest and most worthy of the public men of New York, in 1838 put forth an admirable report, in which the whole subject of popular education was discussed with remarkable boldness and breadth of view. All things were tending to a decided forward movement for the advancement of this great common interest. The history of this movement, beginning under the auspices of Governor William H. Seward, with John C. Spencer as secretary of state and superintendent of public instruction, will be told in another place.

It is evident that, with the undeniable progress of the State in public school matters during the fifty years now under consideration, there were grievous defects both in the system itself and in its administration, which impaired its usefulness to a large extent.

First was the inability of the school authorities to ascertain the actual attendance of the children. All the State superintendents reported the number of children "receiving instruction" during any period of the year, without regard to the vital distinction between the enrollment and the average daily attendance of pupils. In

this way the people remained under the mistaken impression that nearly the entire body of children in the State were actually at school; indeed, that there were sometimes "under instruction" a larger number than the entire school population between the ages of 5 and 15. In the majority of the States the gap between the enrollment and the number in average daily attendance is formidable. In the whole country only 9,000,000 of 14,000,000 are reported in "average daily attendance." At that early day there was no system of school statistics of practical value in any State of the Union. There is no proof that New York was an exception to the habit of irregular attendance, which in itself is one of the most serious defects of a public school system. It was not until later that the county supervision of schools was adopted. The town commissioners were in many cases grossly negligent of their duty, and the local trustees bore the real burdens of administering the public education of the State.

This repeated exposure of the serious imperfection of the district schools by successive governors and State superintendents seems to leave little doubt that up to 1840 there were, with few exceptions, only elementary district schools in the State, and that the academies and private schools of higher grade were regarded sufficient for the demand of the secondary education. Of course this was a serious defect in the system, estranging from its support the entire class of wealthy and more cultivated families, and building up a great body of academical and private institutions. It was not until after 1840 that the scheme of "union schools" in villages and neighborhoods supplied this deficiency.

Under this lurked the real weakness of the public school system of New York up to this period of reform—the multitude of incompetent teachers. Governors and legislative committees do not go on year after year exposing imaginary defects in a great public institution they are naturally inclined to estimate at its best. The lamentable inefficiency of the common school teaching force as a body must have been understood by all competent observers as revealing a state of affairs that deprived the system of much of its value. The fight made by the academic and sectarian institutions against the establishment of normal schools and the failure of the attempt to utilize them for the purpose of normal instruction were great hindrances to the proper working of the system.

While in this respect New York suffered in common with the New England States and was decidedly in advance of them all in the organization of a system of State supervision, surpassing Massachusetts in her school fund and the increasing contribution of the State, and Connecticut in the habit of local taxation, yet there was a characteristic difference between the two portions of the country in respect to this as to all matters of public interest. The tendency of public affairs in New York from the first has been toward the concentration of power and vigor of public administration. In its larger aspects this feature of the public life of the State has manifested a splendid efficiency and breadth not to be denied, and has greatly increased its influence among the States and in school affairs. But in local affairs it was long since recognized as a growing evil by the reign of the municipal and neighborhood "boss," who rules the public with a rod of iron, and turns government itself into a dismal farce. The result is that in a New England community of the older type the people, "jointly and severally" were a far more efficient power than elsewhere. To this fact must be attributed largely the vigor and intelligence of the government of the New England towns, the care of the schools, and the general prosperity and competency of the people. Without State supervision, with only the reliance of the people on local yearly taxation, there can be no doubt that, with all its serious defects, public education in Massachusetts was practically in a more advanced condition during this period than in New York. To this fact must be attributed the earlier movement for educational reform of the system of popular instruction in New England, the reliance of New York on New England men in every period of educational advancement, and the decided leadership from 1840 to 1860 of the New England States in all

matters of public school administration. But, in turn, New England and the West have derived from New York most important lessons in the matter of school supervision and the organization of educational forces. At a later period the normal schools of that State struck out on the "new departure" of the natural methods of instruction, in which has been developed the most characteristic growth of the American common school since the close of the great civil war.

But whatever may have been the reasons for disappointment in respect to the efficiency of the common school system, it seems already to have arrested the development of the private and academic seminaries in the State and to have inclined the thoughtful educational public to insist more strongly every year on the enlargement of the district into the graded school and the transfer of the important business of training teachers from the subsidized academies to an institution wholly under the control of the common school authorities of the Commonwealth. The report of the board of regents, Simeon De Witt, chancellor, and Gideon Hawley, secretary, for 1834, shows that there were 5 literary and 2 medical colleges in the State, the former having under instruction but 760 and the latter 375 students. The 5 colleges report only 100 graduates for the year. Columbia, Union, Hamilton, Genesee, and the University of the City of New York, with the two divisions of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, complete the roll of institutions devoted to the higher education.

Of these, Union College, Schenectady, then under the powerful and popular presidency of Dr. Eliphalet Nott, led all others as a representative of reformed methods of discipline and a peculiar faculty in character training. Columbia, New York, with a large reserve of unsalable property, had but 100 students in the literary department, although its legal and medical branches were of larger extent, and its academical annex reports 217 pupils. Hamilton, in Oneida County, reports itself in an impecunious condition, with 103 students, and Genesee reports but 58 students and a meager income of $3,568, chiefly divided among its president, 4 professors, and 2 lecturers. The University of the City of New York, with 10 professors and 274 students, leads in numbers. No college in the State appears to have had an available fund. Probably as many New York students were educated at Yale, Williams, and Princeton at this time as at home, and Union College had a large contingent of students from beyond the limits of the State.

The board also reports that 79 "academies and other seminaries of education" are now under their supervision, several female academies having recently been admitted to this privilege. Of these, 49 owe their organization to the action of the board and 28 were incorporated by the State legislature. The sum of $10,000 from the income of the literary fund has been distributed among them in gifts ranging from $25 to $400. These institutions altogether contained 5,506 students, 3,390 of whom were engaged in classical studies. Since 1827 the number of these institutions had more than doubled (there were then 33 schools and 2,440 pupils), the large increase being due partly to the addition to the literary fund placed at the disposal of the board in that year. The value of all these academic foundations was $381,000, with $24,170 invested in philosophical apparatus and libraries. The permanent funds of the entire group amounted to less than $200,000 ($194,222). Their united income for the year was $70,000 from tuition fees, $10,000 from other sources, and $10,000 from the literary fund, $90,000 in all. Two hundred and ninety-five towns were represented in the 5,000 pupils of these seminaries. Of these the Albany academies for boys and girls report an attendance of 250 and 280, and the Rochester high school reports 325 pupils. Only 3 of the 79 had an attendance of 200, 17 of 100, and the board reports that "10 had ceased to exist."

When we reflect on the meager income of these institutions; on the small amount of their property and invested funds, in all amounting to little more than $500,000; that only $25,000 was invested in libraries and apparatus; that the annual receipts of the 79 amounted to less than $100,000, and that probably many of them were dependent on the pittance doled out from the literary fund; and also this other fact that the board of regents seems to have had little power to enforce any marked

improvement in their methods of organization and instruction, the outlook certainly was not brilliant for the secondary and higher education.

The board of regents at last seems to have become satisfied that the experiment of relying on these seminaries of education to educate the teachers of common schools was a failure. They say, "A considerable number of common-school teachers have been educated in some of these schools," and give "special commendation" to the St. Lawrence and Oxford academies. The board "had hoped that the opinion, so often expressed by them, in favor of establishing in many academies a department for the education of common-school teachers would have succeeded in attracting from both the trustees and teachers of academies much more attention than has been bestowed upon it," and express the opinion that a larger distribution of funds would have secured better results. The reports of meteorological observations made by these institutions bear testimony to a greater interest in the changes of the weather in New York than in the improvement of the quality of the 10,000 common-school teachers of the Commonwealth. At a subsequent period these subsidies were largely increased, but with no more satisfactory result. It was plainly unreasonable and unjust to expect that such a class of academies and "other seminaries of education" as appear in this report, generally "living from hand to mouth," chiefly occupied in the proper grammar school and elementary educational work of a limited neighborhood, with teachers laboring on starvation wages, could be induced to concern themselves in such an experiment, even by a subsidy of $400 a year, insufficient to pay the salary of one competent teacher of pedagogics, for they were all the time feeling a natural jealousy of the common schools, which were already reaching upward to undertake the management of the secondary education. The only circumstances under which a subsidized group of academies could be relied on to do satisfactory work in this direction, as in the State of Pennsylvania, is where a small number of strongly supported and endowed seminaries are selected largely under the control of the State authorities. But a comparison between the normal-school work at present done by the neighboring States of New York and Pennsylvania, working under opposite systems, is suggestive of the inevitable result of attempting to subsidize private and denominational institutions in our American order of affairs to work for a great common interest of education, which, in proportion to its importance, must inevitably become a rival to their own prosperity.

Of course there were in New York at this time other schools, private, corporate, professional, and denominational, not included in this report of the regents of the university. But it is certain that this group of 79 seminaries and 5 colleges fairly represents the condition of the secondary and higher education previous to the great national revival of education from 1835 to 1860. The city of New York was still working under the leadership of the Public School Society, of which we have already given an account. Born in 1805 as a relief from the state of educational destitution in which the old-time system of parochial church schools had left even the New York of that early day, enlisting the best efforts of the most eminent men in the State—De Witt Clinton, Theodore Sedgwick, G. C. Verplanck, and others only less eminent—subsidized for many years by the city and State, it failed at last to accomplish the ends of a public-school system by the prolonged ecclesiastical contest into which it was forced. Although not really a sectarian body, but a Protestant organization with Presbyterian affinities, and in its policy, as far as was possible, acting with the best intentions for the common good, it was finally wrecked on the rock of ecclesiastical jealousy.

In the prolonged controversy in which it was involved during the latter years of its existence, which turned upon the general subject of religious and moral instruction in common schools, the ablest ever held in this country, excepting possibly the similar discussion in Cincinnati, Ohio, thirty years later, the representatives of the Public School Society, though triumphant in the general argument, were driven to the wall by their own logic. Under the educational policy that the State had pursued from the first, which by its board of regents assumed a modified supervision over the

colleges and academies of the State, with a yearly subsidy to all secondary and collegiate schools that would conform to its conditions of acceptance, the Catholic parochial schools of New York had a strong argument for public support. By this policy the State admitted to the full extent the present policy of England, whereby all classes of schools, private, corporate, and denominational, may be included in the distribution of public funds on the condition of submitting to literary examinations and accepting certain limitations offered by the representatives of the Government. The increasing moral and educational destitution of the children of the poorer classes of the Commonwealth at a later period so wrought on the mind and heart of Governor William H. Seward that he was forced into the position of recommending the support of church parochial schools by the State. But the people of New York saw further than their great philosophical statesmen, and in 1851 the Public School Society dissolved itself, and all its educational functions and properties were turned over to the common school authorities of the metropolis.

The city of Albany was also from the first the headquarters of the conservative idea of education. Its academies for boys and girls were always superior institutions and, with the neighboring schools of the city of Troy, furnished a sufficient opportunity for the secondary, as did the colleges of Union and Williams for the higher, education. But in 1840 Mr. Francis Dwight, the accomplished educational journalist, at that time superintendent of schools for Albany County, makes the following significant report: In Albany [city] there were 3 academies, with 503 pupils, conducted at an expense of $12,500; 83 private schools, with 2,866 pupils, costing $25,463, and 10 district schools, with 2,562 pupils, costing $9,081. Thus the 3,300 children were educated in the private schools at a cost to the people of the city of $37,900, more than fourfold the sum ($9,000) expended on the 2,500 children in the 10 district schools. Mr. Dwight affirms that in nine-tenths, probably in all but one or two of these private schools, the teaching was inferior to that of the public schools. Fifteen hundred children in the city, which then had a population less than 50,000, "were growing up in idleness, many of them in vagrancy and crime, all candidates for the almshouse or the jail." The mayor of the city informed him that not a disturbance in the city has occurred for ten years that has not been traced to boys under 16. Even twenty years later, 1862, the public schools of Albany were probably inferior to almost every city of 75,000 people in the Northern States, with no free high school and but one schoolhouse which the people cared to show. The colored children of the cities of New York State were, at this period, schooled by themselves, 1,200 being then provided for in the city of New York alone, although in the country districts they often attended school with the white children.

The great result of the thirty years' work at the public school problem, from 1810 to 1840, appears in the State reports of the latter date, from which we learn that there were 10,769 school districts in the State, with 573,000 children "under instruction," and $1,415,129 expended on the system, $275,000 donated by the State, $663,686 raised by local taxation, and $478,129 paid by the people in the form of rate bills. This implies an expenditure somewhat in excess of $2 for each child under instruction. But as the number of pupils in "average daily attendance" was by no means equal to this aggregate, the sum expended on those continuously instructed was somewhat larger.

Insufficient as may have been this appropriation according to the later estimates, even less than that of any of the States of the South that have adopted the common school system only within the past twenty years, it was a most hopeful showing compared with the record of 1815, when only $105,000 was raised by public taxation for 140,000 children in 2,600 school districts. In the establishment of State and for a time city supervision, in the founding of school libraries, the increase of the State school fund, and the growing demand for the professional training of teachers, the State was not behind, in some respects was in advance of the New England States at the same date. But in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut the great revival of common schools was already under full headway, and the time was near

when the Empire State would look toward the sunrise and join hands with New England, and, toward the sunset, join with the new Northwest, not failing to act even with more direct influence upon the neighboring States, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, on the southern border.

DR. ELIPHALET NOTT.

We have already called attention to the peculiar genius for executive capacity in public affairs displayed from the earliest time in the State of New York. In no instance was this fact more clearly illustrated, and the dependence of the people of that State on a commanding leadership in a good cause more triumphantly demonstrated than in the building of Union College at Schenectady under the remarkable presidency of Dr. Eliphalet Nott. It may well be questioned whether during the critical period in American education, from the establishment of the National Government to 1840, any single man contributed so largely to set in motion the most vital currents of popular education in all its varied relations to the new Republic in one State as this great man. Born in 1773 and dying in 1866, his long life of 93 years spanned the generations from the opening guns of the Revolution at Lexington, Mass., to the surrender of the Confederate army at Appomattox Court-House, Va. At the close of the first half century of the Republic, 1840, he said:

"When I entered on life there was no provision for common schools, and next to none for academies and colleges. To produce a change in public opinion in favor of these interests, to lay their foundations, required activities of a certain kind, and it has been my steady purpose not to live for the present, but to apply whatever influence I had so as to secure as far as possible remote and permanent results. What the end of my labors will be I leave with God, but I believe the whole process now going forward for cheapening education and providing tuition and books for the indigent will be found on inquiry to have emanated from Union College."

This declaration, of course, applied to the State of New York, for Dr. Nott himself was educated in and taught the common schools and academies of Connecticut, and graduated, as an outside student, from Brown University, Rhode Island, before the age of manhood. But the more we understand all the peculiar conditions of society in the Empire State, and the difficulties which, up to the comparatively late period of 1812, prevented the establishment of anything like a fair beginning of universal education, the more evident does it become that here was the right man, sent at first into the wilderness beyond the Hudson River as a minister of the gospel, who, in obedience to the unmistakable call of Providence, in ten years found himself at the central point of educational influence, on the verge of the new and in striking distance of the old New York, in the most favorable position to deal with the legislature and call to himself the powerful aid of the remarkable succession of public men who for half a century adorned the annals of the Commonwealth. No better illustration of the peculiar way by which great things are done in our American order of affairs and the experiences by which decisive men are educated for conspicuous leadership can be found than may be seen in the career of this great college president and most influential leader in the developing life of the higher education in our country. It is a significant fact that, as in the other case of Washington, the ablest men that knew Dr. Nott best always gave the highest estimate of his general ability as an educational statesman, and had the most implicit faith in his character as a man.

Eliphalet Nott was born in the town of Ashford, Conn., in 1773, of very poor but superior parents. His father was one of the well-known class of men who are all their lives held on the verge of poverty by some defect in business capacity, the only serious defect in his pronounced manliness. His mother was fitly declared by her distinguished son "a great and good woman." The family had drifted "from pillar to post" for several years before little Eliphalet saw the light and was taken to his mother's perfect confidence by that divine instinct whereby the mother of Jesus

"kept all these things in her heart." To her he owed his first instruction, for at 3 years of age he could read, and at 4 he had read the Bible through. The Bible, a spelling book, a primer, and a volume of old sermons constituted the family library. Eliphalet tells his own story of occasional attendance at the district school of his neighborhood at different ages, "always happy if he was not thrashed more than three times a week." The unfortunate master may not have been all "to blame," for the boy had a brooding hurricane shut up in his feeble frame. It is told that, coming home from the Baptist Church where a powerful sermon had been preached against a prevailing style of female headdress, he proceeded to tear into shreds his sister's ornament of this description, whereupon his "great and good mother" displayed at once her greatness and goodness by giving the young family apostle of dress reform a sound "basting." Between his mother's love and the severity of his school thrashings, he early came to the full resolve that "if he lived to be a man, he would never try to rule children at home or in school by this old-fashioned way." He was sent to live with his elder brother, Samuel, a young minister at Franklin, Conn., as a relief to his overburdened father, but revolted from the iron rule of that household and came home to abide with his beloved mother until her death, when he was 16. "The light of my young life went out when my mother died," said her great son, years afterwards, declaring like so many others of the world's most famous men that the best of what he was he owed to his mother.

He had already attempted to be a doctor, at the age of 14 beginning the study of medicine with the town physician. But the first surgical operation at which he was called in as the assistant of the old doctor found the poor woman on the operator's table serene and brave and "Dr. Eliphalet" sprawling in a fainting fit on the floor. That experience ended his career in medicine. It is interesting to see how, with a nervous organization so delicate and a bodily habit for many years singularly feeble, was joined the will with which he not only accomplished the mighty work given him to do, but by lifelong temperance and watchful care, built up a state of reliable health that held out through eighty years of continuous labor. For sixteen years in his early manhood he studied fourteen hours a day and slept but four hours at night, and in an age of indulgence in coarse luxury and drunkenness became a conspicuous object lesson of the wisdom of temperance and self-control.

His introduction to educational work was in one of those old Yankee school districts where the bad boys had conquered a series of "masters" and held the town itself at bay. In a month, without striking a blow, by the influence of his charming and powerful personality alone, he had reformed the habit of years and become a marked young man in "all the region 'round about." Another experiment only more thoroughly established his reputation as a manager of children and youth, and, before he was 20 years old, he was found in Plainfield, Conn., at the head of the most important academy in that part of the State. He took his degree at Brown University, by advice of the faculty, without residence, studied theology with his brother Samuel, and was admitted to the Christian ministry at 22. He was greatly indebted to the friendship of Rev. Dr. Benedict, and at 23 heard the call to go forth into the wilderness of western New York as a missionary to Cherry Valley, near Otsego Lake.

Even then his remarkable foresight was displayed by his determination to escape the impending war of theological controversy he saw brooding like a thundercloud over the ecclesiastical horizon. While in Connecticut he was brought "under discipline" in a church trial for plain speaking in matters theological and personal, and his victory over his persecutors served as the lesson of a lifetime. Later, after he was invited to the presidency of Union College, he declined a pressing "call" to Park Street Church, Boston, although we find him preaching in the "broad church" pulpit of Dr. Buckminster, of the Brattle Street Church in that city. He then predicted the long and bitter period of theological controversy about to come upon New England, and felt instinctively that while preaching the gospel in the broad sense was the great privilege of any man it was not assigned to him to spend a

lifetime wandering amid the boundless maze of theological and ecclesiastical contention. He went cheerfully with his young wife to his new home at Cherry Valley, only sleeping one night on the way in Albany, then a Dutch town thoroughly and just made the capital of the State. The region about Albany was still but sparsely settled, and the journey of 75 miles to Cherry Valley, in the southwest, was largely by a rough highway through the primitive forest.

This outpost of civilization had been settled in 1740 chiefly by Germans from the Palatinate, with a corps of Scotch Presbyterians at the little village of Cherry Valley. During the Revolutionary war the settlement was desolated by a raid of savages, and not till the return of peace was the permanent occupation of the place secured. A Rev. Mr. Dunlap, a graduate of Dublin University, Ireland, had established a church and set up the first school west of Albany. It was to this people, Presbyterian in church affiliations, that the young Connecticut minister went with his accomplished wife and at once began his public life work. In two years he had reestablished the church and built up an academy that for many years remained one of the most successful and useful of the secondary schools of the State. At once he became the real church and educational center of the region, as he always was to the day of his death the man of all good work in a new country. He never seems to have made any very serious objection to the old-time Calvinistic theology he brought with him from the land of stiff creeds and "steady habits," and remained nominally a consistent Presbyterian divine to the end. But he was a great, good, broad-minded, deep-souled, magnetic, all-compelling man, beyond any limitations of sectarian creed and church. His policy was all comprehended in the law of the love of God and love of man. His wide charity and comprehensive fellowship included all good people of all churches and of no church. "Let alone parties, let alone controversy, let alone heresy," he wrote to his son-in-law, the rector of an Episcopal church and the future bishop of Pennsylvania. Not that parties and controversies and the confutation of heresy were not well enough for those who had a "call" that way. But to the mind of Pastor Nott, called to the leadership of the education of the people of a leading American State in the most critical years of the new Republic, its first half century, the one thing needful seemed a dispensation of fundamental religion. And, for the time being, he believed that the most effective dispensation of practical fundamental religion would be through a policy by which the populations of New York and Pennsylvania could be united to walk the common highway of a Christian civilization, universal education for American manhood and womanhood, and good American citizenship.

It is not often that even a man so born to distinction as Dr. Nott graduates from his elementary professional school so early. In two years he had outgrown Cherry Valley, the outpost of New York civilization toward the southwest, and, at the earnest persuasion of John Blair Smith, first president of Union College, in 1796, removed to Albany, as pastor of the First Presbyterian Church. Here, at once, in the heart of the conservatism of the original settlers, alongside the largest domain of the Patroons, he became the recognized leader of the New England ideas and people. There were then only four churches in the little capital city of 8,000 people—Dutch Reformed, Presbyterian, Lutheran, and Church of England. It was well that, appearing as the representative of New England ideas and institutions, he adopted the favorite middle-state ecclesiastical polity of Presbyterianism, under which the colonial reformers in the higher education had so far made headway. In 1763 Albany had but 3,000 people and only five New England families. Until 1782 the preaching in the popular churches had been in the language of Holland, Dr. Westerloo having begun to preach in English only fifteen years before the arrival of the Presbyterian parson from Connecticut.

Only a man like Eliphalet Nott, with his varied gifts as a natural orator and most attractive presence, a statesman of consummate tact, and a born controller and leader of men, could have made his way to the head of the Albany pulpit in the face of the

eternal feud between the Dutch and Yankee, whose echoes still linger in the spacious halls of the new statehouse, in the present splendid capital of the Empire State. His congregation was composed not only of his own people, but included men like Hamilton, Clinton, the best portion of the legislature, and the throng of distinguished strangers that haunted the lobbies of the capitol, crowded the hotels and boarding houses, and swarmed on the steep slopes of State street. At once his natural tendency to educational activity was called into play by a movement in behalf of the establishment of the Albany Boys' Academy. This school, projected in 1804, was actually set up in 1813, at an expense of $100,000. According to the plan projected by Dr. Nott, this was to have been the proper high school of the city, with branches in all sections of the town for elementary instruction. To what extent this was to have been a sufficient public school system for the city, or an imitation of the Public School Society movement in the city of New York, projected at the same time, does not appear. It failed in this form, although the academy which was finally established, with the Albany Female Academy, a later foundation, became the real head of the secondary education for the leading class of the town for half a century to come.

The young preacher soon became noted for his "occasional sermons" preached in behalf of the local charities and memorial discourses for distinguished people, and generally for a free and bold dealing with the moral and religious status of public affairs. He early set his face against the luxurious and drinking habits of the foremost society of the town, refused to attend the dinner parties of his rich parishioners, broke down the old-time custom of closing a funeral ceremony in the upper circles by an adjournment to the house of the deceased, with a mighty feast and all that belonged thereto, a high-toned imitation of a "wake," and in more ways than one became a noted "man of all work;" above all catholic and conciliatory, but below the surface of his public ministry all the time working at the uplift of society by the lever of universal education.

His large reputation as a preacher of "occasional sermons" culminated in a powerful discourse on the melancholy death of Alexander Hamilton. When we read this sermon, than which few discourses preached in the American pulpit have exerted a wider and more wholesome influence, we may be somewhat at a loss to account for its great reputation, tested by the more exacting pulpit standards of to-day. Although rated among the foremost of American preachers during his entire life, Dr. Nott always used the sermon as he used all agencies of influence—to accomplish a definite purpose. He wrote his discourses carefully, with a special intent, and the present effect was greatly due to his impressive extempore delivery. His memory was a miracle. He could repeat with accuracy the entire proceedings of the day before of an important legislative committee, and only required the short interval between the morning and afternoon church service to commit to memory his later discourse so completely that he was never at a loss for a word, and could bring into play all the forces of an attractive personal presence, a wonderful voice, with the facial expression and gestures of a born actor. In this special discourse we admire the boldness with which he assails the barbarous custom of duelling, the magnificent courage of his attitude in the face of public opinion, his prophetic handling of the great themes of public life with nothing of the apologetic manner so often assumed by the great lights of the pulpit before the leaders of public affairs. This address, the occasion, and the man, combined to make the young preacher, not yet 30 years of age, a national character.

His ministry at Albany was now approaching its natural conclusion. Hereafter he was to be known of all men as the ablest and most progressive reformer of the higher education in the country; the proper head of the new educational movement in his adopted State, and, beyond this limit, the most prominent experimenter in radical methods of college instruction and discipline which, ridiculed and denounced at first, have now become the commonplace of university administration and training through the land.

Meanwhile his home life had come to an end by the death of his accomplished and

devoted wife, who died in Albany, leaving six children in his charge. He gave up his home, placed his little ones in care of judicious friends, and in the silence of his great sorrow awaited the call of the Lord. He had lived at the capital city six years, on a salary of $1,000 and $1,200; from an unknown missionary in a wilderness had become the best known of the younger clergymen of the State, already noted by the few whose appreciation is the final test of permanent distinction, as one of the most remarkable men in the Commonwealth. He had served as a trustee of the new Union College at Schenectady, and, on the retirement of its third president in nine years—Smith, Edwards, and Maxcy—was unanimously elected to the presidency of that institution.

To the ordinary observer of educational movements in New York the acceptance by Rev. Eliphalet Nott, at the age of 31, in 1804, of the presidency of Union College would appear either an act of youthful presumption or the venture of an ambitious young man ignorant of the conditions of success in an undertaking so perilous. It was now ten years since a little academy, ornamented with a college "sign," had been set up in the frontier village of Schenectady, a town of 3,000 people, including 300 negro slaves, the negro graveyard a separate inclosure off on a windy hill in the suburbs. The location of the school had been sharply contested with Albany. But it can now be understood that the placing of the new institution only 17 miles westward from the capital involved the future character of Union College. Governor George Clinton and General Schuyler, with others, saw clearly that what was needed in the new State was a seminary of the higher secondary and collegiate education, planted in the frontier western town whose population and situation would be favorable to such an enterprise, and whose aim would be to educate the young men to whom the State must look for its progressive and executive leadership in a near future, rather than in a city already old, fixed in obstinate social prejudices, hitherto displaying little interest in popular education, and in close contact with all the demoralizing influences of public life. It is doubtful if Mr. Nott himself would have consented to assume the presidency of a new college established at the capital. But Schenectady, even in the parlance of many of the older people in Albany in 1860, was "out west," and in 1804, in all essential respects, 20 miles west of Albany was a "new country."

The final location of the school at Schenectady was probably due to the vigorous work of some of its own citizens, including General Schuyler, with the Rev. Breck Romeyn, although aided by influential public men. It was expected that it would represent the denominational interest of the Presbyterian Church as differentiated from the Dutch Reformed and Church of England bodies that divided the population of that portion of the State. At first the venture was an academy of little more than local importance. But a building erected at the cost of $60,000, afterwards turned over to the use of the public schools, was an announcement that the child was born to live.

A succession of presidents, all men of mark, Rev. John Blair Smith, of Pennsylvania, a distinguished Presbyterian clergyman called from his Philadelphia pastorate; Jonathan Edwards, son of the great New England philosopher and theologian, and Rev. Mr. Maxcy, coming from the presidency of Brown University, Rhode Island, and afterwards president of South Carolina College at Columbia, were all men above the average of college presidents in the colonial or earliest national era. But neither of them seems to have apprehended why the new college had a call to exist. Their united administrations were included in nine years, during which a large majority of the graduates were candidates for the Christian ministry. The school was in dire financial straits and literally "starved out" its presidents and professors. In 1804, when Mr. Nott assumed the presidency, there were but 40 students and 17 graduates. In 1820, sixteen years afterwards, the attendance had risen to 300, with 65 graduates, and Union College of New York was already becoming a name of national import.

The explanation of this sudden rally in what was regarded a doomed experiment is now plain to every student of education in New York at the beginning of the

present century. It is found in the fact that a man was seated in the plain presidential chair who "took in the situation" at a glance. Two problems were presented to his mind at the outset, one negative, the other decidedly positive. The negative problem was the fact that there were in New England and the Eastern Central States already colleges of the ordinary type more than sufficient for the needs of the people. Harvard, Yale, Dartmouth, Williams, and Brown in New England, Columbia in New York City, Princeton in New Jersey, and the University of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia—all respectable, well manned, and, according to the prevalent ideas, moving on proper scholastic lines. The University of Maryland, William and Mary and Randolph Macon in Virginia, the universities of North and South Carolina, and other seminaries aspiring to college work were amply sufficient for the Southern Atlantic Slope. With the single exception of the University of Pennsylvania, which, under the guiding minds of Dr. Franklin, Dr. Rush, and others, had been planted with a broad outlook toward a future system of public instruction—all these in the Eastern and Central States were essentially ecclesiastical foundations, devoted to the classics and the few studies that were but an annex to an exclusively classical culture, looking to the increase of the Christian ministry for their reputation and opportunity for usefulness. It was doubtless a great advantage during the long colonial period that these older institutions should thus concentrate on the training of a cultivated class (the clerical body), in order to resist the tendency to sheer materialism which was the "terrible temptation" of a new country in that day, and in order to lift the moral standard of private and public life in an age of rough license and growing prosperity. There is no evidence that Union College was founded originally with any essentially different idea than the establishment of a Presbyterian seminary of education and a headquarters of denominational propagandism in the new country. At any rate nothing happened in its administration until the advent of the young president from Connecticut, fresh from his laurels on the frontier and at the capital, to disturb this ideal, under which the school had been brought to the verge of practical failure and ultimate ruin.

If Dr. Nott had been born thirty years later he might have become one of the foremost railroad builders or presidents that New England has sent forth during the past half century to draw the iron highways of civilization from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the northern boundary to the Gulf. He had the marvelous "business faculty" that was an instinct in the original New England character. With unerring sagacity he applied his mind at once to the financial situation. The entire annual income of the school in 1804 was $4,000, on which the president and teachers were working at starvation rates in the narrow limits of a frontier village schoolhouse. With the decisive energy and tact which characterized his entire career he utilized the large professional fame and personal confidence gained by his six years' ministry in Albany for an attack on the legislature. Well knowing the impossibility of obtaining from that body any decent appropriation as "State aid," he availed himself of a common expedient by which so many benevolent church and educational projects were founded a century ago, a lottery. He asked from the State permission for the formation of two schemes of this sort, one for the immediate relief of the institution in 1805, another, of larger scope, including several institutions besides his own, the former for $80,000, the latter for $200,000. The lottery, like the college, would become a success or a failure according as the right man was at the helm. The result was that President Nott himself assumed the direction of the enterprise, and, by a masterly feat of financiering, not only obtained the face value of the original sums but laid up in store a fund of $600,000, turned over to Union College as a personal donation at the close of his sixty-two years' presidency.

Of course this experiment, so original a departure from the habit of the regulation college president of the day, drew upon the first great educational financier of the period the charges of selfish and corrupt administration that always beset the upward path of any able man on his appearance upon the perilous road to success. But Dr. Nott departed this life at the age of 93 with no stain upon his personal honor,

absolutely cleared from all imputation of self-seeking, an eminent object lesson of what the successful president of a great American university is now expected to be. By obtaining this income he was able to lift the college buildings out of the everglade of petty village gossip and local intermeddling in which so many institutions of learning have been smothered in their infancy, and began to build upon a broad plateau overlooking the lovely meadows of the Mohawk, one of the most attractive sites of any American university.

The next point in order was to switch the college train from the narrow clerical and denominational track out upon the broad "through route" of a collegiate school, which, not unmindful of the cause of good learning and in no way indifferent to the idea of a broad religious and moral preparation for all coming life and work, should give itself to that type of the higher education of which the new Republic was most in want, the graduation of a body of efficient young men, strong in self-reliant character, broad intelligence, trained executive capacity, and popular sympathy, especially with the great problem before the life of New York and the new West—universal education for American civilization. All this was introduced with the firm hand and consummate tact that are an augury of success.

The experience of Dr. Nott from fifteen years as a teacher in common and academical schools had only confirmed his youthful idea of school discipline. For a while he sat by and watched the regular habit of the faculty of Union College sitting in solemn state to try every offender against college law and order, censuring, imposing fines, expelling, and loading with penal humiliations the unfortunate boy whose animal spirits or crude manners were often a large element in his disobedience. As he expected, there soon came up a case of unusual difficulty, when he announced that hereafter that special high court "was adjourned without day."

He inaugurated in its place the assumption of a personal responsibility by the president and professors, especially by the president, in dealing with every individual case of discipline on its own merits. As in the case of President Timothy Dwight, of Yale, and Francis Wayland, of Brown, at a subsequent period, this system, in the hands of a wise manager of men and an expert in human nature, was a triumphant success. He removed, with his own family, and insisted on the removal of his entire faculty, to the boarding house of his students, where for years they lived together like one great household. Every boy was known personally, and after the first observation was never for a day out of range of the manly affection of the father of them all. He had the wisdom—so rare even among the best teachers—to fully understand that the secret of good school government is to bring the more influential students into cheerful cooperation with the faculty as an indispensable element in the making of the true community which every American school should be. He conquered organized opposition by dealing with individual students, thus destroying the mischievous habit of class and society combination. If a pupil was incorrigible he was quietly retired, with the hope of restoration on fit evidence of repentance. He did not unload his own failures on other institutions or encourage rejected students to come to Union, although accused of both these offenses by rivals, who gave to Union College the nickname "Botany Bay." But, as the original Botany Bay of the British Government has now become Australia, the wonder of modern civilization, so did Union College outlive this slander and in the end set the college clock of discipline half a century ahead. President Wayland, of Brown University, carried the same idea to Rhode Island, and more to him and the example of Union than to any one influence does the American college and university of to-day owe its exemption from the old monastic rule of assuming that every boy entering college is a child of the devil and a college faculty a detective police and an infallible judge rolled into one to preserve the very existence of the institution itself.

A distinguished public man, relating his experience as a student at Union College, said: "It was but a few weeks after I reached Union College, a stranger to everybody, from a New England State, that one day on the campus I saw Dr. Nott making

haste to come up with me. He came up, out of breath, and threw his arm around me, saying: 'My son, I want to say a word to you. We have in your class a student of fine abilities who is getting into trouble by disobedience to college rules. Now, will you take hold with me and try to save that boy? We need your influence with the class to do your best, that this boy shall be saved to be an ornament and a pride to us all.'" Said my informant: "That speech lifted me up from a boy to a man. From that day I first realized that I had the power to influence anybody but myself."

What was true of this man was true of every susceptible student of Union during the administration of Dr. Nott. Said the old president, many years later: "I love to learn of one who formerly sat at my feet as a pupil." Under this administration, in the hands of a natural administrator of large affairs and a wise manager of men, it was not remarkable that Union College, in fifty years from the accession of Dr. Nott to the presidency, had received more than 4,000 and graduated more than 3,000 students from every portion of the country. As we shall see, many of the most influential men in all the departments of active life, with a notable roll of eminent clergymen of all the Protestant churches, went forth from its halls.

Of equal importance was it that the mediæval spell of an almost exclusively classical curriculum which, even until the Revolutionary epoch had held the American college, should be broken. Wisely avoiding a sharp controversy with the college faculty in this direction, he quietly solved the question by striking at the chief defect in the reigning system—its ignoring of the English language and literature. He assumed the direction of the chair of belles-lettres and made himself as eminent by his method of instruction as President Mark Hopkins in philosophy at Williams. Under his leadership of a class the hour of recitation, so often dull and dispiriting, was lifted to a delightful exercise by a free talk from the professor and discussions with the learners. Every boy who was not a dullard or a "miserable offender" went forth from such an exercise filled with enthusiasm, with an ambition to be the kind of orator that Dr. Nott was, a man talking with and dealing with the head and heart of every individual hearer, and longing to bring mind and soul in contact with his finger ends in some act of decisive importance. He built up the scientific department of the college, not only by precept but by his own lifelong interest in scientific studies and his faculty as an inventor, having taken out thirty different patents and made his name a household word through all eastern America by the invention of the first stove for burning anthracite coal.

Meanwhile the interests of classic and philosophic learning were not neglected in the persons of Prof. Tayler Lewis, Prof. Alonzo Potter, and Dr. Hickock, who all became men of national reputation in their respective departments.

Dr. Nott appreciated the fact that many promising youth were unable to come to college or to remain during the complete course, and appropriated $50,000 of the earliest income to student aid, while he arranged his course of study for the convenience of those who needed an extra time for graduation.

At Union was laid the broad foundation of the elective system of study which, carried to Brown University by one of its early graduates and professors, Dr. Wayland, has finally reconstructed the entire university and college curriculum of the country.

But it was perhaps as a great reconciler in religion and a master of conciliation between the rival sects and groups of discontented clergy, whose contentions distracted the early American life, that Dr. Nott achieved his most signal success. Both within and without college walls known as a conservative Connecticut parson, he brought Union College into speedy accord with the foremost representatives of the Dutch, English, Scotch, and German populations in the valleys of the Hudson and Mohawk, made Schenectady the receipt of a steady patronage of students from the South, and reached over to New England for more than one boy, who went on "out West" to become a man of mark. In the highest sense he was the instructor of New York politicians and statesmen in that aptitude for general administration which is the most evident note of superiority in public life of the Empire State. For

fifty years he was one of the most important public men in the Commonwealth, and all-powerful before the legislature; bearing himself in a judicial attitude before people of all classes, parties, and forms of faith. He refused a pressing invitation to go to Boston as a representative of the prevailing evangelical creed in the ministry at Park Street Church, one of the head centers of the controversy which rent New England, and from whose results these States have not yet recovered. But while retaining his high standing as one of the foremost preachers and executive forces of the Presbyterian Church, he absolutely refused to be dragged into any position of hostility or theological antagonism with any of the great religious bodies, including the Hebrews, Catholics, Unitarians and other denominations, in his broad Christian fellowship.

Thus, while Union College must have been regarded, in a sense, a denominational establishment, it was in reality one of the first in the New West to deserve the name of an American unsectarian Christian university. And after the experiments of a century in the art of eliminating religion from the life of an institution of higher learning in a republican State, it still remains true that the only reliable and permanently successful universities of the country are those resting on the solid basis of loyalty to a broad and practical Christian religion as the inspiring spirit of a high and generous culture. President Nott became, as the years went on, one of the most notable builders of the new American civilization. He said of the offending student: "Let the boy have a chance to try again." He sent forth the leaders of the three great religious bodies from Union: Dr. Wayland, Baptist; Dr. Robert Breckinridge, of Kentucky, Presbyterian; Bishop Alonzo Potter, of Pennsylvania, Episcopalian, to say nothing of eminent preachers and ecclesiastics in the Dutch Reformed and other leading Protestant sects. He laid down his own law of executive service: "We may take all the comfort God gives us, but we must defend the post at which he places us, though it should cost us wearisome days and sleepless nights." His opinion of the controversies and bigotries that disgrace the sacred cause of Christianity is given in full: "If the Christianity of to-day should bring in a millennium, it would take two or three more millenniums to make this world fit to live in." Princeton and Brown bestowed upon him the college honors of D. D. and LL. D.

The roll of trustees of Union College from first to last leaves out few of the most eminent men of the State. No educational man in America has more widely gained the admiration and high estimation of its foremost statesmen than Dr. Nott. Many of the ablest of the public men of New York and other States—Spencer, Root, and, above all, William H. Seward, of New York, Bayard of Delaware, Rice of Massachusetts, were not only graduates of Union but largely molded by the influence of the great president. He became one of the most powerful advocates of the temperance reformation, though always doubtful of the political policy of State prohibition. He was on record, in opposition to his local interest, against slavery in the abstract and the policy of slavery extension.

But in no direction was the influence of Dr. Nott felt—especially during the early years of his administration—more decisively than in the movement for universal education in his adopted State. Coming from Connecticut, where the common school had existed from the foundation of the colony, he saw clearly the difficulties and dangers that beset any movement for the introduction of a common system of public instruction. It was significant that the first twenty years of his presidency fell in the years of the earliest experiment at organizing the people's school in New York—1812 to 1832. The first State superintendent of education in New York, Gideon Hawley, was a graduate of Union College, as was also the ablest of his successors, John C. Spencer. From Union College went forth Dr. Wayland, who threw the powerful influence of Brown University on the side of the final movement in Rhode Island in favor of popular education. Bishop Alonzo Potter, one of the ablest advocates of state education in Pennsylvania, was a professor in Union and son-in-law to Dr. Nott. Dr. Robert Breckinridge, who saved the common school of Ken-

tucky, was also one of the graduates of Union. President Tappan, the creator of the University of Michigan; President Hager, of the State Normal School at Salem, Mass.; William H. McGuffey, eminent as an educator and compiler of common-school books in Virginia and Ohio; Dr. Griffin, president of Williams College, Massachusetts, and Jeremiah Day, president of Yale College, were also Union men.

Of the 4,850 students of Union College up to 1854, 885 were clergymen, 1,070 lawyers, 265 physicians, 225 teachers and professors, and 95 farmers. Two Presidents of the United States, Martin Van Buren and Chester A. Arthur, and scores of men in the higher public and industrial life were the pupils of this great school. Roger B. Taney, William L. Marcy, Governor Rice of Massachusetts, John V. L. Pryne, John H. Reynolds, Erastus Root, William Cassidy, Preston King, Amos Dean, John Van Buren, N. P. Tallmadge, Peter Gansevoort, T. Romyen Beck of New York, and Albert Barnes and Theodore Clapp, both clergymen of great public influence in the Middle and Southern States, were of the number. It is doubtful if any American college ever sent forth a larger number of influential men in public and professional life than Union during the sixty-two years' presidency of Dr. Nott. In Governor William H. Seward and in John C. Spencer, secretary of state and superintendent of schools, he gave to New York the most important agents in the organization of the present common school system of the Commonwealth.

EMMA WILLARD.

While the great work of Dr. Nott was going on at Union College, Schenectady, another enterprise, fraught with equally decisive results in the State of New York and the nation, was inaugurated at the new city of Troy, 20 miles to the east, on the opposite side of the Hudson from Albany. This was the establishment, in 1820, of the Troy Female Seminary, under the lead of Mrs. Emma Willard, with the cooperation of her husband, Dr. John Willard. Although but 5 miles from the capital, Troy was, in more than one respect, half a century away from its neighboring city of Albany. The latter was the center of the solid conservatism of the ancient Dutch régime; a rural capital city, where the active end of society revolved about the yearly meeting of the legislature and the residence of the State officials; a city that, until the advent of Dr. Nott and his new Presbyterian Church, had failed even to provide sufficiently for the schooling of the children of its superior families, to say nothing of its neglect, until 1850, of any substantial arrangement for the education of the masses of its people. It would have been impossible for Union College or the school of Mrs. Willard to have become the characteristic institutions they were if located at Albany, even as late as 1820. Dr. Nott wisely planted himself on the frontier of civilization, at Schenectady, as a point "out West." Mrs. Willard, after the usual discouraging experience with New York legislators of that period, left the little village of Waterford, where for two years she had supported a school, and accepted the offer of Troy to furnish a $5,000 schoolhouse with a public gift of $4,000 and private subscriptions, that in this new city, practically a New England colony on the Hudson, her great experiment might be tried for the higher education of American girls.

As in the case of Dr. Nott and so many of the educational agitators and actors of this period of educational transition in New York, Emma Hart was a New England girl, straight out of the center of Yankeedom. She was born at Berlin, Conn., in 1787, the year when Manassah Cutler, of Connecticut and Massachusetts, was manipulating the congress of the confederation in behalf of the magnificent gift of the national public lands to the New Northwest, which gave this empire beyond the Alleghanies the first great lift toward its proud elevation of public education, to-day its best claim to the admiration of the world. She was the sixteenth of her father's seventeen children, the youngest being Almira, afterwards Mrs. Lincoln Phelps, who, in her day and place, was the true "other half" of this pair of great

Connecticut girls. She came of good stock. Her mother, a second wife and the parent of ten of the seventeen children, was one of those devoted, thoughtful, persistent women who seem born to refresh the generations by the gift of great daughters and sons. While yet little children, Emma and an older sister were sent out every year, at the time of carding and sorting the wool of which the family clothing was made, to scatter the remnants for which there was no home use on the bushes that the birds might gather them up to build their nests—a beautiful prophecy of the big nest for the shelter and training of American girls built by Emma forty years later at Troy. Her father was one of that class of religionists who, even at that early day, revolted with all his heart and soul and strength from the terrible theology and ironclad bigotry of the old Puritan creed and social order. Being compelled, as an official act by his position in the church, to prosecute two men who refused to pay the regulation parish tax to support a church in which they did not believe, he did his duty—paid the tax himself, took the men out of jail, and "freed his conscience" by leaving the church, into which he could not be coaxed again until the day of his death. It was out of such a combination of deep religious mother faith and love for all God's creatures and the father's defiant courage in "forcing the fight" of dissent that the character of this most womanly of women, most courageous and capable of educational reformers, was all compact.

Her education until the age of 15 was obtained from her parents, with the aid of the ordinary district school of the day. After 15 she spent two years with Dr. Miner, where she studied hard to keep ahead of her examinations, even wrapping herself in a big overcoat and sitting on a horse block in her father's woodshed to study her lessons while the home resounded with the racket and roof-splitting fun of a young people's party within. At the age of 17 she was urged to open a school for young children in her native village. The forenoon of the first day was spent in the vain attempt to bring her crowd of incorrigible youngsters into any condition of obedience or attention to the orders of the young schoolmistress. At the noon recess she supplied herself with a bundle of stout rods and spent the whole afternoon in administering a sound thrashing to every member of the school. Afterwards that particular school understood that "order is Heaven's first law." At the close of the term her reputation as a teacher was established at home and "through the region 'round about."

From this experience she turned again to her own schooling, and spent two years at Hartford, Conn., in two of the best schools of the town, with tuition at "two and sixpence and board at 12 shillings a week." This was the end of her school life, although she remained a persistent student until the end of her life at the age of 83. She returned to teach the academy at Berlin, from which she was soon invited to attractive positions in three States. She lingered at the old academy at Westfield, Mass., a few months on her way to her final New England work at Middlebury, Vt. Here she established a school for girls which soon made itself felt in such fashion that the great dons of Middlebury College condescended to attend its examinations and commencements and warmly praised the young schoolmistress, with the qualification that "it would be altogether irregular for her and her girls to be seen on similar occasions at the college." But already this bright young maiden had "taken the measure" of the college itself, and asked herself the decisive question that nobody but a wise and brave woman can answer, Why can not the girls of America be admittted inside the iron gate through which their brothers pass into the enchanted land of the higher education?

Happily for her and the cause she so magnificently represented for half a century, she was now turned aside into the "green pastures and still waters" of a happy marriage, and for five years, until the age of 30, lived as the wife of Dr. John Willard, a physician by profession, then a high official of the State and an enthusiastic political follower of Thomas Jefferson, whose educational ideas he had also accepted. The loss of his political office and financial reverses were the guiding hand of Providence to lead the young wife back to her own great vocation as the

pioneer of a superior education for young women, especially of the great world beyond the Berkshire Hills. It would be an untold advantage if the "lady principal" of the American female seminary could always, like Emma Willard, come to her work with a personal knowledge of the common schools of the people and a teacher's experience in every grade of elementary and secondary school, crowned by a few years of a successful and happy marriage. The launching of thousands of young American girls, with only the experience of a few years spent as pupils in an exclusive female seminary, even ignorant of the common routine of home life, doubly oblivious of the nature and habits of children, not even aware there is such a science and art as pedagogics, into the most responsible posts of instruction, often the principalship of a large school for young women, is one of the least hopeful educational signs of the times. When, in 1814, at the age of 27, furnished with that experience of life which to such a woman includes the best in the highest schooling, Emma Willard stepped forward in the reestablishment of her model school at Middlebury, Vt., she knew just what she wanted to do. With the hearty cooperation of her husband, who managed the practical details of the enterprise, she succeeded in bringing 70 girls about her, and up in the highlands of Vermont began to draw to herself the daughters of the most influential people of the neighboring State of New York.

She early recognized the absolute importance, in every enterprise of education, of keeping herself and her cause before the people. She had no respect for the absurd attitude of exclusiveness and overstrained public reserve by which a class of schools for American girls seeks the patronage of the peculiar type of families whose ambition seems to be to educate their daughters "under glass." Emma Willard was a woman of the people, not in the vulgar sense of being an educational demagogue, appealing to the false pride and cheap ambition of the great crowd whose desire is to clutch the prize of high position and eminent success without the labor by which no real place in American society can be secured and retained. But she stepped forth at once as a superior woman, sure of her own position, knowing what she would do, claiming by her right as the representative of thousands of young American women to demand the approval and cooperation of the most influential men and women of the time. While yet at Middlebury she began that habit of correspondence with the most distinguished public men of the time which was so large an element in her future success. She wrote to President Monroe, Chancellor Kent, and other less celebrated but influential gentlemen in New York, unfolding her plans through her letters and a prospectus of a college for girls, carefully prepared by herself, and such as had not until that time been addressed to the educational public of the nation.

It may be remarked that this was seven years before the city of Boston had attempted to establish its free high school for girls, which after a brief existence was abolished and waited a generation for its resurrection. There were already a few schools for girls in New England, and fewer still in the Middle and Southern States, where the claims of a thorough and extended system of education were acknowledged. But these were generally of an exclusive type, accessible chiefly to the daughters of the educated and well-to-do families of the leading cities. Mary Lyon had not yet gone forth in Massachusetts on her great work of making the secondary education so cheap that the girls of the poorer class of farmers and mechanics could "work their way" up to an educational outfit for good service in the school and church. Mrs. Willard's eye was upon the whole country. She realized that New England could safely be left to make its own way to the best results, while the great new world opening beyond the Hudson and the old States extending down the Atlantic Coast was the most inviting field in which to plant an institution of national proportions.

She first made a lodgment in Waterford, a suburban village of Albany and Troy, invited by a few families whose daughters had attended her Vermont school. She at once attracted the attention of Governor De Witt Clinton, the foremost public man that had yet appeared in the State government of New York, the obstinate and

intelligent friend of education in all its relations to a superior Commonwealth. By his approval, through his messages to the legislature and the assistance of a group of the foremost men then gathered about the capital, she obtained a charter for her school in Waterford, under the patronage, such as it was, of the board of regents, with the expectation of being admitted to the distribution of the small annual income of the literary fund. Her application for an appropriation and endowment by the State, similar to that by which Union College had been lifted from the obscurity of a small village academy to a position among the great colleges of the country, after two years of alternate hope and disappointment, fell to the ground, although backed by the great influence of the governor and other powerful friends.

Already the persistent opposition of the denominational academy and college, which has always been one of the serious drawbacks of popular education in the States beyond the Hudson, was felt in the influence that defeated the movement which would have made the Mary Willard Seminary the Vassar College of New York half a century before its establishment at Poughkeepsie. Convinced that she had mistaken the source of patronage and material aid in dealing with the legislature, and with a decided sense of disillusion in her enthusiastic and reverent estimate of the "fathers of the State," she turned in 1820 to the offer of the young and progressive city of Troy, then and for many years after one of the most energetic and intelligent of the new American towns. The city corporation raised $4,000 by tax. Another fund was raised by subscription. A brick building 60 by 40 feet, three stories above the basement, was erected in the very heart of the town. The building was rented to Dr. Willard by the city government, and in 1821 the beginning was made of the most celebrated school for girls that had been hitherto known in the New World, and according to eminent authorities no school of equal influence was then known in Europe.

Her model school was now a fact, housed in a spacious building in the heart of a progressive and friendly community, in the best possible situation to cover the entire space of the old Atlantic and new Western school public. But this was only the material beginning of the new education that was to be the living soul of the institution. She showed her wisdom by discarding the name "college," under which so many inferior schools were already masquerading before a credulous public, and then and always was the "principal of the Troy Female Seminary." Her leading teachers were largely from the class of young women she had already educated, and her younger sister, now a young widow and an accomplished woman, for nine years was her alter ego in the practical work of the seminary. She decided at once that while the general education in a way more exhaustive and thorough than had hitherto been known was an important need of American girls as an outfit for home and social life, this could never be achieved until a superior race of women teachers was educated to take the places of the class of broken-down females, second-rate "masters," and inferior instructors who were established as the principals and managers of the regulation "female college." Her seminary at once became the great normal school for the training of young women for the office of teaching their own sex; the first great school that began and continued through its long and splendid career with this intention at its heart.

To accomplish this it was necessary that a system of student aid should be inaugurated, whereby a large class of superior young women, unable to incur the expense of $500 a year, could enjoy the opportunities of the institution. This she took in hand as her own vocation, and by a system of loans to her pupils, not half of which could ever be repaid, she expended $75,000 during the years of her principalship, one of the most reliable contributions to the education of woman that had been made at this period of American history.

Then came up the great necessity of the improvement of text-books suitable for the education of young women. She at once determined on a class of manuals higher than those used in the ordinary public schools, to make science, philosophy, and the structure and literature of the language a prominent feature in the curriculum. This

necessitated the making of suitable books of instruction. Her attention was first called to the study of geography, which had been only recently admitted into the course of study in any class of schools. Beginning with the fundamental proposition, "However well it may be for a man to have a good knowledge of geography, yet it is better for him to have a sound judgment and a well-established intellect," she called to her aid Mr. William C. Woodbridge, of Connecticut, the foremost practical American geographer of his day, and in 1821 published the first American geography that proposed the instruction of that science by appeal to the eye through maps and charts and the accumulation of material in portable shape to be carried in the memory. In this career, as the author of a series of schoolbooks, with several volumes of history and science, including the famous Temple of Fame, a valuable chart of universal history, she persisted during her life. Her text-books at the time were a great step in advance, had a circulation of 1,000,000 copies, and were only superseded by others made in the light of past experience in the expanding movements of instruction. She was also a prolific author of articles and public addresses, often of great value, especially to the home and social life of American society. Her habit of correspondence with distinguished people in all departments of activity was continued till her death. She wrote a model hand, and was in the best sense a woman of the world—beautiful, accomplished, high principled, and tactful; but with all her womanly and social attainments concentrated on one supreme interest—the elevation of American young womanhood by the lever of an improved system of education of a genuine American type.

Another and most important step was taken in her refusal to organize her school on the regulation denominational religious platform. Her father's experience had long since made of the daughter at once a most devout and loyal member of a Christian church, a thorough hater of bigotry, and a dissenter from the ordinary ideas of denominational partisanship. Her letter to Rev. Dr. Beaman, then the head of the Albany Protestant pulpit, declining his offer to assume the office of religious instructor and pastoral guide to her seminary, and outlining her own ideal of religious instruction in a girl's college, is still excellent reading, and at that day must have exerted a great influence in high educational quarters. Her plan was to leave her girls free to attend the church of their own choice and derive from their pastors such spiritual aid and comfort as might be desired. But she assumed the responsibility of giving a "course of instruction in the fundamentals of natural and revealed religion, being careful to stop at the point where the different Christian sects divide." In a letter to Catherine E. Beecher, of Hartford, Conn., in 1829, she outlined her idea on the rising question of the generation, "woman's rights," but conservative in thought, she was ever mindful of the fact that her own seminary was a nursery of the great idea of the progress of American womanhood toward the goal of equal influence in American life, which is now the note of the higher society of the Republic.

It is not remarkable that a school organized on this principle at once assumed a leadership in American education. Her pupils were largely drawn from the most influential families of the whole country and from the remarkable class of able and accomplished girls who sought their outfit for a career of usefulness. The pecuniary outcome of the institution and the liberality of her patrons placed her above the necessity of that demoralizing yearly hunt for pupils that so degrades, especially a seminary for girls. In 1825 her husband died, and, with the help of her younger sister, already a distinguished teacher and author of text-books and afterwards the principal of excellent schools in Pennsylvania and Maryland, she assumed the entire control of the enterprise with eminent success, until she delivered it into the hands of her son and his wife, Mr. and Mrs. John Willard, in 1838, at the end of a career of unexampled prosperity. After the unhappy experience of an unfortunate marriage, from which she disentangled herself with the resolution and common sense conspicuous in all her undertakings, she established herself as a resident in the school grounds of her beloved seminary at Troy and gave herself to a life of beneficent activity. She was greatly interested in the establishment of a school for girls in Greece. She was

active in the usual charitable and missionary enterprises of the day. On several visits to Europe she made the acquaintance of many eminent people, and was heartily appreciated in the highest educational circles, being the especial friend of Maria Edgeworth and the Marquis de Lafayette.

But she did not leave this world until she had crowned her long and admirable success by several years of valuable labor in the cause of common school education. The closing years of her seminary life, from 1820 to 1854, covered the central period in the development of the people's common school, which is the subject of this portion of our essay. Under circumstances so painful that many a noble-hearted woman would have fallen into despair, she found in Dr. Henry Barnard a friend and comforter. At 50 years of age she returned to her native town, and for a year, under the instruction and oversight of this great apostle of the new education, the superintendent of public schools in Connecticut, labored as a model superintendent of common schools in Kensington, a district of Berlin, with such eminent success that these four country schools became a model for the State, and nothing but the popular reaction that threw Dr. Barnard out of his position and the State back for a brief time upon the failure of the past generation prevented her from leading in the establishment of the first normal school of the State. Returning to Troy, she became at once interested in the important movement in public instruction in the State by which the system of county superintendents had taken the place of the inefficient management of the boards of township commissioners complicated with district trusteeship. She began a series of extended journeys through the rural districts of the State, in which she visited several of the more important counties, addressed great bodies of teachers and people, attended large educational conventions, and in all ways illustrated what may be done at a critical period of the school life of a community by a ministry of education which includes all the elements of a Christian civilization in its comprehensive scope.

Her last years were signalized by a patriotic and most Christian effort to stay the rising tide of civil war in 1860. Relying greatly on her personal influence, not realizing fully that the country had come to the parting of the ways, where the final destiny of the people, in the language of Abraham Lincoln, was to be "all free or all slave," she went to Washington with a memorial signed by 4,000 American women in her hands, which was presented to the Senate by the distinguished Senator Crittenden, of Kentucky, and by Governor Graham, of North Carolina, to the House of Representatives. But while this patriotic plea for peace and brotherhood failed of effect and was subjected to the natural misapprehension of some of the most distinguished statesmen of both sections, it was in itself an indirect testimony to the peril of the neglect of universal education through vast regions of the country, which it has been our duty to record as a part of the educational history of the colonial and early national period. Had the wise and earnest warnings of all the great fathers of the Republic—Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, Adams, Marshall, and Cutler—been followed by the early establishment of an efficient system of education, reaching from the country district school to the State university, and had the higher education of the old thirteen States been developed on the broad and practical lines of advance of which Union College was the most successful experiment, this dire calamity of the greatest civil war of modern times would have been averted and the national curse of negro slavery would have been abolished through the peaceful methods of public life, to the satisfaction of all reasonable people in all portions of the Union.

But, repelled in her effort for the arrest of hostilities, Mrs. Willard fell at once into her own place as a most intense and patriotic supporter of the Union cause, as far as her advanced age and afflictions would permit. She died in 1870, at the age of 83, her life having been consecrated for sixty-six years, from the age of 17, to the grand ministry of education. It is doubtful whether any woman in American life has lived out her career in a way more womanly, with such profit to so many young women, with such an amplitude of influence ranging through all departments of society. Her pupils had been numbered by the thousand. Her text-books had been used by

multitudes of the most influential teachers in the country. Her labors for common schools were appreciated not only in two States but known all over the land. Her seminary became the model for many schools, and her teachers carried her plans and the spirit of her instruction to every State in the Union.

Emma Willard doubtless had her limitations and weaknesses, like all who live on the high plane of human estimation. But when we met her for the first time, in 1860, still as enthusiastic as a young schoolmistress, in attendance on the annual examination of the Troy Female Seminary, we felt that it would be many a year before the country "would look upon her like again." At the death of her son and his wife the school was suspended. But its site has been adorned by a memorial statue and building in the city she served so faithfully, erected by the children and descendants of the mothers who sat under her powerful and inspiring administration of the education that educates, in the noble foundation that has just been laid for the Emma Willard College on the site of the famous Troy Seminary.

Meanwhile, as the period of the great national revival of the common school approached its inauguration in 1830–1840, the half-conscious premonition of the people for great impending events, always evident to the careful observer of American life, was more than evident in New York. The settlement of western New York, practically the first "Great West" to the people of New England, was being rapidly stimulated by the coming of steam navigation and the building of the Erie Canal. It was a prophetic instinct of his future that sent young William H. Seward from his home in Florida, Orange County, on the Hudson, first to Union College and afterwards to Auburn, then a new village on the extreme frontier, as his place of abode. The new population of the State west of Schenectady was largely of New England origin, who brought to their beautiful new homes the peculiar habit of "spreading themselves" and "stirring up things"—chief among all things the opportunity for the education of the whole people. We have seen that a memorial from the new city of Rochester had already made a stir in the legislature. The educational journal of Francis Dwight, printed first in one of the western towns of the State, had awakened an interest. The great influence of James Wadsworth in the establishment of district school libraries and generally in the advocacy of popular schools was a powerful addition to the movement. The interesting experiment of the "public school society" in the chief city of New York had demonstrated two things: (1) That the people of that metropolis would demand a system of popular education free from ecclesiastical direction; (2) That it was becoming apparent that no private organization, however respectable and above suspicion of sinister motive, could continue to handle the educational affairs of a great city. The association met its deathblow in the great debate on "Religion in the common schools," precipitated by Archbishop Hughes in the interest of subsidizing the parochial schools of his church. The outcome of this able discussion was that, while the vast majority of the people indorsed the conclusions of the opponents of this scheme, their own argument would upset any private organization in its attempt to make the State tributary to its plan of the education of the masses. The way was thus paved for the dissolution of the public school society and its absorption into the common school board of the city. In the vote in 1851 on the acceptance of a free-school system by the State, the favorable majorities in the cities of New York and Albany were the most decisive in the Commonwealth; indeed, with a few smaller cities, constituted the entire majority.

The endeavor to subsidize the academies for the training of teachers for the common schools, although a disappointment to the friends of public education, kept alive the conviction that the teaching force of the State must be improved and that only the people in their primary function of founder, supporter, and supervisor of public education was competent for its success.

In 1836 could be seen a group of important schools that were making the capital city, Albany, the most important center of education for a generation to come. Among the admirable public men whose careers make it easy to believe all that may be affirmed of the influence of the original emigration from Holland in the making

of the Empire State was Stephen Van Rensselaer, of the great family whose possessions included a good part of the three counties of Albany, Rensselaer, and Columbia. Born in affluence and connected by marriage with the most conservative, social, and political class in the Commonwealth, he was in fact one of the most liberal and far-seeing of the statesmen of his day. He was a member of the legislature and Congress; lieutenant-governor and candidate for governor of the State; one of the original commissioners of the Erie Canal, and an associate with De Witt Clinton in that important enterprise. He was the foremost and most important member of the State Agricultural Society and the promoter of the first geological survey of the eastern portion of the State. At the opening of the Erie Canal he sent an eminent popular lecturer on a tour of its entire extent to wake up an interest in natural science by free addresses, illustrated with apparatus and instructions for the collection of cabinets. In 1826 he projected the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, with the hope of support from the legislature. Defeated in this, like Mrs. Willard, he supported this important school of the high industrial scientific type largely at his own expense for fourteen years.

This concentration of schools of the secondary and higher education around the capital city, Union College, the Rensselaer School of Technology, and Mrs. Willard's seminary at Troy, with the Albany male and female academies, was making Albany the most important educational center of the State. The growing interest in historical literature shown by the increasing importance of the State library, under the directorship of Dr. Homes, one of the most valuable collections for the use of a public man in the country, the establishment of the medical and law departments of the projected State university, the foundation of the geological and other scientific surveys of the State illustrated by the fine collections in Geological Hall, the annual gathering in the city of the most accomplished and influential body of people around the legislature, the appearance on the field of politics of a younger generation of public men, Thurlow Weed, and the famous group that followed the fortunes of William H. Seward, reinforced later by Horace Greeley and Henry J. Raymond, representing the rising power of the new metropolitan journalism, itself almost a department of the common school, the rise of the corresponding agency, the popular lecture that culminated in the period of the great civil war, the appearance in Albany of a remarkable group of young artists, Page, the Harts, Palmer, Boughton, Thompson, and others, the great influence of the large body of capable political speakers in which New York then surpassed all States and sections of the Union—all these developments of a broad culture were prophetic of a revival of the people's common school as the corner stone on which the fabric of the secondary, higher, and all true education must rely for its permanent foundation.

The board of regents still held on at the capital city a respectable, almost venerable, testimonial in behalf of what should be attempted by the Commonwealth. And, finally, the great uprising in the East in favor of popular education, responded to by the corresponding revival in the new Northwest, was calling as with a thousand voices to the Empire State to add to all its previous honors the crowning distinction of the leadership of the American people in a new organization and administration of the American common school.

NEW JERSEY.

A popular historian of New Jersey prefaces the first chapter of his elaborate account of the schools of the State by the flattering announcement: "From the first, New Jersey was in advance of every American State in education." The record of the educational achievement of this colony previous to the Revolutionary epoch already made in a previous essay will explain the significance of this remark and illustrate the patriotic intention of the average local American historian to magnify his own beloved Commonwealth at the expense of its neighbors. In one respect it may possibly be said that New Jersey, from the first, was in advance of

all other of the American States. This was in the persistence with which the ecclesiastical idea of the sectarian parochial schools was kept before the people by the leading clergy and the churches of every religious body for more than two hundred years.

The history of education in New Jersey, among the older colonies, in one respect is almost an anticipation of the record of the State of Indiana in the new Northwest. In both these important States the American common school fought its way up to its complete establishment against the intense and persistent opposition of a hostile party composed of the most influential classes of the Commonwealth. In Indiana the conflict was greatly complicated for a term of years by the efforts to establish negro slavery as a permanent institution, although the jealousy of the Southern religious leaders was an important feature in the contest. But in New Jersey there was a long delay of two hundred and fifty years in securing the possession of a system of free common schools for the masses of the people, which brings us down to the year 1871.

We have already seen how at once on the settlement of the colony in 1638 the Dutch, Swedish, and afterwards the Quaker settlers established, in connection with each of the churches, a school of the sect, though in many of the communities the people relied on the clergy for the secular schooling of their children. We have also seen how absolutely inefficient was this method of overcoming the illiteracy which, in the early period of colonization, was the most dangerous foe of civilization, and how abortive were the efforts of the people, up to the era of the Revolution, to obtain a good working system of instruction outside the limits of sectarian domination. We have also borne testimony to the praiseworthy efforts of the Presbyterian people in the establishment of the College of New Jersey and the building up of several important academic schools, as well as the extended influence through the Southern colonies of eminent educators sent from Princeton to the headquarters of the Southern higher education. The statement that the appropriation of an island opposite the present city of Burlington, N. J., for educational purposes in 1683 was the first school fund in America, is disposed of by the fact that in every American colony from the first similar appropriations for local purposes were constantly being made. The permissive law passed by the colonial legislature in 1693 has also been shown to have been practically of no avail. The same influence that persisted until 1838 against the founding of a public school system and, even until 1850, left the common school in a state that exposed it to the contempt of its friends, could be trusted to nullify the success of any permissive scheme of public schooling. Indeed, until 1838 the entire school legislation of the State was retarded by the provision which required that the State moneys distributed to the towns should be expended only for the elementary schooling of children of paupers and the poorer class of the people.

The first constitution of the State, established in 1787, when the new Commonwealth had a population of 184,000, made no mention of education. The first step to establish a permanent State school fund was made in 1816, when the sum of $15,000 was appropriated for that purpose. In 1817 this was raised to $114,000. In 1820 "the first general act to authorize towns to raise money for the support of schools" was passed in the form of a statute that remained in force till 1838, to tax the public to educate the children of paupers and poor people.

In 1824 the legislature provided that one-tenth of all State taxes should go to the increase of the school fund. In 1828 the people of the towns were authorized to raise money in town meeting for the building of schoolhouses. In the same year, 1828, the friends of an efficient school system seem to have made their first important demonstration. A committee of education appointed a "central committee" to work in connection with local committees to canvas the State and collect statistics of general educational import. The result was another demonstration, if such were needed, of the inability of any system of parochial schools either to furnish the means of education or to persuade the people to avail themselves of what was on

the ground. It was found that more than one-third the children of the State were in no school. Some of the counties in their reports showed an advanced spirit. Essex advised the establishment of a State normal school.

The same result of the sectarian system had been reached in New York and Pennsylvania. After a two hundred years' experiment in the city of New York it was found in 1805 that a large proportion of the children of the city were not in the denominational schools, and the famous Public School Society was established by an association of the most distinguished men of the city to meet this crying need. This association, the most important and unselfish of all the private combinations to support public education ever formed in our country, went to its destruction on the same reef of denominational jealousy. The same contention of sects delayed the coming of the common school in the great and wealthy State of Pennsylvania until a period later than the educational revival in New England in 1830–1840.

The fact, always ignored or contradicted in the plan of the advocates of this method of supporting universal education in this Republic, is that, like many other things passably good in their day and generation, this is a method that can only be used effectively under the union of state and church. All its proposed modifications in our country lead the community to the old notion that the State shall take cognizance of the different religious sects and either stand behind one exclusively, as in the mediæval days, or, as in Great Britain at the present time, divide its bounty among a large number, or, as now proposed here, extend a subsidizing charity to all.

But when "the people of the United States" in the organization of their General Government distinctly ignored and rejected all connection with ecclesiastical affairs, and when the people of almost every State placed a similar clause in their constitution, the deathblow was given to this system of public education. All attempts to introduce it during the past one hundred years by indirection, as in Connecticut and New Jersey, and in local and city systems of schools, have been in open defiance of the fundamental American idea that no distinctions of religious creed or polity shall be recognized by the State or nation. It was not remarkable that a body of colonists, trained in the imitation of the ideas of the Europe of three centuries ago, should use all the machinery of their powerful church systems to influence State and city governments to evade or override the express will of the people; but although the contest may be prolonged, as it was till 1838 in New Jersey, the final result will always be the same. In this State, once relieved from this system, the people took the field, and since the civil war have placed New Jersey among the foremost of all States in the most ample provisions for the schooling of the masses, while her colleges, academies, professional and scientific schools, rank high in the general record of the whole country.

The startling revelations of the "central committee" of 1828 resulted in the inauguration of what has been styled "the first comprehensive and practical school legislation" in the State. The school law of 1829 contained some important provisions, though still clinging to the mischievous idea that free education is only to be offered as a public charity to pauperism and poverty. It included: (1) A provision for an annual State appropriation of $20,000, to be divided among the towns in proportion to their tax valuation; (2) a body of town school commissioners, empowered to district the town for such purpose, examine teachers, inspect the schools, and report annually on their quality; (3) an election of school trustees in each district, who were authorized to provide schoolhouses and take the full control of schools; (4) the school age was fixed at 4 to 16, as a guide in the local distribution of State school funds.

But as in all similar contentions between the mass of the people and the powerful organized party of its opponents, the inevitable results came. In 1831 the ecclesiastical forces captured the legislature and swept from the statute book every provision for a practical common school system. By this law the State funds were to be paid not to the trustees of school districts, but directly to all sorts of schools in session in the town, including, of course, private and church institutions. The

school district lines were abolished, and teachers were no longer required to submit to examination by any public board.

Here was proposed the most complete surrender of a State government to the demands of the ecclesiastical power on record by any American Commonwealth since the inauguration of the National Government. And it is important to note the fact that this demand was not confined to one church, but represented practically a combination of all church organizations. In fact, the Catholic Church in our country has suffered the unjust imputation of being the sole opponent of the American common school. Until a period not forty years ago the same attitude toward the system of public instruction was taken by a powerful section of the clergy and leading laity of every influential church. It is noticeable how, through the free and seemingly helpless effort of the masses of the American people during a period of almost three centuries, our favored land has been fully delivered from this system. This fact should be a significant warning to all—that, whatever temporary success may attend such efforts as these, the movement will go the way of all previous efforts of similar character, and the end will come more speedily with every advancing decade of the educational life of the nation.

A seven years' endurance of this law seems to have been the final test of the patience of the people of New Jersey. On July 16, 1838, the most notable convention of the common school public ever held in the State assembled at Trenton. Chief Justice Hornblower presided, and Bishop Doane, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, presented an address to the people that remains one of the most emphatic and convincing arguments heard during the first section of the present century. We ask no apology for presenting this memorable document in full.

The State and Education.

[An address to the people of New Jersey in 1838.[1]]

"Fellow-Citizens: We were appointed by the convention of your own delegates to address you on the subject of common schools. We approach you with solicitude, as deeply sensible of the great importance of the interest intrusted to us, yet, as freemen speaking to freemen, with prevailing confidence.

"The points which we propose for your attention, and, if we might, would press into every heart, are few, simple, and practical; the necessary consequences, it seems to us, from principles which all admit. We say that knowledge is the universal right of man, and we need bring no clearer demonstration than that intellectual nature, capable of it, thirsting for it, expanding and aspiring with it, which is God's own argument in every living soul; we say that the assertion for himself of this inherent right, to the full measure of his abilities and opportunities, is the universal duty of man, and that whoever fails of it thwarts the design of his Creator, and, in proportion as he neglects the gift of God, dwarfs and enslaves and brutifies the high capacity for truth and liberty which he inherits. And all experience and every page of history confirm the assertion, in the close kindred which has everywhere been proved of ignorance and vice with wretchedness and slavery. And we say, further, that the security of this inherent right to every individual, and its extension, in the fullest measure, to the greatest number, is the universal interest of man; so that they who deny or abridge it to their fellows, or who encourage, or, from want of proper influence, permit them to neglect it, are undermining the foundations of government, weakening the hold of society, and preparing the way for that unsettling and dissolving of all human institutions which must result in anarchy and ruin and in which they who have the greatest stake must be the greatest sufferers. A lesson, clearly taught by that divine philosophy, in which the

[1] The convention assembled in Trenton on the 27th and 28th of January, 1838, Chief Justice Hornblower presiding. The address was prepared by the Right Rev. George W. Doane, in behalf of a committee consisting of Bishop Doane, chairman, L. Q. C. Elmer, M. J. Rhees, T. Frelinghuysen, J. S. Green, D. B. Ryall, A. B. Dod, A. Atwood, and S. R. Gummere.

Maker of mankind becomes their teacher, reveals the world as but one neighborhood and men as brethren of one family, and writes upon all social institutions these golden truths, the fundamentals and essentials of the true political economy, which neither individuals nor nations have ever disregarded with impunity: 'All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you do ye even so to them,' 'None of us liveth to himself,' 'Whether one member suffer all the members suffer with it, or one member be honored, all the members rejoice with it;' 'Bear ye one another's burdens, and so fulfill the law of Christ.'

"If the truth of these positions be established their application is self-evident, and there never was a nation since the world was made in which their obligation was so clear or its application so important. In the theory of our Constitution the people are the governors. In practice they ought to be. And is ignorance the qualification for good government? Would you select a man to make your laws who can not read, or one who can not write to execute them? Yet the authority which they exercise and the abuses of which they are capable are nothing in comparison with theirs from whom all power proceeds, and without whose permission no wrong can be done. Fellow-citizens, we are republicans. Our country is our Commonwealth. We have all an equal share in her. Her laws are alike for the protection of all. Her institutions are alike for the advantage of all. Her blessings are our common privilege. Her glory is our common pride. But common privileges impose a common responsibility, and equal rights can never be disjoined from equal duties. The Constitution, which under God secures our liberties, is in the keeping of us all. It is a sacred trust which no man can delegate. He holds it for himself not only, but for his children, for posterity, and for the world, and he who can not read it, who does not understand its provisions, who could not on a just occasion assert its principles, no more sustains the character of an American citizen than the man who would not seal it with his blood.

"It is in vain to say that education is a private matter and that it is the duty of every parent to provide for the instruction of his own children. In theory it is so. But there are some who can not and there are more who will not make provision. And the question, then, is, Shall the State suffer from individual inability or from individual neglect? When the child who has not been trained up in the way in which he ought to go commits a crime against the State, the law, with iron hand, comes in between the parent and his offspring and takes charge of the offender. And shall there be provision to punish only and none to prevent? Shall the only offices in which the State is known be those of jailer and of executioner? Shall she content herself with the stern attribute of justice and discard the gentler ministries of mercy? It was said of Draco's laws that they were writ with blood. Is it less true of any State which makes provision for the whipping post, the penitentiary, the scaffold, and leaves the education of her children to individual effort or precarious charity? It was well said by the distinguished head of our judiciary,[1] even more distinguished as the president of the late convention for common schools, 'The State has an interest in every child within her limits.' May not still more than this with equal truth be said—the welfare, nay, the being, of the State is bound up in the character of every child? Think of the blessings which Washington, and Franklin, and Fulton, and Marshall have brought down upon our land. Think of the scorn and execration which the name of Arnold brings with it, the single name in our whole history at which the nation needs to blush.

"If the positions be maintained that the education of the people is indispensable to the preservation of free institutions, and that it is therefore the duty of every free State to provide for the education of her children, we are prepared, fellow-citizens, for the inquiry, How far has provision been made for the discharge of this duty in the State with which we are most intimately connected—the State of New Jersey? That the duty of making some provision for this end has long been recognized, the twenty-

[1] Chief Justice Hornblower, by his deportment as the presiding officer of the convention, added new dignity to his office and to himself.

one years which have elapsed since the passage of the first act 'to create a fund for the support of free schools' sufficiently attest. That what has been done is insufficient, you have yourselves borne witness in the general impulse which, in December and January last, originated so many of those primary assemblies—in our Republic the true sources of power and influence—for the consideration of this subject; and in that large, intelligent, and most respectable convention, composed of delegates chosen by yourselves to express your own views on the provisions for the public instruction, by which it was resolved with singular unanimity that 'the general laws of this State on the subject of common schools are essentially defective and ought to be repealed.' Into the question, 'What shall be substituted for the present law?' the convention did not enter. It was for them to declare the wishes of the people for a more effective system of instruction. The plan and its provisions they left with perfect confidence to the wisdom of the legislature. The course which the convention pursued is even more becoming for us—the rather as the matter is at this very moment in the course of legislative action. And after all, fellow-citizens, the question what the law is, is by no means so important as the question, What is public sentiment? If the people are but right the legislature never will be greatly wrong; or if they should, the remedy is easy and the cure infallible.

"Omitting all considerations, then, of what has been or of what may be legislative enactments on the subject, we address you as the sovereign people, and we say that it is your duty and your highest interest to provide and to maintain, within the reach of every child, the means of such an education as will qualify him to discharge the duties of a citizen of the Republic, and will enable him, by subsequent exertion, in the free exercise of the unconquerable will, to attain the highest eminence in knowledge and in power which God may place within his reach. We utterly repudiate as unworthy, not of freemen only, but of men, the narrow notion that there is to be an education for the poor as such. Has God provided for the poor a coarser earth, a thinner air, a paler sky? Does not the glorious sun pour down his golden flood as cheerily upon the poor man's hovel as upon the rich man's palace? Have not the cotter's children as keen a sense of all the freshness, verdure, fragrance, melody, and beauty of luxuriant nature as the pale sons of kings? Or is it on the mind that God has stamped the imprint of a baser birth, so that the poor man's child knows with an inborn certainty that his lot is to crawl, not climb? It is not so. God has not done it. Man can not do it. Mind is immortal. Mind is imperial. It bears no mark of high or low, of rich or poor. It needs no bound of time or place, of rank or circumstance. It asks but freedom. It requires but light. It is heaven born, and it aspires to heaven. Weakness does not enfeeble it. Poverty can not repress it. Difficulties do but stimulate its vigor. And the poor tallow chandler's son that sits up all the night to read the book which an apprentice lends him, lest the master's eye should miss it in the morning, shall stand and treat with kings, shall add new provinces to the domain of science, shall bind the lightning with a hempen cord and bring it harmless from the skies.[1] The common school is common, not as inferior, not as the school for poor men's children, but as the light and air are common. It ought to be the best school because it is the first school; and in all good works the beginning is one-half. Who does not know the value to a community of a plentiful supply of the pure element of water? And infinitely more than this is the instruction of the common school; for it is the fountain at which the mind drinks and is refreshed and strengthened for its career of usefulness and glory.

"Fellow-citizens, it is the wise ordinance of God that man shall work for what he values. In all the dealings of your ordinary life you act upon the principle. You plow your fields. You urge your spindles. You ply your fisheries. You tend your shops. With sweat of brow or sweat of brain each precious thing that man possesses must be gained and kept. At no less price can liberty and its attendant blessings be enjoyed. 'That which makes a good constitution,' said wise and pru-

[1] See Franklin's Life.

dent William Penn,[1] 'must also keep it, men of wisdom and virtue; qualities which, because they descend not with inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth.' Ask not, then, when we enjoin on you the duty of providing for the public instruction, where the cost shall come from? Were your house beset with robbers, would you stop to ask the cost of its defense? If an invading army were to land to-morrow on our shores, must we stop to count the cost before we march to meet and to repel them? The common schools are in the place to us of arms and troops and fleets. They are our nurseries of men. They are indeed 'the cheap defense of nations.'

What constitutes a State?
Not high-raised battlements or labored mound,
Thick wall, or moated gate;
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned,
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No—Men, high-minded Men.
* * * * *
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and, knowing, dare maintain;
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant, while they rend the chain:
These constitute a State.[2]

"Fellow-citizens, it is for you to say what shall be the present character, what shall be the future destiny of New Jersey. We have indeed a goodly heritage, but it has been long and shamefully neglected. We have undervalued our privileges. We have overlooked our duties. We have been content to be a pendent merely, when we ought to be an independent State. There is now, thank God, the sound as of a trumpet in the land that stirs the old heroic blood. We feel the remnant sparks of the forgotten fire which warmed our fathers' hearts. The spirit of the elder day is breathing on us with its quickening and invigorating power. Let us accept the omen. Let us obey the noble impulse. Let us arise to duty and to glory. Men of New Jersey, it is you that are to rise. You are the State. You create and you control the legislature. You enact and you sustain the laws. Yours are the means. Yours is the influence. Yours is the work. You make, you are the State. Go on as you have now begun. The system of common schools which shall be adopted by the present legislature, take into your own hands. If it is not what it should be, see that the next legislature make it such. Act together. Act with system. Act like men. The organization for the purpose is complete. The general committee, the committees of correspondence for the counties, the committees of the townships—there is not an inch of ground that is not reached; there is not a citizen of New Jersey whose heart may not be roused by this electric chain. Lay to your hands, then, and employ it well. The work is great, and great must be the effort, and great the confidence. You must trust yourselves. You must trust your fellow-citizens. You must trust the legislature. A system of public instruction is a great and arduous enterprise. You must repose such confidence in those who are to frame it as shall enable them to do it well. When it is framed you will do wisely to commit its oversight, subject to legislative supervision, to a judicious board,[3] selected carefully from your most tried and faithful men, with wisdom to direct and with devotion to exert

[1] Preface to the Frame of Government, 1682.

[2] Sir William Jones, in imitation of Alcæus.

[3] It is said that there are prejudices against a board of education and a superintendent. We can hardly think that they are general. If so, our appeal is to the good, sterling, common sense of the people of New Jersey. Is there a turnpike road, or a steamboat, or a bank, or a cotton factory, whose affairs are not intrusted to a board of managers? Is there a mill in all the State without a miller, or a locomotive in the land without an engineer? Is the education of the people less important than all these? Or is the system of public education to be the only case of a machine that goes alone?

its powers. Above all, give the direction of the engine, with a large and liberal discretion, to a skillful engineer. And when it is made and manned, and set in operation, you must still support it; you must watch over it; you must be yourselves a part of it. The school fund is not equal to the work. And if it were, it would not be so well for you. Tax yourselves for the support of common schools and you will never be in danger of taxation from a foreign power—you will need less taxation for the support of pauperism and the punishment of crime. Look to your schoolhouses. See that they are convenient of access, that they are comfortable, that they are neat and tasteful. Look to the teachers. See that they are taught themselves and apt to teach; men that fear God and love their country. See that they are well accommodated, well treated, well remunerated. Respect them and they will respect themselves, and your children will respect them. Look to the scholars. Have them much in your eye, and always in your heart. Remember you are to grow old among them. Remember you are to die and leave your country in their hands.

"'Good common schools,' says Governor Everett, of Massachusetts, 'are the basis of every wise system of popular education.' This is precisely what they are, the basis of a system; but the basis only. Let us now lay their broad foundations deep and strong—foundations that will stand themselves and bear the noble structure which our children and our children's children, as we trust, will rear upon them. We are the citizens of a small State. We can not, by our votes, control the electoral college. We can not, by our political influence, aspire to be the Empire State of the confederacy. But there is a nobler empire, whose dominion does not come by numbers or by physical power. We may aspire, if we are just to ourselves and to our opportunities, to wield the suffrage of mind. The men of Athens were but few, their territory small, their soil indifferent, yet did Athenian arms prevail against the myriads of the East; and to Athenian letters and Athenian arts admiring nations still award the palm. In the same noble lists let us engage; and make the mastery of intellect the prize of our ambition. Let us devote ourselves and consecrate the State to the great work of education. Let us lay hold in earnest of the remarkable advantages which we possess in this respect, in our accessible position, our temperate climate, our freedom from absorbing interests, the moderate habits, and the simple manners of our people. Let us sustain our present seats of learning; and let kindred institutions in every varied form be multiplied about us. Let us collect the children of the land, and on their minds make the mark which shall go down to latest generations. Let other States excel in commerce, or in agriculture, or in manufactures. But let the staple of our State be mind; the products of our soil, with God to bless the culture, knowledge, and patriotism, and virtue; our highest object and our noblest aim to be the State of common schools, academies, and colleges—the educating State, the nursery of freemen."

The event proved that the convention had not mistaken the purpose of the influential and progressive majority of the people. The legislature of the following winter repealed the law of 1831, and reenacted substantially the act of 1829, revised and improved. In this act the limitation of the State educational bounty to the children of paupers and the poor disappeared forever. The State appropriation was raised to $30,000 annually, the money to be given exclusively to public schools—the townships required to raise $2 for every $1 received from the State, the moneys to be distributed to all, a board of examiners for each county authorized to examine teachers, the minimum of the school age fixed at 5 years, and district lines restored. A supplementary act in 1845 established a general superintendency of schools over the two most advanced counties, with the power to accept the same privilege by the other counties at their own choice. This took place in 1846, and from this first recognition of the common school idea dates the real progress of popular education in New Jersey.

But the actual condition of the common schools in the country may be gathered from the report of Mr. H. F. King, first State superintendent in 1848. His plan for

increased appropriations, new legislation to aid in building and furnishing schoolhouses, to enforce general attendance on school, and for the establishment of school libraries, with an eloquent plea to the friends of education, is enforced by the most graphic picture of the actual condition of affairs.

In 1844–1846 the following articles were placed in the revised constitution of New Jersey:

"ARTICLE IV.—*Section 7.*—The fund for the support of free schools, and all money, stock, and other property, which may hereafter be appropriated for that purpose, or received into the treasury under the provision of any law heretofore passed to augment the said fund, shall be securely invested and remain a perpetual fund; and the income thereof, except so much as it may be judged expedient to apply to an increase of the capital, shall be annually appropriated to the support of public schools for the equal benefit of all the people of the State; and it shall not be competent for the legislature to borrow, appropriate, or use the said fund, or any part thereof, for any other purpose under any pretense whatever."

PENNSYLVANIA.

It is the privilege of the Christian patriot to believe that to every American State in its most vital and sacred interest, the education of its children for American citizenship, there comes once in its history a leader who is not only an educator of unquestioned ability but an apostle of universal education. Such an one was James Pyle Wickersham, superintendent of common schools of the State of Pennsylvania from 1866 to 1881. Born in the State, of good English stock, a country schoolmaster at the age of 16, and from that age on until his honorable public career terminated in an appointment as minister of the United States to Denmark, holding almost every office of importance, local and State, in educational affairs; creator and principal of the first State normal school at Millersburg, State superintendent during the fifteen most important years of the development of the present system of public instruction, with a hand in every good movement for educational reform; president of State and national teachers' associations, chief architect of the famous system of teachers' institutes of the State, and author widely read and of extended influence, universally respected by the foremost educators of the country, he would seem to have been to his native Commonwealth what Benjamin Franklin became to the entire colonial life, the representative of good schooling and good training for the new type of American civilization that emerged from the clouds and thunders of the great civil war.

It will be a grateful task to give a fit record of his administration as State superintendent of schools at the proper place in a subsequent work. But here it may well be said that in no way has he better served the educational public of the country than by the closing work of his life, the admirable History of Education in Pennsylvania, published in 1886. As a careful and judicial record of the evolution of the American common school out of a most complex tangle of hostile elements and environments, it is invaluable to the student of our national educational history. As a conclusive argument for all that has yet been achieved by the American common school, clothed in the garb of a charming historical narrative and glowing with the patriotic appreciation of the radical significance of universal education to a republican state, it will attract and inspire while it instructs. Had many States of the Union been so fortunate in the attempt to narrate their educational history, a work like the present would have been almost an impertinence. His book stands alone, yet a model for the coming race of enthusiastic young scholars who will discover a new field of historical investigation in the story of the American system of universal education, without which the history of academies, universities, and all private ecclesiastical and corporate schools of the secondary and higher culture must be fragmentary and often misleading. No apology is needed for making this record of the educational history of Pennsylvania from 1785 to 1840 practically an abstract

of the copious narrative of this author, with our own comment on what seems to be the occasional bias of citizenship of his own great Commonwealth.

The reader who comes from our account of the educational status of the province of Pennsylvania to the story of the first half century of its history as one of the most important States of the new Republic, will not be surprised at the statement that at the beginning and the close of the Revolutionary war were the most unpromising periods of its educational condition at any time in its history. The State then had a population of 350,000, outside a few important centers thinly sprinkled over a vast area of 45,215 square miles. The old-time interest inspired by William Penn, Franklin, Rush, and other laborers in education, was largely local and municipal, and offered few opportunies for the rural districts. The main achievement so far had been the establishment of several reliable schools in Philadelphia, including the University and the Friends' public school. The different religious denominations were, as usual, at their work of establishing education on sectarian lines, although some of them, like the Presbyterians, had a broader outlook beyond their own household of faith than others. But then, as for an entire generation afterwards, the children of the common people were sacrificed on the altars of nationality, sectarianism, and social discrimination. "In 1775 not only was the number of scholarly men in the province small, but comparatively few grown persons could do more than read, write, and calculate according to the elementary rules of arithmetic, and many remained wholly illiterate." "The college, the Friends' public school, the academy at Germantown, and scarcely a half dozen private classical schools in the older settled counties, with in all an attendance of 300 or 400 students, absolutely exhaust the advantages of this character enjoyed at home by our Revolutionary fathers."

In 1776 the first provisional constitution was formed for the State, and in it we find the following provisions concerning education: "A school or schools shall be established in each county by the legislature for the correct instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters paid by the public as may enable them to instruct youth at low prices, and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities." In 1789-90 the subject of education came before the convention on constitutional revision, and here was the first great "general engagement" of the opposing forces of universal education in the new Commonwealth. Under the lead of Timothy Pickering, a native of Massachusetts and a resident of the portion of Pennsylvania settled from New England, a proposition was made for a constitutional recognition of the New England system of general education. Defeated in this, Mr. Pickering substituted a compromise measure, under which the battle for the free education of the whole people was fought with varied success until 1874. This clause in the revised constitution of 1790 reads as follows:

"ARTICLE VII.—*Section 1.*—The legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide by law for the establishment of schools throughout the State in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis.

"2. The arts and sciences shall be promoted in one or more seminaries of learning."

Meanwhile the legislature had made provision for an indiscriminate appropriation of public lands to seminaries of all sorts and conditions. For years it seemed chiefly to concern the fathers of the State to "aid the church and neighborhood schools in carrying forward the work in which they had been engaged for a hundred years." Between 1790 and 1834, the period now under consideration, "there were contributed funds to one university, five colleges, and about sixty academies, one in nearly every county of the State, a sum amounting to $400,000 or $500,000." In this way did the antipublic school sentiment of the State interpret the provision of the constitution, "for the establishment of schools." None of these "seminaries" were under State control, although some of them seem to have been under the direction of officials elected by the people of the county, and most of them were required to educate a certain number of "poor, gratis." The only provision of the legislature appropriating 60,000 acres of land for public schools failed of effect, the land having been appropriated to themselves by the academies, which were practically the only efficient

educational power in the field. It was twenty-five years from the founding of the State and the first constitutional provision for education before the Commonwealth, in 1802, provided by general statute for the free instruction of the poor.

A rally was made by the friends of a common school system in 1794, and a bill containing the elements of such a scheme was drawn by the educational committee, and passed by both houses, but lost in conference. This was the last distinctive effort for a general system of public instruction until the law of 1834, forty years later; the educational Gettysburg of Pennsylvania, which permanently crippled the forces of the opposition. But, as in the great civil war, the hostile force, though grievously wounded, held on for an obstinate resistance through another period, including the passing of several generations of the children of the State.

In 1802 an act was passed to "provide for the education of the poor class, gratis." This act, renewed in 1804, and somewhat improved in 1809, remained in operation until the radical change in the policy of the State occurred in 1834. It is said that "this act did not provide for the establishment of a single school, nor did it attempt to regulate in any way the existing schools it proposed to patronize." "It compelled parents to make a public record of their poverty, to pauperize themselves, and to send their children to school with this invidious mark upon them." Here did Pennsylvania, for the first half century of the National Union, cast in her lot with Virginia and the South rather than with New England and New York, in her policy for the noneducation of the masses of the people. The meager endowments of academies and colleges were good in their way. This was probably the only way then available in the state of public opinion by which the State could grant material aid to education. It not only discriminated in favor of the more prosperous classes, but, what was more harmful, built up a great educational interest that for more than half a century fought the common school idea at every point, and to this day remains victorious at the most vital department in the school system of a State—the organization and administration of the normal seminaries in which are trained the teachers for the common schools of the people.

But, as in Virginia and the South, this policy from the first was obliged to contend against an able, zealous, and persistent minority. The common school public was always a force not to be despised in Pennsylvania, and here, as in the State of New York, the truth "hid from the wise and prudent" fathers in the church and great schools was "revealed unto the babes" who, during all these years, pleaded the cause of the people. From the first, without a notable exception, the governors of Pennsylvania persisted in calling the attention of the legislature to its economical policy in educational matters, and in every instance a report was laid before that body in which the advantages of universal education under the patronage of the State were pictured clearly and often with extraordinary power. A stout volume could be gathered even of extracts from these messages and reports which would not only present the fundamental principles of public education, but furnish a series of admirable themes for public declamation by the school children of to-day. There is no want in the literature of public education so pressing as a series of works of this character in every State, containing the whole or copious extracts from these utterances of distinguished public men on the subject of general education. And no refutation so complete for every educational heresy now afloat could be furnished as these classics, the high-water mark of American statesmanship, with an accompaniment of comment showing "with what a price" has this people of the United States bought this bounteous provision of the American common school.

In 1812 a supplementary law to the statute of 1809 was passed for the special benefit of the city of Philadelphia, authorizing the county commissioners to establish public schools in such manner as the council of the city of Philadelphia and adjacent municipal districts should approve. Six years later Philadelphia was declared "the first school district of Pennsylvania," with the power to provide a system of education on the Lancasterian plan, at public expense. This included the provision for

"a model school," in which the older children and youth were supposed to be prepared to teach under this the most imperfect and wasteful method of public education that ever deluded the American people. Under this loose-jointed arrangement one master was placed in charge of a great school of several hundred children, his only assistants being such of the older pupils as could be intrusted with the teaching and discipline of the younger classes. Here was sown the seeds of the disease that so long, like a malaria in the vitals, has cursed the common school systems of all the English-speaking peoples; the belief that anybody and everybody, from an impecunious dame to a green school boy or girl, is good enough to be placed in the most responsible educational position—the elementary training of the child. To call this "model school" of Philadelphia the "oldest normal school in the United States" is a misrepresentation of the true idea of a State or city training school for teachers. Its claim to this high compliment is less than that of any respectable academy or college that in giving a youth a competent general education does lay the foundations of success in the work of instruction according to the maxim "You can teach only what you know and as you know it." Under the incubus of this theory the city of Philadelphia and several of the larger towns in Pennsylvania established schools, all of which died a natural death as soon as the people of the State woke up to their duty of placing on the ground a genuine system of common instruction, free from the old discrimination in favor of poverty, in 1834.

Dr. Wickersham gives a copious list of the various local, church, and charity schools by which the people of Philadelphia for almost half a century attempted in good faith to educate the children. As early as 1800 there were more than 200 private schools taught by women in the city. Chief among them was the benevolent system of the Quakers, who supported, in connection with the Friends' Public School, 14 charity schools in 1824. The University of Pennsylvania until a later date also supported a system of elementary schools. Dr. Benjamin Rush and Bishop White labored to build up the original English system of Sunday schools, in which elementary instruction in the "three r's" was combined with moral and religious catechising, for the benefit of the children of the poor. The city was long handicapped by, and to-day bears the marks of, these false methods of dealing with the illiteracy of the less-favored classes. It was the perpetuation of the "good old way," a superior class bending down to a lower class to dispense such "aid and comfort," mental and spiritual, as in its estimation will be adapted to fit and not unfit the children of want in preparing for their proper sphere of life.

And when, in 1818, the city woke up to the idea of a reconstruction of its scattering and wasteful separate, denominational, and private efforts, it still looked abroad for leadership and invited Lancaster himself to the superintendence of the new system of Lancasterian schools. This famous educator was born in humble circumstances in London, where, in the attempt to breast the great flood of lower class ignorance and dependence in the England of the eighteenth century, he opened a school in his father's house for the poor children of the neighborhood in 1778. As the school grew he was forced to call on the assistance of his older pupils for instruction. The system caught the fancy of distinguished people; was appreciated by King George the Third; and, under the leadership of Lancaster, attracted attention among the literati and educators. A great number of schools under what was named "The Lancasterian System," were established in Great Britain. Of course, some people were aided by this crude arrangement and, under the name "Model Schools," a sort of normal school system was established.

The people of the city of New York, in 1805, discouraged by the failure of the attempt of the different religious sects to educate the children of the city, sent a deputation to England to examine the system. The famous "Public School Society," that for forty years attempted to deal with the problem of public education in the metropolis, adopted this scheme of instruction. It won the approval of several eminent statesmen, De Witt Clinton giving it a persistent support. In 1818 the city of Philadelphia was moved by the same excitement. Lancaster himself was brought

to the city and placed at the head of the new system of schools. He remained several years in the State. He was invited to South America, at the suggestion of President Bolivar, in 1823. But the public interest had greatly declined when he returned. He lived in Philadelphia in sickness and poverty, only relieved by death that came to him in New York by accident, in 1838. In 1824 a system of infant schools was established in Philadelphia which resulted in the support of 30 elementary institutions at public expense.

All these schemes for public education, including the Lancasterian scheme of 1818, were simply devices for educating the children of the poor. Neither the State nor the city rose out of this old European delusion that common schools were only for "the common people," even the lower grade of the unlettered class, until half a century after the organization of Pennsylvania as a Commonwealth of the highest grade. While great good came from this benevolent care of the poor by the more favored portion of the people, like all similar charities, the permanent influence was un-American and mischievous. It fixed in the mind of several generations of the superior people of that wealthy and cultivated city a pernicious idea that a "common school" is no place for the education of a child of good parentage and comfortable means, a popular notion which, until the last twenty years, made the second city of the Union perhaps the least favorable example of popular education of any community of similar importance in the Republic. "Philadelphia had no free schools open to the children of the rich and poor alike until the law of 1818 had been amended in 1836 so as to admit all children without distinction."

The able historian of education in Pennsylvania says of the Lancasterian scheme: "In most respects [it was] a mere show or sham that ought not to have deceived anybody, but it required an experiment of twenty years in Philadelphia to expose its defects." One good result was brought out of the "model school," by a bold figure of speech called "The First Normal School in America." This institution finally became the Philadelphia Public Normal and High School for Girls, similar to the Girls' Normal College in the city of New York. In this arrangement a department for training common school teachers was combined with a public high school for girls. At the present time this department of pedagogics is separated from the general High School for Girls and has recently been housed in one of the most admirable public school buildings in the country. In 1834 the city of Philadelphia had 20 public schools, 31 teachers, and 6,767 pupils. The ten years succeeding the reorganization in 1834 multiplied the number of schools tenfold, there being in 1843 214 schools, 499 teachers, and 33,130 pupils.

But the common school public of Pennsylvania through all these years represented a slowly rising tide, every decade encroaching upon the powerful influence which, wedded to the older system of subsidizing elementary schools of all grades and relying upon private, corporate, and ecclesiastical agencies for secondary education, still held back this great Commonwealth from joining the grand army of popular education which had already captured the Empire State and was gathering its forces for the assault along the whole line in 1830-1840 which established universal education under State supervision as the policy of the North.

In 1824 this resolute and aggressive minority made another effort in the legislature, repealed the law of 1809, and put on the statute books an act that was a positive advance on any previous legislation. After making a more thorough provision for the free education of the children of the poor this statute contained a permission to any community to establish a system of public schools, free to no child for a longer period than 3 years, supported by public taxation, school books and stationery free, and an examination of teachers by elected authorities. But even this advanced position was qualified by a provision that any religious school could be admitted to the benefit of public support, and provided that no teacher should be appointed in such school without the approval of its own authorities. But even this mild administration of the public school medicine was too much for the patient at that time. The obnoxious act never went into operation, was repealed in 1826, and the old law of

1809 reenacted. It is not to be wondered at that Governor Shulze uttered these memorable words of warning in his message to the legislature in 1827-28: "Knowledge can not be supplied to all in equal measure, but it is hoped the time will come when none shall be left entirely destitute. Then will the legislature truly be, in this respect, what the framers of the constitution desired it should be—a parent to the children of the poor; and they, in return, will have strong inducements to love, honor, and do their utmost to perpetuate the free institutions from which they derive so great a benefit, so prolific a source of happiness. To devise means for the establishment of a fund and the adaptation of a plan by which the blessings of the more necessary branches of education shall be conferred on every family within our borders would be every way worthy the legislature of Pennsylvania."

The outcome of the policy of the State for the fifty years from the close of the Revolutionary war has been tersely stated by Dr. Wickersham as embracing two objects: "(1) The establishment in all parts of the State of endowed academies, in which a small number of indigent pupils were to be taught gratuitously, mostly with reference to their becoming teachers; and (2) the free instruction of poor children in the existing church or neighborhood schools." The first object is declared by the same authority to have been "only a partial success." Indeed, the policy of educating a body of youth in the endowed academies under a system of pauperization as teachers in the common schools of the State shows the popular estimate of these schools at the end of the first half century of the national life in this great central Commonwealth of the original Union. A series of legislative reports, up to the year 1830, reveals the more than "partial failure" of the favorite system of educating the children of the poor. These reports show the inevitable result of this un-American policy in the neglect, abuse, and often absolute ignoring of the laws already in force. There were then in the State not less than 350,000 children between 5 and 16 years of age. Of these, in 1828 less than 5,000 were educated at the expense of the State. The secretary of the legislative committee proclaims the fact, borne out by all experience in educational affairs, that even then the State of Pennsylvania was expending money enough, "if applied under the control of agents familiar with the most approved systems of elementary instruction, to extend the benefits of an education to all the children within the State."

The unfavorable comparison drawn by Dr. Wickersham between the New England States and Pennsylvania, on the ground that some of these States kept a rate bill attached to their school system even after Pennsylvania made her schools free, ignores the vital difference between Pennsylvania and her sisters of New England and New York. In none of these States was the public school system established or supported as a refuge for "the children of the poor." From the first, it was "a common school" for the whole people, good enough for all, supported and under the management of the whole people for their children. That for many years it exacted a tuition fee is in accordance with the experience of every State or city in the early stages of its proper educational life. It was practically an impossibility for any American community before or for many years during the first half century of the national life to support an effective system of common instruction by public taxation alone. The attempt in Connecticut was a failure and, in New York, to a late date, the rate bill was relied on, as now occasionally in the South, to prolong the schools and meet other expenses. In this respect these States did not differ from Pennsylvania, for all remitted tuition fees in behalf of those unable to pay. But the contrast appears in the radical idea of a public school. In this, Pennsylvania, until 1833, cast in her lot with the South. She did not pretend to do more than establish a system of free schools for the children of the poorer classes. Without the excuse of these States in their peculiar social and industrial organization and intensely aristocratic type of society, Pennsylvania, one of the most prominent, patriotic, and wealthy States of the North, the center of the old Union, with a persistence worthy of a better cause, legally till 1834, and practically till a later date, cast upon the American common school the blight of her public and private disapprobation, as a

school where only the poor, on satisfactory proof of poverty, might enjoy the meager opportunities, at best, found in all sorts and conditions of schools.

The reason of this policy was found in the heterogenous elements of population in this great State, the firmness of its ecclesiastical organizations, the refusal of the seminaries of the secondary and higher learning to indorse any general system for the common schooling of all children at public expense, and the high aristocratic type of society in Philadelphia and the chief cities of the Commonwealth. That in due time all these different elements were persuaded or forced to unite in the sacred cause of popular education and that to-day Pennsylvania is one of the foremost educational States in the Union is another testimony to the irresistible force of the American idea which, sooner or later, brings every community into line and will finally compel, by the mighty power of republican institutions, every religious sect, exclusive class or nationality to forget its prejudices and unite with all for the common welfare. The State of Massachusetts led the way about the middle of the eighteenth century by the common consent of its towns in making the common schools free to all, in this respect not only the pioneer in America but leading the world as the first community that, as a permanent policy of the government, supported free schools for all its children.

The governor of an American Commonwealth, if a wise, energetic, and broad-minded man, is the moral and mental barometer of the State. By a careful perusal of the messages of the successive chief magistrates of all the 44 American States from the date of their admission to the Union there could be formed a tolerably fair estimate of the condition of public affairs on this important interest. The words of Governor Shulze, of Pennsylvania, in 1828, were prophetic of a more elaborate utterance by Governor Wolf in 1831. This governor, under whose administration the State finally broke out from her old inclosure of caste, creed, and nationality, had been a teacher himself and saw the point more clearly than any of his predecessors. His message was reenforced by a strong petition from the Pennsylvania Society for the Reform of Public Schools and by numerous petitions from other sources. The chairman of the committee on education in the assembly presented a report of great force, accompanied by a bill for a complete reconstruction of the educational policy of the State on a common-school basis. Although the legislature was not yet prepared for a movement so radical, it did pass the first law for the collection of a public-school State fund, providing that the proceeds of the public lands should be placed at interest, under the charge of a State commission, until the annual income should amount to $100,000, when this sum should be distributed for the support of common schools through the communities in such a manner as should thereafter be provided by law. It was estimated that this fund would amount to $2,000,000 in 10 years.

But now the long-hoped-for day of deliverance was at hand. The eloquent historian writes: "The people were compelled to wander in a wilderness during one hundred and fifty years, and to learn wisdom from its hard lessons before they were permitted to enter the promised land of universal education. Up to 1830 the great free-school idea was either yet unborn in Pennsylvania or concealed by parents fearful of dangers that threatened the life of such an infant in those old times." In 1828 the Pennsylvania Society for the Promotion of Common Schools put a series of memorials before the legislature which largely contributed to bring that conservative body to a sense of its duty to the children of the State. This society had Robert Vaux for its chairman, and numbered many of the most distinguished citizens of the State as its members, several hundred in all. Standing on the bed rock, it declared: "In every school system it should be a fundamental principle that every child should have an opportunity of receiving an education which will fit him to fulfill his duties." It exposed without mercy the inevitable failure of the jumble of devices that for one hundred and fifty years had been forced upon the State by the jealous intrigues and makeshifts of the classes indifferent or intensely hostile to the American system of universal education for American citizenship. In the memorial

of 1830 it declared, without contradiction, that of 400,000 children in Pennsylvania between 5 and 15 years of age not 150,000 were in all the schools of the State. "Many of the children never go to school at all. Multitudes are living and continue to live in ignorance, and multitudes now receive at best the most superficial instruction."

In 1831 Governor Wolf again summoned the legislature to its obligation, but again the cause of the common school suffered a defeat by the negative of the senate. In two successive years of the legislature bills were introduced by strong reports, but failed of enactment. It was not till the session of 1833–34 that the gathering impulse acquired a consistency and push which inspired favorable hopes of success. The implacable governor became a very "wolf at the door" of both houses of the legislature, and his voice resounded louder and louder to every member of that body.

And now, as so often in similar emergencies, another leader from "Yankee land" appeared on the scene in the person of Senator Samuel Breck, of Philadelphia. This excellent gentleman, already on the verge of old age, had come to the legislature with the one view of promoting the cause of public education. He kept a diary in which were written his hopes and fears of the progress of the great, good cause. Appointed chairman of a joint committee, with a strong body of free-school members as associates, he made a voluminous report which was a treasure house of information drawn from a wide correspondence with all the more advanced States of the Union. The result was that in 1834 was passed, almost by unanimous consent, the "Act to establish a general system of education by common schools," which committed this great and prosperous Commonwealth finally to the American policy of universal education. While lacking in some of its administrative features, this law contained the elements of a working system of free public schools for the whole people.

This law laid off the State into divisions of counties and districts, of wards and townships. It took one step in advance of the time in a permissive clause authorizing every district to introduce manual training. It also had an elective permission for the inspection of schools and made the secretary of state general superintendent of public instruction. It clinched the nail by appropriating $75,000 from the income of the State school fund for general State aid until the interest should reach the sum of $100,000. The school fund had now reached the sum of $1,550,000. The president of the public school society proposed that a volume entitled The Pennsylvania Youths and Freemen's Book of Duties should be prepared and introduced into every school, a suggestion that has recently been adopted in more than one State of the Union, and is rapidly coming into popular favor among university men as a department of "civics" to be added to the curriculum of the American common school. Well may the historian declare: "Historically, the passage of this bill was the most influential event connected with education in Pennsylvania, the first great victory for free schools." In this law the provision for the official management of the divisions and districts was essentially the same as at present, as were also the powers and duties of school directors in the location of schools, building schoolhouses, visiting schools, and making reports.

But the conflict was not yet at an end. The passage of this beneficent law, like an alarm bell, woke to its full capacity for resistance all the hostile influences in the Commonwealth. The statute was permissive, although declaring that only the counties voting to impose a local tax should receive the State aid, thus virtually putting into the hands of the majority of voters in any community the power to deprive it of the benefits of a common-school system. Then, and for years, the majority of citizens in most of the counties and districts were averse to the change. At first it was fully accepted by only a few districts and gained strength chiefly by the offer of State aid. "Of 987 districts then in the State, 485 either voted altogether against free schools or took no action." The bitterness of the conflict rose to the full height of the most exciting political canvass. The northern counties, settled

largely by emigrants from New England and New York, generally favored the law, and the new portion of the State west of the Alleghanies, the stronghold of the Scotch and North Irish people, also received it with gladness. But in the old Pennsylvania, the central, southern, and southeastern region, and, greatest of all, in the German counties, the opposition was formidable. The causes of this opposition have already been clearly set forth. But it should be said in respect to the ecclesiastical opposition that it was chiefly from the evangelical Protestant sects, the Catholic and Episcopal churches not yet being sufficiently numerous to represent an effective opposition. The Friends, Lutheran, Reform, and Moravian peoples, with few exceptions, voted strongly against the American common school. All these religious bodies for a hundred and fifty years had been earnestly engaged in building up their own parochial systems by the expenditure of money and the assistance and cooperation of similar bodies in the old country. It required more than a quarter of a century yet to modify these objections of sect and class and bring the whole people of Pennsylvania into hearty accord concerning the education of the children.

Of course this opposition at once took the form of a furious political campaign to repeal the obnoxious law. The statute had been passed by an unprecedented majority, only 4 negative votes in the senate and a solitary individual lifting his voice in opposition in the house. But the result of the campaign inaugurated in opposition threw into the statehouse in the sessions of 1834-35 a decisive majority of opponents in the senate and a doubtful majority of friends in the house. The governor "stood to his guns," although with premonitions of the defeat which came at the ensuing election as the "reward of merit" so often served out to the public pioneer of a good cause.

But now appeared on the scene another champion of the children. Thaddeus Stevens, the son of a poor farmer, was born in 1792, in humble circumstances, in Vermont. By severe labor and the savings of his mother he obtained an education in Dartmouth College, and at the age of 23 appeared as a teacher and law student in Gettysburg, Pa. In 1831 he was sent to the legislature, labored in favor of an educational grant to a local college, and voted for the school law of 1834, though with no hand in its construction. He was then and always remained unmarried, but, like many another childless man, became a most conspicuous advocate of the children's cause in its hour of peril.

The legislature was flooded with petitions for the repeal of the new school law, 32,000 people having signed or caused their names to be signed to documents which, if rightly described by a committee of examination, were in themselves the most convincing proof of the necessity of education, more than 10 in every 100 having depended on the ability of somebody to write their names, and not 5 in 100 signing in English, with a woeful disregard of the minor proprieties of cleanliness and legibility. The German clergy of the State had been thoroughly aroused, and a very formidable element of opposition was the sect of Quakers. But Governor Wolf and his successor, Governor Ritner, were of the superior class of Germans, "solid" for schooling, and with refreshing obstinacy stood by the ship and defied the rage of the opposition.

The senate at once passed an educational bill which partially repealed the law of 1834 and sent it to the house, where the friends of repeal challenged the school men to a "fight to the finish." It was the sort of conflict where victory comes only as the reward of the fearless, positive, and relentless devotion of a leader fully competent and afraid of nobody. Such a champion was found in Thaddeus Stevens, who, to the amazement of friend and foe, with small outfit of personal popularity, took the floor, routed the enemy by a torrent of mingled argument, sarcasm, and denunciation, and so confirmed the wavering and inspired the faithful that the law of 1834 was not only sustained, but sent back to the senate revised and improved by a majority that compelled acquiescence.

This and a subsequent speech in 1838 in behalf of the endowment of colleges and

academies placed Mr. Stevens at the head of the grand army of educators in his State during the remainder of his life. These speeches were printed on silk and preserved as precious relics, and a memorial hall commemorates his name in Pennsylvania College. When that long-waited-for work, Notable Deliverances in Behalf of Universal Education, is compiled, this series of legislative orations by Thaddeus Stevens will take an honorable place by the side of the most eminent in the educational literature of the Republic.

The date of this great victory was April 11, 1835. Governor Ritner, who owed his election to a split in the Democratic party on the educational question, against a strong resistance among his own supporters bravely and wisely stood by the new policy and secured the practical working of the law in 1836 by diverting $500,000 of the "surplus revenue" received by the State from the nation to a fund for building schoolhouses to receive the incoming throng of pupils. It was none too early. The new statute had forever abolished the odious distinction between the rich and poor and made the public schools not only open to all, but free from every trace of a rate bill, a notable advance in which Pennsylvania placed herself twenty years ahead of her neighboring State, New York. In the smoke and tumult of that great battle one-half the ancient policy of the State—that the public school is a pauper's school—disappeared forever. The yearly State appropriation, exclusive of the schoolhouse fund, had leaped from $75,000 to $400,000 in two years, a dollar for each taxable inhabitant of the State.

The governor was fortunate in his secretary of state, the first efficient superintendent of schools in the Commonwealth, Thomas H. Burrowes. A young man, educated in private schools and abroad, he came to his difficult office not only inexperienced, but with confused and inadequate ideas on the whole subject of popular education. But the practical experience of administration educated him rapidly into one of the most efficient of the early superintendents of education in Pennsylvania, although his peculiar notions, especially concerning normal school instruction, aided to fasten on the State the present system of subsidizing a group of academies for the training of common school teachers. Mr. Burrowes held the office for three years, but during a long life was a tireless and influential friend of popular education, and in 1862 at a critical time was again called to the State superintendency, did excellent service in the establishment of soldiers' orphans' schools at the close of the civil war, and died president of the State agricultural college in 1871.

In 1837 Superintendent Burrowes reported 742 of the 987 school districts of the State as having accepted the law; 3,384 common schools were in operation, with 3,394 teachers, one-fourth women, and 150,000 children under instruction, with monthly salaries of $18.38 for men and $11.96 for women teachers. The schools were open four months and three days in the year. Thus in three short years the number of pupils had increased nearly fivefold from 32,000, and the office of superintendent of schools had been put in good working order, with a vigorous administration of educational affairs well under way.

Here we leave the consideration of the public school system of Pennsylvania for the present. It was still a permissive system, not yet really taken to the heart of the Commonwealth, still to encounter a long experience of popular indifference and opposition. It was not till 1848 that the permissive feature by which the counties could reject or refuse to act under the statute was repealed and the system made mandatory over the entire Commonwealth. Still, the battle of popular education had been fought and won, and after one hundred and fifty years wandering through the desert Pennsylvania was well over Jordan, with a good prospect in due time of "conquering a peace" in the glorious promised land.

But for ten years more the people of Pennsylvania were persuaded to hold on to their original policy of leaving the secondary and higher education in the hands of private, corporate, and church academies and colleges, chartered and very moderately subsidized by the State, but with no public authority respecting their organi-

zation or the administration of their affairs. Indeed, this statute clung to the common school law like the superfluous tail of an antedeluvian animal on its upward journey by the highway of evolution—a mischievous provision for secondary parochial schools. It required an earnest effort to reduce this primal irregular habit of State aid to a regular system through five years from 1838, and then to convince the most incredulous of the utter fatuity of this British idea in practical operation in the United States.

William Penn brought from England the prevailing idea of a "public school"—a secondary school, generally of the classical type, endowed and sometimes controlled by the government. Such was his meaning in his celebrated document, the "Form of government," in which he declared it the duty of the new government and council of Pennsylvania "to erect and order all public schools." The Friends' public school was established by order of Penn, chartered by the new government, and put in operation between 1697 and 1711. This was a grammar school with several branches in different portions of the city and county, free to those unable to pay and from which no boy of sufficient qualification was excluded. In this Penn intended to establish a system of education for the province, a close reproduction of that which sufficed for the schooling of the well-to-do at home.

In 1749 Dr. Benjamin Franklin and his coadjutors moved on a similar plan by the establishment of an academy with branches open to all male pupils and free to the poor. In 1755 the academy became a college, and was reorganized as the University of Pennsylvania in 1779. It was endowed to the extent of less than $100,000 by the Penn family, the provincial government, and an English subscription. At the reorganization it received a large sum from the confiscated estates of the Pennsylvania loyalists. Up to 1832 it was somewhat aided by exemption from taxation and small benefactions from the State. These were the only institutions of learning that received aid from the government of the province before the war of the Revolution.

Between 1783 and 1836 fourteen "colleges" were established by the State, and all but two received a lift from gifts of money or lands. A list of nearly seventy academies is given which during the period from 1783 to 1836 were chartered, receiving small gifts of money with land. Superintendent Burrowes reported in 1837 that not less than $240,000 had been distributed among these academies alone, adding: "It is believed that no gifts have ever been made by the State with less general good effect than those to academies." In 1834 Samuel Breck, the author of the first free school bill, reported to the legislature: "Most of these academies have fallen to the grade of common schools." It was asserted that only 44 or 45 were in existence. "Most of these have fallen to the grade of the most ordinary common schools, some of them are a burlesque upon the name of "academy," others have lost their charter, not a few * * * have become entirely extinct." It is difficult to anticipate any different result from this indiscriminate chartering of local academies in a new country with the meager public gift, in most cases insufficient for a single year's expenses, at best a temptation to any ambitious teacher or group of people to undertake the establishment of an institution of learning.

In 1838 the State legislature supplemented the common school law, revised and improved in 1836, by an act intended to systematize this matter of State aid to these seminaries of the secondary and higher education. By this law every college or academy with 4 professors and 100 students was to receive $1,000 annually for ten years, and institutions of lower grade a smaller sum, ranging downward to $300 for an academy or other school containing 15 pupils. One advanced feature of this law was the first acknowledgment of the State to aid in the education of girls by including female seminaries in the State benefactions. Under this law during the five years of its existence the State extended aid to 9 "colleges," 75 academies, and 40 female seminaries, 124 in all, and expended $217,000 in the costly experiment. At the close of this final effort, after expending from first to last in land and money $1,000,000, the failure was so evident that in 1843 the policy came to an end. It was from the

first in flat contradiction to the American idea of the support of education by the government, although it had been adopted in New England and continued until a late period in a majority of the old States of the Union.

The attempt to show that it was an early acknowledgment of the duty of the State to educate teachers is of little weight. Of course some of the graduates and students from these academies and colleges became teachers as always and everywhere, even in a State well supplied with normal school facilities. But the only class of persons educated freely in these Pennsylvania schools were the "children of the poor," whose school life was weighted by the stigma of pauperism with only the destiny of a position as teacher in "pauper schools." This mode of the secondary education was gradually supplanted by the extension of the free-school age to 20, which enabled the public-school system to establish a free high-school department. Later came the organization of the present system of normal academies, subsidized and to a degree supervised by the State, flanked by a vast system of county institutes for teachers, which is regarded by the educators of this State as superior to all others.

Thus did the State of Pennsylvania respond to the "star in the East," the notable revival of the common-school system in New England, under the leadership of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, from 1830 to 1860. While it was somewhat inspired by that movement, it was a wave of the great tide of educational reform and reorganization that, during the 30 years from 1830 to 1860, swept the entire nation to the most distant precinct of the then new West; including a profound stirring of the mind and heart of the educational public in the South, as shown by numbers of remarkable demonstrations by eminent statesmen and educators and public efforts, more or less successful, to establish a state system of education for the poorer white people of that section.

CHAPTER VII.

THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL IN THE SOUTHERN STATES DURING THE FIRST HALF CENTURY OF THE REPUBLIC, 1790–1840.

It is still a favorite theory of a class of the representatives of the higher university and college education to proclaim the invariable legitimate descent of the secondary and even elementary schooling of the people always and everywhere from this fountain head. In one sense this assertion is "founded on fact." All things in organized society descend from the fountain head of civilization, among the highlands of personal genius, culture, and character, to the lowlands occupied by the masses of mankind. In ages of darkness; in nationalities still brooded over by the shadow of barbarism; in European kingdoms and empires, where the superior class is secured in the possession of all the great opportunities of life, with the power to transmit them to their children; in all lands where the people have not awakened to the consciousness of the most imperative need and sacred right of man—the need and right to the education that shall develop the nature and faculties of each as a vital element of the general good; it is true that, not only does the superior minority represent this unconscious need and right of the common people, but, as its agent, is intrusted by Providence with the duty of organizing the forces and administering the institutions and systems of all that bears the name of education.

But, in proportion as men are relieved from the involved and obstinate bonds by which freedom has been suppressed for ages, have the people asserted their fundamental personal right to the educational training that develops their individual and social nature and faculties and prepares them for the experience of self-government. With the earliest exercise of this right arises the inevitable conflict of the cultivated class with the unschooled but aspiring masses. Thus, in every modern European nation the higher and professional, even the effective secondary education, strongly intrenched in the union of church and state, has resisted the elementary schooling of the masses save in such quality and quantity as seemed good to these rulers "by divine right." It has only been after successive periods of civil and religious revolution on the continent of Europe that the governments have heeded the clamor of the inferior multitude and finally established, in the majority of these countries, a national system of popular education. But still the European continental school systems, from foundation to summit, are practically in the hands of the government—in several of them still implicated with the state church—and represent the well-understood advantages and less commendable defects of this form of administration.

In Great Britain the opposite idea has at last prevailed. It is only a quarter of a century since the old time method of government control of a university system, tied up in the bonds of religious exclusiveness, has given place to the present method of supporting public schools by the subsidizing of all sorts of private and denominational institutions for elementary education, on condition of examination by a government supervisor supplemented by local school boards to supply a marked deficiency of facilities. But here, as always, the fact is apparent that the inauguration and direction of popular education proceeds from the university and representatives of the

cultivated class, which cooperate to respect and further a universal instinct gradually realized by the masses. As soon as the "common people" begin in earnest to assert the need and right to education, these same representatives of the higher culture, with eminent exceptions, oftener than otherwise are found in combination with a watchful state and church, working at cross purposes with the interest of the people.

The original settlers of the first American colonies brought from Europe the notions which, as we have seen in our record of education in the provincial and early days of the Republic, were the most obstinate and effectual opponents to the establishment of the American common school: (1) The view that the church has the sole and divine right to educate, or at least must hold in its hand the initiative and administration of all education in the form of the elementary parochial, secondary, and higher training in the denominational academy and college. (2) The European idea that the government must originate a complete system of education under the form of a university scheme that includes all departments of learning, subsidized by the state. With this idea the leading colleges and universities, from the settlement of the country till the middle of the eighteenth century, were established according to the theory that they represented education itself, and from them must proceed the movement downward to the humble ranks of society. In a similar spirit several of the original thirteen colonies attempted an organization which should include all schooling of the people under the form of a state university.

The original Harvard University was regarded as the center and soul of the educational system of New England. It was established and for more than a century remained largely under the control of the State. The grammar schools were first made compulsory institutions as an arrangement to supply the materials of its student population, while the elementary schooling was in a fluctuating condition which, even till 1835, left the colleges and academies of Massachusetts still largely in possession of the field. Yale, Williams, Brown, and Dartmouth were, from the first, denominational colleges, neither asking for continuous State support, nor long retained in the enjoyment of its educational benefactions. But Columbia, the University of Pennsylvania, and William and Mary at first contemplated such a union with the government as should make them the head and front of all else in their respective spheres. In every case the intent was antagonized and finally defeated by the policy of rival sects, which also resisted the growing desire of the people for a definite and effective system of popular education.

With the organization of the National Government the same idea appeared in the original establishment in New York of what was called "The University," with a "board of regents," and the evident intention that this body should be the great ministry of the government in its entire relation to education. The same arrangement was made in Georgia which, to-day, by statute includes every school aided by public funds, under the title "The University of Georgia." In practice the Commonwealths of Pennsylvania and New Jersey seem to have agreed in the liberal subsidizing of colleges and academies and neglect of interest in the education of the masses. In every Southern State the State university came first, with a more or less liberal subsidizing of academies, with almost total neglect of the public elementary education, till late in the nineteenth century. The most liberal and far-seeing of all these schemes is found in Thomas Jefferson's plan of education, proposed to Virginia on becoming a State of the Union; a plan to which its author adhered with pathetic obstinacy for half a century, only to see it fall in a mass of ruins, out of which emerged the University of Virginia in 1820.

Outside a few local efforts in some of the leading cities, up to the period of the great educational revival of 1830–1840, none of the Southern States had anything which would be regarded to-day as a proper system of common-school education. This powerful movement for the education of the children of all the people gradually extended through the Northern States until, by 1850, all of them had laid the foundation of their present system of popular education. This movement was also felt, especially among the foremost educators, statesmen, and progressive

people in all the Southern States, and led to very interesting and more or less successful efforts to establish a system of elementary instruction for the poorer classes of the white people. Hence the story of the American common-school in the Southern States before 1830–1840 is soon told and, possibly, would be better treated in connection with the movement led by Horace Mann and his associates in 1830–1840, and extending to the present year.

Still, it would be doing great injustice to the masses of the people of our Southern States, especially to the record of their great educators, statesmen, and progressive class, to drop these links of the historical chain. For in all these communities the one determined impulse toward universal education is apparent among large numbers even of the humbler sort of the white people. Although the educational movement among the superior classes still held fast by the old European form of the denominational college and academy, there was from the beginning an attempt among the people to educate their children.

The history of the higher education in the most prominent of these Commonwealths has been told in a series of "Circulars of Information," published by the National Bureau of Education, in a way that need not in any detail be repeated. But still, the universities, colleges, and academies of these States, up to a period later than 1830–1840, virtually represented the organized educational life of these States, and in a degree attempted to meet the rising demand for the American common school. It will therefore be necessary to make a passing record of their operations during this half century, with an eye especially to their bearing on the "origin of the American common school," which is the theme of this essay. Here, as elsewhere, Virginia set the keynote, and in a brief record of the great conflict in behalf of the "holy cause" of general education, never absent from the mind and heart of Jefferson and his educational colleagues for half a century, shall we find our best guide to a fair judgment of the early educational work of all the original States in this section of the country.

VIRGINIA.

We have already recorded the progress of education in Virginia, from the origin of the colony in 1608 to the establishment of the Commonwealth in 1776. In this period of nearly one hundred and seventy years we find nothing to remind us even of the beginnings of the American common schools, save, perhaps, the action of neighbors in the support of a "field school," or neighborhood arrangement, temporary in its character, but the outgrowth of a popular desire for the schooling of the children. At the opposite end of society we have traced the history of William and Mary College through the days of its greatest influence to the edge of its period of declension, accelerated by the removal of the capital from Williamsburg to Richmond. William and Mary was in more than one respect a government college, according to the pattern of the English universities. It was the creature of the home government, named from the two great sovereigns of the new régime, represented by a member in the provincial legislature, partly supported by public funds, a vital part of the established church of Virginia, situated at the focus of the civic, social, and ecclesiastical life of the colony. Until the breaking out of the war of independence, it commanded the entire approbation of the foremost society of the province and educated such of the promising young men as were not sent abroad or to the Northern colleges. But, with these advantages, it was, from the first, a fit representative of the old-time high aristocratic side of Virginia, and did not attract students from a rising and most important class of the population.

The first educational protest against this policy came from the Presbyterian emigration to the State, about the middle of the eighteenth century. As early as 1738 the Synod of Philadelphia had petitioned Governor Gooch, himself a Scotchman, in behalf of the religious toleration of the Presbyterian people, then emigrating to Virginia. A favorable response was followed by that remarkable movement of the

Scotch, North-Irish, and German Protestant people that gave a sort of backbone to the original colony of the old Atlantic South. An early result was the establishment of an academy in Prince Edward County in 1776, under the rectorship of Rev. Samuel Stanhope Smith, an eminent missionary of this faith, a native of Pennsylvania and a graduate of the College of New Jersey. In 1777 the name of the academy was changed to Hampden-Sydney, compounded of the names of the two great English representatives of civil liberty. The academy developed to the college of that name, which still remains an honored and moderately prosperous college of the conventional type. Until later days, always stinted for the means of support, this institution has graduated many influential men, and numbers of the most successful college men of the South have been connected with its faculty. It established the first theological and model medical school of the State, both of which are still in existence. But its most notable reputation for our purpose is that it was the first declaration of independence from the educational idea of a church and state college under which Virginia had lived until well into the second century of her history. Its higher educational department dates from the administration of President J. P. Cushing, elected to the presidency in 1821. President Cushing was a native of New Hampshire and a graduate of Phillips Exeter Academy. During his administration of fourteen years a proper faculty was organized and the basis of collegiate education laid.

But while the Presbyterian Church was in the American colonies, as abroad, a staunch representative of liberty in civic affairs and religious freedom, as far as the emancipation of the polity of the church from the rule of Rome and the great British State establishment was concerned, being the first organization of the Christian religion in modern days in which the Christian people appear as the foundation of ecclesiastical power, its ecclesiasticism was still a bar to a further expansion of the colonial educational mind. Almost contemporaneous in point of time came the movement by which a Presbyterian academy at Lexington, Va., in the Shenandoah Valley, was dedicated as "Liberty Hall," in 1782 receiving the first charter of an educational institution made by the new Commonwealth of Virginia. In 1796 George Washington proposed to devote to an institution of learning the 100 shares of stock of the James River Company presented him by his native State. Liberty Hall was selected as the recipient of the bounty and its name changed to Washington Academy. By aid of this donation, now represented by a fund of $50,000, and another from the bequest of the Association of the Cincinnati of Virginia, amounting to $23,000, and a third of $40,000 from the estate of John Robinson, the academy blossomed into Washington College, and, as a vigorous and well-supported institution, went on its way till the close of the civil war, when it was baptized anew into the name "Washington and Lee," under the presidency of the most distinguished commander of the Confederate armies. While this college never contributed to the cause of popular education, yet through its president, Dr. Henry Ruffner, it made a most remarkable protest against the institution of slavery that defied the unanimity of sentiment that prevailed before the civil war. His son, Dr. William H. Ruffner, was the first State superintendent of education of Virginia, still the most notable Southern educator of late enlisted in the cause of the people's school, the Horace Mann of the South.

A generation later, in 1829–30, the growing Methodist denomination of the South established the largest institution of the higher education in another part of the State, in Randolph-Macon College. First set up in Mecklenburg County, on the borders of North Carolina, it took to itself the names of the two Representatives in Congress from the adjoining districts, Randolph and Macon. At the close of the civil war, the college was removed to Ashland, near Richmond, where it now flourishes, one of the most noted and useful of all the great schools of the State. From the first this college has been characterized by a certain progressive spirit and broad catholicity of administration. As early as 1839, long before such a movement was entertained by the older colleges of the nation, it established a department of English under the charge of Prof. E. D. Sims, and to the present day has been known as a persistent

representative of that important study. In 1839 it combined with this another new departure in a resolution by its trustees, "That, as soon as practicable, the trustees of Randolph-Macon College will establish a normal school, as a department in the college, in which a good and liberal English education can be obtained and which, in its organization, shall be especially fitted to educate common-school teachers, and that the professor of English literature shall be the rector thereof." The rapidly increasing Methodist body thus, at a period of thirty years before the establishment of the present system of common schools in Virginia, recognized the importance of lifting the inefficient and unpopular "free school" of the Old Dominion into respectability through the influence of superior teaching. The elective system of studies was also established on the removal of the college in 1868. It is not remarkable that in an educational atmosphere so genial, a group of the most progressive and distinguished of the college men of the South has been found in Professor Price, now of Columbia College, New York; Dr. Deems, late of the Church of the Strangers, New York; Professor Lupton, Chancellor Garland, Bishop McTyeire, and Professor Baskerville, of Vanderbilt University; Superintendent Peay, of Richmond; Professor Woodward, of South Carolina College; Professor Sharpe, of Tulane; Professor Edwards, now of Michigan Agricultural College, and others, including its present able and energetic president, Dr. W. W. Smith.

Emory and Henry College, planted in an ideal situation in southwest Virginia in 1833–34 by the untiring zeal of Rev. Creed Fulton, enjoyed an honorable and prosperous career until the civil war. It still needs only the good will of faithful friends to make it one of the most valuable of the higher schools of the great mining, manufacturing, and agricultural realm of southwest Virginia, which is not excelled by any portion of the United States in its resources and capable, by fair treatment, of becoming itself a prosperous State.

Emory and Henry shares this opportunity with Roanoke College, established by the Lutheran body before the civil war, now in a steady course of development. It now shares with the reorganized William and Mary the peculiar merit of sustaining a professor of pedagogy and a historian of education in Dr. Painter.

One of the most prosperous and useful institutions of learning now in Virginia, Richmond College, owes its existence to a movement in 1830 by the Virginia Baptist Education Society, "to devise and propose some plan for the improvement of young men who, in the judgment of the churches, are called to the work of the ministry." The result of this effort for two years was the placing of thirteen young men in private schools. But in 1832 the society bought a tract of land 4 miles from Richmond and opened a manual-labor school, called "Virginia Baptist Seminary." Two prominent clergymen of the denomination, Drs. Ryland and Ball, instructed twenty-six students in the elements of an English and classical education; the majority with a view to the Christian ministry. In 1833 the institution was removed to its present site, now in the corporation of Richmond. Land was acquired with a view of extending the manual-labor feature, but this impracticable device for "working out an education" failed here, as everywhere, and was abandoned in 1841.

From this humble beginning this institution wrought steadily and honestly at the problem of building up a genuine college until 1850, when it may be said to have been fairly established on its present foundation. Although greatly disturbed by the civil war, it was thoroughly reorganized and liberally endowed on the return of peace and is now one of the most reliable of the denominational colleges of the State. Besides the extended reputation of its early faculty in church circles, Richmond College has given to the larger educational movement since 1865 two men of national distinction—President Charles L. Cocke, for many years and still at the head of Hollins Institute, one of the best known and most substantial institutions in the South for the superior instruction of girls, and Dr. J. L. M. Curry, for a time professor and now president of the college board of trustees, at present best known of all educators in the Southern States as general agent of the George Peabody educational fund and of the Slater fund for the industrial and normal training of

colored youth. The history of the gradual growth of Richmond College to its present honorable position, is in one important respect characteristic and worthy of imitation, namely, the honest and persistent intention of its management from the first to avoid exaggeration, work within its means, and make no professions it was not prepared to verify.

All but four of these collegiate schools of Virginia were established previous to 1830–1840. It is a signal triumph of the common-school idea that the ancient college of William and Mary, finally rejected by Jefferson for obstinate opposition to his scheme of education a hundred years ago, is now in its reorganization practically a State normal school for young men, with a larger attendance than in the best days of its old renown.

All these institutions, established before the period now considered, doubtless contributed to keep alive the desire for an effective system of popular education; each in its own way, sometimes despite of itself, being made to work toward the coming policy of the New Dominion, the system of common schools for both races and all classes established in 1870. But the University of Virginia, by its very origin, was more closely identified with the original conception of popular education. The details of the establishment and subsequent history of this, for half a century the leading Southern university, are so thoroughly given in the admirable "Circular of Information" by Prof. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University, "Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia," including its relations to the general education of the State, that we content ourselves with a reference to this work and a passing notice.

We have already told the deeply interesting story of the original conception of a system of education for the whole people of Virginia, including the emancipation and schooling of the colored folk, as outlined in Jefferson's "Notes on Virginia," and brought forward at the organization of the Commonwealth in 1776. Also, the practical failure of the popular side of the scheme in 1796, through that most ingenious method of "heading off" a plan of universal education, a permissive law, placing the initiative of every public school of the State in the hands of the county magistrates, the men of all others who would "have none of it." From that date, possibly owing to the preoccupation of Jefferson in national affairs, the movement was delayed until 1810, when the literary fund was established from "certain endowments, penalties, and forfeitures, to the encouragement of learning." Five years later this was made a substantial reality by the addition of the large sum due from the United States to the Commonwealth.

During all these years, an entire generation from the time when the great project of Jefferson was broached, despite the persistent agitation by the great statesman and his most influential friends, Washington, Madison, Monroe, Marshall, and Cabell, the State had hung back from any practical scheme of popular education, even for the majority of the white population. Baffled at every step in the project nearest his heart, the mind and will of Jefferson more and more centered on the only practicable part of his large plan, the establishment of a university on the broadest foundations, combining the most advanced ideas for a great training school of the new American civilization, that would become in time the proper head of the educational scheme of the State. Jefferson's extended correspondence with the most eminent educators of Europe and America during these forty years, if collected and properly edited with fit historical and biographical environment, would be a most valuable treatise for the use especially of the educational public of the South.

In 1816, the literary fund having grown to the sum of $1,000,000, the board of directors, a sort of extemporized State board of education, of which Governor Nicholas was president, was invited by the legislature to report "a system of public education, including a university, to be called the University of Virginia, and such additional colleges, academies, and schools as should diffuse the benefits of education through the Commonwealth." From this sprung up a vigorous correspondence, in which large numbers of celebrated educators at home and abroad were called to give their

opinions in regard to an ideal school. As usual, each "great educator" addressed presented his own ideal, probably not then realized upon earth, and altogether a mass of very interesting educational literature was placed before the board of directors. But Virginia was not yet to be the leader of the educational column. It was no part of the policy of any class, or of any save a select body of the most eminent statesmen and educators of the State, to open the gates of knowledge even to the masses of their own race. The disappointing outcome of the prayers, toil, and sacrifice of forty years was the law of 1818, appropriating the sum of $45,000, accruing from the income of the literary fund for the schooling of "poor children," under the direction of commissioners of the local courts of each county. These children were to be selected and, with the consent of their parents or guardians, sent to a competent school to be taught the elements of knowledge; supplies were to be paid for out of the moneys appropriated to the school. Along with this went an appropriation of $15,000 for the support of "The University of Virginia."

On this perilous edge of failure did Jefferson and his friends rally for the upbuilding of the university. A favorable commission of location chose Albemarle County. A generous donation of land on an ideal site fixed the destiny of the school. A series of loans amounting to $180,000 from the literary fund, afterwards remitted by the legislature, placed in the hands of the executive committee the means of putting on the ground the most unique and probably the most attractive group of university buildings then in the Union. Professors from abroad, including the famous Professor Cooper, son-in-law of Dr. Joseph Priestley, then living in Pennsylvania, himself deeply interested in education, though under the ban of belief in an advanced religious creed, were brought to the new foundation. Jefferson, the head and front of the enterprise, proposed with great enthusiasm a scheme of university education, at that time undoubtedly the broadest and most practical in the country, which, as far as possible, was adopted by the management. From the imposing height of Monticello the old statesman through his telescope watched the growth of the school, practically directed the organization, and till the day of his death, in 1826, was its real president.

Without doubt the organization of a university on a plan so progressive, especially its freedom from sectarian control, though with steadfast adherence to the fundamental faiths of religion and morality, its elective system of study, its broad and benevolent scheme of discipline, its appeal to the pride of a Commonwealth, with only one political rival in the growing power of New York, was a pledge given by Virginia to the coming generation that in due time the education of the masses of her people should be equally considered. But it was also inevitable that, after the death of Jefferson, the university should naturally pass under the control of the dominant influence of the class which was committed to the policy then uppermost in favor. Jefferson could not fail to realize with what a pittance the State was putting off the majority of her children in the apology for universal education offered by the "poor school," treated with undisguised contempt by "the poor" to whom it was offered even to the opening of the civil war. Of course, with the colleges and numerous academies, fifty in number, that grew up in all parts of the State, including several valuable female seminaries, and the persistent habit of the wealthy people of schooling its children in the North and abroad, the leading favored class built itself up to a condition of power and national consideration always possible under such conditions. The University of Virginia in time became the most prominent institution of the higher education in all the South and one of the most characteristic and influential seats of learning in the Union through the years before the civil war. This is not the place to discuss or even describe the sources of its greatness or its peculiar influence on the rise and development of the educational spirit of the section, all of which will be found so ably and even affectionately set forth in the documents of the National Bureau of Education already referred to.

Jefferson died in deep disappointment because of the virtual failure of his grand scheme for the education of the people of his beloved Commonwealth. The words

in which he published his sorrows, in his declining years, are among the most powerful and prophetic in the educational literature of the Republic. But their fulfillment can be traced in the illiteracy that so widely prevailed up to a late date in this proud old Commonwealth, especially through the interesting country beyond the mountains, including the present State of West Virginia and the southwestern section of the Old Dominion. The period now under consideration was not the day of educational statistics, and only by side glimpses and incidental revelations can it be understood how deeply the State of Jefferson suffered for its long delay in accepting his gospel of the true democracy—the education of the whole people for republican citizenship.

In 1820 alterations in the permissive laws were made by which the benefits of free primary schooling were extended to all classes of white children. The county could be laid off into districts of 6 miles square. As soon as the people of one of these districts had raised three-fifths of the sum to build a schoolhouse the remaining two-fifths might be appropriated from the State literary fund, provided it did not exceed one-tenth the sum due the district from the State. There was the attempt to frame something resembling a general system of common schools; but with the small sum of $45,000 for a State which in 1831 contained 700,000 white people and not less than 100,000 children and youth of proper school age, and, with the extreme improbability that the counties most in need of education would act, or the schools thus established would be worth attending, there was very remote prospect of any considerable result. In fact, in 1840 the number of children in the State in attendance on the State schools was only 27,598, one-fifth of all the children between 8 and 15 years of age. The other four-fifths were being educated by the more popular neighborhood field, private, and denominational methods, or not schooled at all.

A picturesque description of one of the better sort of the numerous Virginia "field schools" of the old time would give a hint that a good deal was going on in this region of educational enterprise and even during these years was germinating the seeds of a great revival of education. It will be a grateful task to record how, during the period 1840–1860, an increasing body of the most eminent men of Virginia called the attention of the people to the imperious educational needs of the time in a way, not only powerful and patriotic, but prophetic of what was in store in a still far off future, when, rising from the awful wreck of war, this grand old Commonwealth, dismembered of a noble estate, should turn at last to the counsels of its great educational statesman in the establishment of the complete American system of common schools for all her people, realizing the idea of Jefferson in a way more in harmony with the ideals of the present age. And when, in the summer of 1879, the University of Virginia opened her doors to the first State institute of teachers, it required no poetic imagination to fancy the marble statue of the illustrious apostle of freedom and education extending his hand in benediction, recalling the prediction that he and his aged friend, John Adams, from their abode in Heaven, should look down with rapture on what both had so long desired but had "died without the sight."

MARYLAND.

Whatever credit may be accorded to the original government of the province of Maryland for the assertion and maintenance of religious liberty under the administration of Lord Baltimore, there is no evidence that, during the long half century from 1634 to 1689, the government had done anything noteworthy for education. The only attempt to found a school under governmental auspices, in 1671, failed and was never revived. The failure was doubtless more the result of the semifeudal and intensely aristocratic structure of society than from the lack of zeal in a priesthood always ready to fortify their church, at least by an establishment of the higher education. It has been well stated that the original Massachusetts law, compelling every neighborhood of fifty families to establish a school, would have been of impossible enforcement in Maryland from the fact that nowhere, outside a few hamlets, were there as many households within sufficient distance of each other for such association.

Originally a part of the vast territory of Virginia, the one early attempt in Maryland to found a school of the higher education was swallowed up by the new enterprise that placed on the soil of the Old Dominion the college of William and Mary. But the wealthy and ruling families of the new colony dutifully sent back their sons to England or France for education, according to their religious connections, and the children that were educated at home depended on family instruction or such "aid and comfort" as might be obtained from the very questionable class of tramping schoolmasters; some of them drawn from the crowd of indentured servants; too many of them of personal ill repute.

The overthrow of the Lord Baltimore régime and the substitution of a Protestant policy at the beginning of the eighteenth century mark the first departure of the government in behalf of education. But until the year 1865 the people of Maryland, outside one or two localities, were educationally in the hands of a class of leaders who seem never to have broadly apprehended the significance of the American common school. From an early day, a full century before the organization of the National Government, there was a growing, often a vigorous desire, for something that would offer the "great American chance" to the children who were being trained to face the tremendous crisis of the conflict for national independence.

But the triple-headed rock on which every movement successively foundered was: (1) The establishment of a system of county academies of the old English free-school pattern, subsidized by the State. These schools were really of the secondary classical type, though proposing to deal with the elementary training of children for their own preparatory work. But these were not supported from below by any general system of elementary schooling and, after a few abortive attempts to found a college or university, had no outlook above. The majority of them were managed by a close corporation after its first appointment by the government, shut out from all public or private interference. They were all tied to the Church of England, and honored the Archbishop of Canterbury as their head. In all but the small subsidizing by the colonial government they were in no sense public schools according to the American idea.

(2) This very organization was the cause of the pecuniary failure into which they all sunk at last, as into a common pit of impecuniosity. There was no public sense of obligation to support them by a tolerable dispensation of State aid. The school revenue was obtained by a system of taxation on the most important production of the colony, with all the vices and none of the virtues of a tariff levied for revenue or protection. Thus, with no provision for what was most needed—a system of elementary education—the mass of the people during the entire colonial period seem to have been chiefly interested, first, in a successful attempt to destroy the colleges in behalf of the academies in which they had somewhat of an interest, and later the unsuccessful effort to divert the small annuity from these to the elementary schools. Instead of being instructed according to the American common-school way—even then in full operation in New England—of putting their hands in their pockets for the public education of the children, these people were divided over the appropriation of a meager pittance doled out from funds not collected by taxation, now to this and now to that style of educational arrangement. As a result of the lack of the higher education there was no body of competent teachers to make the academies what they should be. It was estimated that in thirty years a sum of money had been sent to the city of Philadelphia alone, for the annual superior training of one hundred boys, amounting to $500,000, which, added to the large expense of the higher schooling abroad, would with proper economy have made a solid foundation for a common-school system for the whole people.

(3) Even more fatal was the common blunder of this group of Southwestern Middle States—New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Delaware—of confining the public money spent for education to the support of the children of the poor. Under the colonial life, not yet emancipated from European ideas, this expedient was never grateful to the recipients, and fixed the stigma of "pauper school" on the

whole arrangement. But after the beginning of the national life it was always and everywhere an invidious and hateful method, entailing inevitable failure on every school entangled with it.

Complicated as it was in Maryland, even in the somewhat advanced law of 1825, with the permissive clause which enabled any community to refuse to adopt the system, the fate of public education from the first was doomed to the judgment pronounced by Governor Lyon in 1855. After more than two hundred years of effort as colony and Commonwealth to educate her people, it was declared by the chief executive magistrate of the State that "our school system, except in Baltimore, is in a state of most utter and hopeless prostration. Our plan of public instruction must be reconstructed anew; made uniform in its operations through the State; supported more liberally by State and county revenues, and, above all, it should be subject to some controlling and primary power, through which all operations should be annually collected and made public, or it will fail to meet the exigency of our condition or be attended with any public benefit."

Our review of the pre-Revolutionary educational history of Maryland has sufficiently illustrated this general statement of the causes of failure of the public-school effort, while it has accounted for the wealth of culture and patriotic character developed by the first great effort for national life. The history of the higher education has already been told in a "circular of information," from the National Bureau of Education. It only remains to briefly indicate the successive attempts of the legislature to respond to the growing demand of the people of Maryland during the first fifty years of the Republic for the educational opportunities that never came, save as a sequel to the great war of emancipation from the most formidable obstacle to the American common school, the institution of negro slavery. This institution had lingered in Maryland for fifty years previous only as a burden on the progress of that Commonwealth so favored by nature, and to-day becoming one of the commanding educational centers of the Union.

In 1790 the population of Maryland was 300,000. The only public provision for education was the establishment of the "free school" or academy, already described, in a majority of the counties of the State. Of the fifteen foundations of this sort seven were afterwards consolidated with institutions of the secondary grade, four were abolished, one became an elementary school, and two were utilized for the support of the poor. The constitution of 1776 contained no provision for education. In 1805 the support of the State was withdrawn from colleges, and the nominal "University of Maryland," composed of Washington and St. John's colleges, collapsed. The funds thus diverted from the higher education were now concentrated, for a quarter of a century, upon the attempt to develop the academic system of the separate counties. Several new academies were chartered, some of which succeeded and are flourishing institutions at the present day. In 1802 a medical school was established in Baltimore, which in 1807 was chartered as The Medical College of Maryland, with permission to work a $40,000 lottery for its support. In 1812 this school put forth the departments of divinity, letters, and arts, and assumed the title of University of Maryland, but the only result was the securing of good medical and literary schools.

At a later date, in 1825, the Maryland Institute of Mechanic Arts was chartered at Baltimore, with provision for fifty free scholarships. The foundation has become one of the real schools of the State; has instructed 17,000 students, and to-day is probably in its highest condition of usefulness. During all this half century the legislature was busy with the chartering of many private and denominational schools, with statutes in behalf of education in separate communities, probably all of more or less value; but nothing in the direction of the establishment of a practical working system of common schools. The disestablishment of the Episcopal Church at the organization of the State government in 1776 sent forth more than fifty clergymen of this faith, only seven of whom returned to England, many of them becoming teachers, to the advantage of that fraternity. The chronic plague of the vagrant schoolmaster seems

to have been severely felt in Maryland even to a late day. Many of these people were little better than tramps—drunkards, ignorant; in all ways contemptible as teachers of children. The lack of fit home instruction sent multitudes of the superior students to the neighboring States of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, even farther north, for university opportunities.

Up to the year 1812 "the elementary education was still a matter of private concern, except as the academies performed the office of primary schooling." Each of the fifteen chartered academies was governed by a close corporation of trustees. In 1814 the fortunes of persons dying intestate were appropriated for the schools of Baltimore, and provisions for the schooling of needy orphans at public expense were made by law.

In 1812 the first important essay at public aid for primary education was made by a tax on bank stock and some other sources of revenue. In 1816, $50,000 a year was voted for five years' instruction of the poor, the funds to be raised by a lottery.

In 1821 another attempt was made to move the National Government to a plain act of justice by including the original thirteen States in the gift of Western lands for universal education. Maryland especially would seem to have had a claim to this distribution, as it was the action of her Representatives in the Congress of the Confederation that set in motion the scheme for the magnificent land grant to all of the new States admitted to the Union. An elaborate report was made and resolutions passed, which were sent to all the States, with no important result. In 1823 it was enacted that every academy should educate free one pupil for every $100 received from the State.

In 1825 the popular demand had become so urgent that a decided new departure was inaugurated. Mr. Littleton Dennis Teackle was appointed chairman of a legislative committee to report a system of common-school instruction for the white children of the Commonwealth. After due investigation, the committee came under the influence of the Lancasterian system of instruction by monitors which at this time was in full operation in New York and Philadelphia and largely dominated the official mind of the country. An elaborate plan was offered and adopted. But a great merit seemed to be found in the fact that, by this system, where 300 to 500 children would be under the supervision of one master on a salary of $300 per annum, the entire white youth of the State could be educated for 62 cents per head. The system included: (1) A State superintendency of education; (2) the appointment of nine commissioners in each county by the governor and council; (3) "suitable" trustees, elected for each school district into which the county had been divided by the commissioners, and eighteen discreet persons, also appointed by the commissioners, to form with them a body of school inspectors. The commissioners were to divide the county into districts, examine and approve teachers, distribute the public money, and exercise a general supervision over the working of the system. The public money was to be paid only for the support of teachers.

But this remarkable law bore in its own vitals the fatal disease of "local option;" for it was only permissive, the public funds being dispensed on a poll of the legal voters. It never went into full operation in any county; thirteen only adopted and six rejected it. In 1828 the governor reported the law a practical failure. The State superintendency, held by Mr. Teackle, was abolished, not to be resumed till 1856. The accomplished author of Education in Maryland ascribes the failure to the lack of training in local affairs by the people and indifference and opposition to public taxation for public education.

Yet the educational policy of the State since the year of its settlement had been working toward the schooling of all the children. The city of Baltimore, by this law, was empowered to organize a system of public schools, through the appointment of commissioners by the city government. In 1825 commissioners were appointed who projected a system of elementary education to be put on the ground after five years. In 1828 it was ordered that six elementary schools for boys and six

for girls should be established. But the funds were not forthcoming, and, in 1829, two schools for males and one for females were opened, on the Lancasterian plan, with one paid teacher for 300 children. The system slowly made head, and it was not till ten years later, 1839, on the establishment of the boys' high school (now Baltimore City College) and two of similar grade for girls, that the system found itself with a head and entered upon that career of success which has brought the city of Baltimore abreast with the other metropolitan centers of public education. Baltimore now enjoys a generous system of education, public and endowed, in its common schools, in the State Normal College, the Johns Hopkins University, and the Peabody Institute, with several foundations of wide reputation for the superior education of girls, industrial and art training, and charitable institutions of the educational type, crowned by the admirable free library, the gift of Mr. Enoch Pratt.

With the inauguration of the elementary school system of 1825 there broke out a war upon the chartered academies of the State, with the view of transferring the funds dedicated to them to the new common schools. But this made no sensible impression on the policy of the State in this respect. Meanwhile, the public-school fund had grown from taxes of various descriptions and through a considerable sum from the national "surplus revenue" donated to all the States in 1836.

In 1840 there were in Maryland 12 "colleges," with 813 students; 133 academies and grammar schools, with 4,289 pupils; 565 primary schools, with 16,851 scholars, 6,624 of whom were receiving public aid. The number of white adult illiterates in the Commonwealth was reported as 11,891.

This record of public education in Maryland is relieved, as in all the Southern States, by eminent examples of the efforts of educational reformers and the gradual growth of a popular demand for better things. But, until 1865, at the close of the civil war, nothing essentially different was attempted.

DELAWARE.

Although, in population among the least, and next to the least in size of the forty-four States, Delaware, in her educational history, presents an impressive object lesson on the efforts of her people to overcome the vexatious obstacles to the union of the divers nationalities, sects, and conditions of people of which her population has been made up. Delaware was first settled and governed by the Swedes and Finns, from 1638 to 1655. It was then a Dutch colonial appendage to New York for nine years. In 1664 it passed under English rule. In 1682 the Duke of York ceded to William Penn the two lower counties of Delaware. After an unsuccessful attempt at independence, in 1691, the territory was finally separated from Pennsylvania in 1702, though still under the nominal governorship of Pennsylvania until the close of the Revolutionary war. As if worried to the last point of public endurance by this game of political battledoor and shuttlecock, Delaware fled to the national cover, becoming the first State that gave its assent to the Union in 1787.

The story of the efforts of this original colony of Swedes to perpetuate themselves as a Swedish people in a new country, their obstinate attachment to their own language and the old-country method of combining the church and school during the one hundred and fifty years before this little community of at best 1,200 people was finally merged in the rising tide of British life, might well be published as an instructive lesson to some of our recent European immigrants who incline to the same exclusive policy. Enough to say, that while it is probable these people, chiefly of the humbler sort, were after a fashion able to keep up the home custom of reading their own language, it was fifty years before a school got on its legs and as long before a gift of books came from the Swedish Government with schoolmasters to teach the children to read them. That a people descended from a population so generally intelligent and well-instructed as the Swedes of three centuries ago should have thus struggled for one hundred and fifty years against the prevailing tendency of the new American life, only at last to be swallowed up beyond future recognition,

is one of the convincing proofs of the absurdity of seeking to perpetuate on American soil any state of society antagonistic to republican ideas and the inevitable abolition of European distinctions in the national character.

Even less satisfactory is the record of the brief period of the Dutch occupation of Delaware as a distant suburb of Manhattan Island from 1655 to the conquest of New York by the English in 1664. Despite the vigorous effort to deprive New England of her well-earned reputation as the mother of the American common school, there was little in the original efforts of the Dutch colony, either in New York or the adjacent States, to reveal anything beyond the ordinary parochial school of the day; even at that a feeble imitation of what was a vigorous system over the sea. The Dutch in Delaware seem to have been even less fortunate in securing educational facilities for their children than their brethren in New York, and the little that was achieved was lost in the opening years of the Revolutionary epoch.

We have already, in the early history of education in Pennsylvania, given the record of the Society of Friends in regard to universal education. Even the exclusive sectarian type of their schools seems not to have benefited the province of Delaware while it was a portion of the vast domain of William Penn. Not until 1784 was a denominational school established in Wilmington, Del., by this people, who probably were not in great force in this province. In the possession of a printing press Delaware and Georgia were the least favored of the American colonies, for not until 1761 did a printer take up his abode in Delaware, and but one newspaper was started before the Revolution.

Beyond the passing of several acts confirming grants for schools in connection with churches, etc., there was no early attempt at State aid for education in Delaware. The first constitution of the State, in 1792, contained no reference to education. The revised constitution in 1831 directs the legislature "to provide by law for the establishment of schools and promoting arts and sciences."

By successive laws of 1796–97 and 1806, the latter law enacted to continue in force till 1820, an attempt was made to establish a State school fund from various licenses. This, with such bequests and gifts as might come from individuals, was to be invested in bank stocks in Delaware and Pennsylvania, with a provision that none of it should be appropriated for the secondary or higher education. A subsequent law empowered the government to divert this revenue to the support of the courts, with promise of future restitution. It was not till 1817, thirty years from the foundation of the State, that $1,000 was appropriated from this fund "to furnish instruction to the children of poor parents in reading, writing, and arithmetic." But the protest against the Old World discrimination of the "least favored" of the people came swiftly on the heels of the effort, and the widespread discontent engendered by the attempt to enforce the law paralyzed the common-school movement for years to come. Here came out, in strong relief, the intensely aristocratic spirit of the superior society of Delaware, which, although long retained in the school geographies as one of the "Middle States," was, from the first, most thoroughly Southern and slaveholding till the close of the civil war.

Probably the only American State that has taken the original Sunday School idea of Robert Raikes into its educational system is Delaware. In 1821 the State provided that every school held on the Sabbath day for the instruction of white children should be subsidized at the rate of 20 cents per capita. In 1829 there were nineteen schools of this sort, receiving the aggregate sum of $224. This feature is still retained in the common-school system of the State, and each of its counties receives annually $500 for the maintenance of Sunday schools. Here is perpetuated the old English idea of subsidizing the schools of the different religious sects.

But no effort at amendment could reconcile the people of Delaware to the stigma of pauperism injected into the public-school system by even a benevolent discrimination in behalf of the poor. In this as in other States the foremost public men recognized the fundamental need of the people long before the church or the

legislative bodies were prepared to surrender to the inevitable American common-school idea. From 1822 till 1829 a succession of governors urged in vain upon the legislature the establishment of a genuine system of public instruction. In 1829 the State school fund amounted to $151,643, with the meager annual income of $9,255—a bare suggestion of the sum required for even the elementary schooling of the white children of the State.

At this crisis, as in so many similar emergencies, New England came to the rescue in the person of Hon. Willard Hall, for forty-eight years United States district judge for Delaware. Born in Massachusetts in 1780, a student at Harvard College with William Ellery Channing, Joseph Story, and Lemuel Shaw, he came to Delaware in 1803, and, till the day of his death in 1875, was in almost constant receipt of public honors. He was appointed secretary of state in 1811, 1814, and 1821, a member of the State senate in 1822, and of the constitutional convention in 1831; the compiler of "The Laws of Delaware to 1829, Inclusive." As early as 1822 his attention was attracted to the discouraging condition of popular education in the State and he became a resolute advocate of school reform from the first successful legislation in behalf of common schools till the establishment of the present public-school system in 1875.

The law of 1829 empowered the levy court to appoint five commissioners for each of the three counties, to divide the county into school districts in which no child should be more than 2 miles distant from a public elementary school, free to all white children and youth between the ages of 5 and 21. The voters of each district might choose a clerk and 2 school commissioners and determine how much money should be raised by taxation, subscription, or other contributions to supplement the apportionment of the State fund. The erecting of school buildings and all matters connected with the support of the schools were there determined. A significant illustration of the estimate of woman teachers appears in the provision to supply a female teacher, "when small children can attend school and others are engaged in the common occupations of the country." No district could receive from the State board a larger sum than appropriated by itself. The governor could appoint a superintendent of schools for each county for a year, who, without compensation, should report the condition of the schools to the State.

Here, as always, the permissive character of the statute greatly impaired the success of this otherwise progressive law. At first the people seem to have rallied and by 1833 133 districts had been organized. But the people had not been instructed in the alphabet of popular education, the habit of taxing themselves for a common school. The history of this movement for the next forty years, till 1875, is the old story of the persistent effort of a few eminent friends of education, under their brave and faithful leader, Judge Hall, to stir up legislatures and arouse the people in behalf of the most vital interest of the Commonwealth. In 1836 a common-school convention was held at Wilmington, with Judge Hall as president, which almost became one of the permanent institutions of the State for twenty years. By its suggestion a portion of the United States "surplus revenue" received by the State was divided among the counties for educational purposes. In order to encourage the reluctant taxpayers, it was enacted in 1837 that the small sum of $25, raised by taxation, should enable a district to receive State aid. By 1843 the school fund reached the sum of $183,000; there were 182 schools in operation, with 6,148 pupils, supported at an expense of $32,000.

Up to the year 1818 the higher education had no position in Delaware. The sons of the superior families were educated in the various colleges of the country, and teachers from other States were employed as private tutors in families and to fit youth at home for college. In 1818 the Newark Academy was authorized to raise $50,000 by lottery to establish a college. In 1821 a tax on steamboat and stage lines was added to its emoluments. In 1835 a further permission to raise another $50,000 by lottery was given. Newark College was established and buildings erected in 1833.

Among the eminent men appointed as trustees of the institution we come upon the familiar name of Willard Hall, whose life for a full half century seems to have been bound up in this sacred cause. The college was opened in 1834 with 10 professors, and Dr. Gilbert, a native of New York, was appointed to the presidency. He resigned in 1835 from conscientious scruples concerning the support of the college by a lottery and general discouragement. His successor remained in office but five years, and in 1840 the college had but 42 students, 19 in the preparatory department, although in former years the number had reached 71. Dr. Gilbert returned to the presidency in 1840. The continued progress of the institution, thus founded in the day of small things, will be noted elsewhere. It appears as a recognized Delaware State college in 1869. But from its foundation till 1850 there were but 77 graduates, and but 270 till 1892. The roll includes a large proportion of the distinguished men of Delaware, with students from some other States.

In 1829 the public schools of Wilmington, the chief and the only considerable city in the State, were brought to the head and front of common-school education in Delaware. Beginning with 10 districts, 8 of them in 1834 united in a union school. In 1836 there were 716 pupils and instructors. The present excellent system of common schools in Wilmington practically dates from the year 1852, when, by special act, a complete system of popular instruction was established under the control of a school board elected by the citizens with power to act.

NORTH CAROLINA.

While the colonies and Commonwealths of Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware through the two and a half centuries of their history previous to the great civil war of 1860–1865, despite the teaching of their great educational statesmen, Jefferson and his associates, held fast to the aristocratic British ideals of school organization and administration, North Carolina, both as a province and a State, from the first was moved by a distinct purpose to afford the opportunity of instruction to the masses of her white population. The limitations both of the ecclesiastical and civic policy of the colonial government repressed every considerable attempt in this direction previous to the Revolution. But the elements of a defiant patriotism had already been gathering, largely through the incoming of the Presbyterian people moving down the slopes and valleys of the Appalachian region and appearing in North Carolina in 1736. No colony was ahead of the old North province in the disposition to "show fight" for American independence. Baffled in the effort to establish a university of the progressive type by the veto of the home government, the people rallied about the few academies of the superior sort open to their children and, at an early period of the war of independence, their representatives placed in the first constitution of 1776 the comprehensive declaration, almost a verbal reproduction of a similar clause in the new constitution of Pennsylvania: "A school or schools shall be established by the legislature for the convenient instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters, paid by the public, as may enable them to instruct at low prices; and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities."

It has already been sufficiently explained why the original States beyond the Hudson River were practically compelled to originate the great enterprise of educating their people by the European method of the establishment of a university and the very gradual descent, through the development of the denominational religious college and various forms of the secondary academy, toward the people's elementary common school. When we consider all the circumstances of the settlement and colonial history and condition of the people of North Carolina at the close of the Revolutionary war, none of these may claim a more honorable record for a steady advance toward the great consummation of the American common school than the old North State. Although the institution of negro slavery was, by its very genius and practical operation, opposed not only to the schooling of the slave class, but also of the important "third estate" that intervened between the planter and the

African laborer, yet in North Carolina from the beginning the so-called "middle class" included a larger and more important body of its population, which came to the front at an earlier period and in a more decided way than in the adjacent colonies, north and south. Had not the restless love of emigration that so early seized upon this portion of the Southern people during the first half century of the Republic depleted the State of a numerous and reliable class of its most enterprising and progressive young men, and had not the same impulse moved the State to give away its splendid endowment of territory west of the mountains, there can be no doubt that North Carolina would have led all the Southern States in the early establishment of a system of popular education, the nearest approach to the present American common school possible under her organization of society. As it was, during the half century now under consideration, 1790–1840, this State did make an educational record, if not in some respects so brilliant as Virginia, yet beyond the Old Dominion, more decided at first, more steady in the upholding of the secondary education, and, at the close, 1835–1840, was able to place on the ground beyond dispute the best system of public instruction in the fourteen Southern States east of the Mississippi previous to the outbreak of the civil war.

In our present essay we can only deal with the preliminary steps of this record, the founding of the State University with a glance at the academic system, leaving for future consideration the very interesting story of the establishment of the public-school system which closed this era of prosperity. Even in this, as in the account of education in all the older Southern States before the war, we only sketch the outlines of the upbuilding of the secondary and higher education, referring our readers for detailed information to the excellent library of "Circulars of Information" in the National Bureau of Education, treating of this department of instruction in all the orignal Atlantic States, together with Florida and Alabama.

It was perhaps fortunate for North Carolina that the decided movement of her people for a university was not, as in Virginia at a later period, antagonized by rival institutions representing, like William and Mary, the educational and civic ideas of the early colonial period, and the presence on the ground of several denominational colleges which represented the somewhat limited ideas of their followers. While North Carolina came forth from the trials of the war of Independence with her population of less than 400,000 of all classes greatly impoverished, scattered over a vast realm of 52,250 square miles, yet one of the first acts of the legislature was the charter of the University of North Carolina, with the following preamble to the act of incorporation: "Whereas in all well-regulated governments it is the indispensable duty of every legislature to consult the happiness of a rising generation and endeavor to fit them for all honorable discipline of the several duties of life by paying the strictest attention to their education; and whereas a university supported by permanent funds and well endowed would have the most direct tendency to answer the above purpose: "First, be it enacted," etc. The corporation of the new school included forty of the most distinguished men of the State. In 1792 the university was located on its present site, Chapel Hill, in Orange County, 28 miles from the capital of the State. The corner stone of the first building was laid October 12, 1793. A conspicuous figure in the occasion was Gen. William Richardson Davie, a commanding officer during the war, afterwards governor of North Carolina and minister of the United States to France. The address was delivered by Rev. Dr. S. E. McCorkle, a native of Pennsylvania, the president of several institutions, to whom was offered the first professorship, the chair of moral and political philosophy. The act of 1789 endowed the university with "all the property that had heretofore or should thereafter escheat to the State." This fund in due time became valuable and, with several private benefactions, important for the time. Two lotteries and money from the legislature to the extent of $10,000 made up in 1862 the sum of $148,520.26. The money endowment went to wreck at the reorganization of the State after the civil war. At present the State legislature subsidizes the university to the extent of $20,000 a year.

During the first half century of the university until 1840, its history is largely involved in the biography of Dr. Caldwell, its first and, with a brief interregnum, only president till 1835. At the beginning the school was housed in one building with 50 students. Forty were graduated in the first ten years. Rev. David Kerr, a graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, Ireland, was chosen "professor of humanity" and became the practical head of the institution with Prof. Charles W. Harris, and S. A. Holmes principal of the preparatory department. This arrangement held for only five years, as, in 1798, Mr. Holmes, the last of the three, resigned. The reaction from the policy of the Church of England establishment, under which the colony had remained up to the outbreak of the war, seems to have sunk deeply into the minds and hearts of a considerable portion of the leading people of the State and produced what was then called "an outbreak of French infidelity," representing in religious faith about what may be called "the radical wing" of the Unitarian Church of to-day in the United States and Great Britain. The entire faculty, including General Davie, were implicated in this so-called "heresy," all of them having renounced their faith in Christianity as then commonly believed. Professors Kerr and Holmes retired to the practice of the law, in which they distinguished themselves. Mr. Kerr was appointed a judge by President Jefferson. But, along with these theological heresies, this group of gentlemen seem to have been endowed with "a level head" in their ideas of the higher education suitable for the youth of a new American State. The curriculum is a refreshing contrast to the high classic pretensions of all the colleges then in operation in the country, and about 1800 the degree of bachelor of arts was conferred for proficiency in the English language and the sciences.

The advent of Dr. Joseph Caldwell, D. D., to an important professorship in 1796, followed by his chairmanship of the faculty in 1798, and appointment as first president in 1804, was the signal, not only for an important change in the theological tone of the university, but the real beginning of the era of solid work in the institution through the dangers and trials of its first forty years. Dr. Caldwell was a native of New Jersey, of Scotch and French descent, educated at Princeton, for several years a teacher in New Jersey and a tutor in his alma mater, and at the age of 22 called to the infant university of North Carolina, then the only American college south of Virginia. He at once, in good Presbyterian fashion, took up arms against the new "French infidelity," converted Colonel Davie, and stemmed the tide of "free thought" in the school.

Dr. Caldwell resigned the presidency in 1812 and was succeeded by Rev. Robert H. Chapman, D. D. His influence seems not to have been sufficiently powerful to check the tendency to disorder and rebellion against authority, then characteristic of all American colleges, and which seems to have met its first decisive check with the advent of Dr. Nott, at Union College in 1820.

During the four years, 1812 to 1816, Dr. Caldwell was the professor of mathematics. He then resumed the presidency and held it till his death, in 1835. He gave a decided impulse to the study of the classics. But there was little danger of an undue attention to this department in the face of the two great professors called to Chapel Hill from the North during his administration.

The best known of these was Prof. Elisha Mitchell, called from Yale in 1817 to the professorship of mathematics. He soon developed the great interest in natural science that made him the early explorer of the splendid mountain realm of western North Carolina, where he lost his life in 1857 in the ascent of the mountain named for himself, the highest peak east of the Rocky Mountains in the United States. In 1858 his body was removed to the highest point of this noble mountain, which remained until 1889 his only and fit monument. He was a prolific author in science, meteorology, and the geography of his adopted State. During the eighteen years of his professorship the university increased from 4 teachers and 120 students to 16 professors and 440 students.

Even more distinguished in national reputation was Prof. Dennison Olmsted, a classmate of Dr. Mitchell at Yale, afterwards a teacher and tutor in his alma mater. He came in 1817, at the age of 26, to the professorship of chemistry at Chapel Hill. He persuaded the legislature of North Corolina to intrust to him the geological survey of the State, the first in the Union. In 1825 he returned to Yale as professor, and was widely known as an educator of the first importance, not only in his proper sphere of the natural sciences, but as an influential friend of popular education and an author of school text-books. A third Connecticut man was brought to the university in the person of Prof. E. A. Andrews, who was called to the chair of the ancient languages in 1822. He was called back to an academic school in New Haven in 1828, and in that place and Boston became a distinguished principal of young ladies' seminaries and the author of a well-known Latin grammar.

These four men of mark, representing Princeton and Yale, with others, were the soul of the university during the critical period of its existence, and lifted it up to a distinction equal to that reached by any American college south of Virginia. The successor of President Caldwell in 1835 was Governor David L. Swain, the son of a Massachusetts emigrant to Georgia, though educated at the Newton Academy, near Asheville, N. C., then the one considerable village in the western part of the State. He was also a student in the university, of which he became president in 1835, and held this position through the civil war till 1868. Under his vigorous and continuous administration the university became famous through the South, at one time with 461 students. All these men were, beyond their duties as college professors and scholars, among the foremost citizens of their adopted State; ardent friends of popular education, stirring up the people to the development of the marvelous resources of this wonderful country that now, for the first time since its settlement, appears to be appreciated as not inferior in possibilities to any State east of the Mississippi. For detailed information concerning the university during these years we refer the reader to the excellent History of Education in North Carolina, by Charles L. Smith, published by the National Bureau of Education.

So decided was the success of the State University that it postponed for half a century the movement toward the establishment of rival denominational colleges in North Carolina. Indeed, the original charter of Wake Forest College, established first in 1832 as a theological institute of the Baptist Church, upon a farm 16 miles from Raleigh, on the manual labor system, was obtained only by a majority of one in the legislature, although the State was not expected in any way to endow it. Its final organization as a college came in 1838. Davidson College, the child of the effort to found Queens College at Charlotte, by the Presbyterian body, arose from an attempt to found a school in the southwest corner of the State as early as 1820 under the name Western College. The attempt was revived in 1835 under the name Davidson College, from the brave General Davidson, who died in the patriot cause. General contributions enabled the friends of the movement to erect the buildings, and in 1837 the college opened with 66 students. The Methodist Church followed the example of its neighbors and established Trinity College, developed out of an academy founded in 1838, near High Point, receiving its final name in 1859. The famous Moravian Female Academy at Salem was perhaps the first school for the superior education of young women set up south of Philadelphia. It was founded in 1802 and still remains one of the five higher institutions of learning under the control of this fraternity in the United States. For many years it was frequented by the daughters of the foremost families of all the Southern States, and is still one of the best of the female colleges of the Commonwealth.

The next movement for education following the charter of the university was in behalf of the academic system, of which the State of North Carolina, with more reason than many of her sister States, has always been proud. At different times before 1840 a large number of these schools for the secondary education of boys and girls were chartered, mostly by the zeal of the different religious bodies, or by the efforts

and contributions of the communities in which they were placed, but rarely as private ventures. Half a dozen of these were in existence at the organization of the State. A list of more than twenty is given as established during the last twenty years of the eighteenth century. Several of these, like the Caldwell, McCorkle, and Queen's College schools, had a well-deserved celebrity. The better-off people of the State inclined to this method of schooling their children. Coeducation was a heresy till a later date. A full account of these seminaries may be found in the History of Education in North Carolina, before referred to. Of these the most celebrated was the Bingham Classical School, originally planted in a log schoolhouse, by Rev. William Bingham, a native of Ireland, in 1794. It has grown with the growth of the State, always holding a distinguished place among Southern schools of its kind, and is now transferred to the beautiful little mountain city of Asheville, under the management of the grandson of the original founder. The Friends, Lutherans, and Catholics had their own seminaries of the secondary education. In 1840 there were in North Carolina 2 colleges, 141 academies and grammar schools, and 632 primary and common country schools; in all, 775 educational institutions with 19,453 students.

While this development of the higher and secondary education during the first half century of the national life in North Carolina was very creditable, both as to the number and quality of the seminaries, the final effort for a proper common-school system came later, and only at the close of these years, between 1835–1840, was the system put on the ground. Previous to this time there was a large amount of illiteracy among the humbler classes of the white people, especially in the great pine forest country of the coast and the vast mountain world of the west; a State in itself, even now but little known outside the Commonwealth. Up to 1800 it is recorded that in ten of the foremost counties of the State little more than half the people were instructed in the elements of knowledge, and at the close of the civil war North Carolina stood lowest of all the States in the illiteracy among its white people. But as early as 1816, on the suggestion of the governor, the legislature appointed Hon. Archibald D. Murphey to prepare a scheme of public education.

In 1817, Murphey, then a senator from Orange County, presented to the general assembly the report of the special committee on education, of which he was chairman. In this report is proposed an elaborate system of public instruction which provides for every requirement of the social system. It was so far in advance of its time that all its beneficent propositions have not yet been carried out. This scheme, wide in scope and large in proposition, is embraced in the report of that committee.

Its high and lofty plane is shown in the opening paragraphs:

"That we have much reason to thank Providence for the arrival of a period when our country, enjoying peace with foreign nations, and free from domestic inquietude, turns her attention to improving her physical resources, and the moral and intellectual condition of her citizens. The war of party spirit which for twenty years has disturbed her tranquillity and perverted her ambition, has terminated; and political strife has yielded its place to an honorable zeal for the public welfare. Enlightened statesmen will avail themselves of this auspicious period to place the fortunes of the State upon a basis not to be shaken; to found and cherish institutions which shall guarantee to the people the permanence of their government, and enable them to appreciate its excellence. The legislature of North Carolina, giving to their ambition an honorable direction, have resolved to improve this period for the best interests of the State; to adopt and carry into effect liberal plans of internal improvements; to give encouragement to literature, and to diffuse the lights of knowledge among all classes of the community. Let us foster the spirit which has gone abroad; it will lead to the happiest results. If we ourselves should not live to witness them, we shall at least have the satisfaction of having contributed to produce them, and of seeing our children receive from our hands a country growing rich in physical resources, and advancing in moral and intellectual excellence. This is the true way of giving strength and permanence to the Government; of giving it root in the hearts of the people, and nurturing it with their affections. What people will not love a Government whose constant solicitude is for their happiness, and whose ambition is to elevate their character in the scale of intelligent beings? Having commenced this great work of humanity, let us persevere in it with a patience that

shall not die, and with a zeal that shall not abate, praying to the Father of all good that He will enlighten and direct our course, and finally crown our labors with success.

"Your committee have entered upon the duties assigned to them with a full conviction of their importance, and of the difficulties which attend their discharge. But believing that let the subject be taken up where it may those difficulties will exist, and availing themselves of the light thrown upon the subject by the wisdom of others, they have prepared a system of public instruction for North Carolina, which with much deference they beg leave to submit to the consideration of the general assembly. In digesting this system they have adhered to the general principles of the report on this subject submitted by a committee to the last legislature, and have embraced a provision for the poor as well as rich, and a gradation of schools from the lowest to the highest.

"To give effect to any plan of public education, it is essentially necessary that ample funds be provided, and that these funds, and also the execution of the general plan, be committed to the care and direction of a board composed of intelligent and efficient men."

The committee considered the subject in eight divisions:

(1) The creation of a fund for public instruction.

(2) The constitution of a board to manage the fund and to carry into execution the plan of public instruction.

(3) The organization of schools.

(4) The course of studies to be prescribed for each.

(5) The modes of instruction.

(6) The discipline and government of the schools.

(7) The education of poor children at the public expense.

(8) An asylum for the deaf and dumb.

In a special report the creation of the fund for public instruction was considered. The board of public instruction is the first division treated in this report.

The report recommended that six directors constitute this "board of public instruction," with the governor as chairman, ex officio; three of these directors to be elected by the general assembly from the counties east of Raleigh, and three from the western counties; the board is authorized to elect a vice-president and secretary, and their compensation is fixed at the same per diem as that of members of the general assembly. They are to have direct supervision over the entire system of public education, being given the power to establish institutions and regulate courses of study, "and in giving effect to this plan," says the report, "the board shall regard the primary schools as its foundation." Members of the board are ex officio trustees of the university. Section 7 recommends that "all expenses incurred in carrying into effect this system of public instruction and supporting the same shall be charged upon this fund and paid out of the proceeds thereof."

"In arranging the system of schools," says the report, "your committee has endeavored to make the progress of education natural and regular; beginning with primary schools in which the first rudiments of learning are taught, and proceeding to academies in which youths are to be instructed in languages, ancient and modern history, mathematics, and other branches of science, preparatory to entering into the university, in which instruction is to be given in all the higher branches of the sciences and in the principles of the useful arts."

"In making this arrangement the greatest difficulties have occurred in organizing the primary schools," which, it declares, are "of the first importance in any general plan of public education."

In the plan for the primary schools it is proposed (1) to divide each county in the State into townships, to divide each township into wards of one hundred families, and to establish a primary school in each ward; (2) the schools are to be under the control and supervision of five trustees in each township, these to be appointed by the court of pleas and quarter sessions; these trustees to "select such children residing within this township whose parents are unable to pay for their schooling, who shall be taught at the said schools for three years without charge."

"These schools," avers the committee, "would be to the rich a convenience and to the poor a blessing."

Taking the next step in this ascending scheme of instruction, the establishment of academies is recommended, in which institutions the children who have passed the primary school may be "instructed in languages, ancient and modern history, mathe-

matics, and other branches of science, preparatory to their entering into the university." The State was to be divided into 10 academical districts, in each of which an academy was to be established.

A strong appeal is made for the University of North Carolina, then twenty years old.

"At a moment," says the report, "when former prejudices have died away, when liberal ideas begin to prevail, when the pride of the State is awakening, and an honorable ambition is cherished for her glory, an appeal is made to the patriotism and the generous feelings of the legislature in favor of an institution which in all civilized nations has been regarded as the nursery of moral greatness and the palladium of civil liberty."

Courses of study are recommended for all these institutions: In the primary schools the "three r's," reading, writing, and arithmetic; in the academies, Latin, Greek, French, English, elements of geometry, algebra, geography, ancient and modern history; in the university, all the higher branches of learning.

Modes of instruction and methods of discipline and government receive ample treatment. "The great object of education" the report declares to be "intellectual and moral improvement; and that mode of instruction is to be preferred which best serves to effect this object. This mode is to be found only in a correct knowledge of the human mind, its habits, passions, and manner of operation." The methods of the schools of Scotland, of Pestalozzi in Switzerland, and Joseph Lancaster in England are discussed.

"In a republic the first duty of a citizen is obedience to the law. We acknowledge no sovereign but the law, and from infancy to manhood our children should be taught to bow with reverence to its majesty. In childhood parental authority enforces the first lessons of obedience; in youth this authority is aided by the municipal law, which in manhood wields the entire supremacy."

There was need of disciplining at the time, for the committee recalls the fact that "riot and disorder have dishonored all the colleges and universities of the Union. The temples of science have been converted into theaters for acting disgraceful scenes of licentiousness and rebellion."

"The amusements of youth may also be made auxiliary to the exactness of discipline," states the report, and Thomas Jefferson's utterances regarding "manuel" exercise and military discipline are quoted.

"One of the strongest reasons which we can have for establishing a general plan of public instruction is the condition of the poor children of our country. Such always has been, and probably always will be, the allotments of human life that the poor will form a large portion of every community; and it is the duty of those who manage the affairs of State to extend relief to this unfortunate part of our species in every way in their power. Providence, in the impartial distribution of its favors, whilst it has denied to the poor many of the comforts of life, has generally bestowed upon them the blessing of intelligent children. Poverty is the school of genius; it is a school in which the active powers of man are developed and disciplined, and in which that moral courage is acquired which enables him to toil with difficulties, privations, and want. From this school generally come forth those men who act the principal parts upon the theater of life; men who impress a character upon the age in which they live. But it is a school which if left to itself runs wild; vice in all its depraved forms grows up under it. The State should take this school under her special care, and maturing the genius which there grows in rich luxuriance, give to it an honorable and profitable direction. Poor children are the peculiar property of the State, and by proper cultivation they will constitute a fund of moral and intellectual worth which will greatly subserve the public interest."

Thus does this scheme of education rise round upon round until the top rung of scholarship is reached.

It is like some finely proportioned Grecian temple whose marble columns rise in stately perfection.

But the time was not ripe for its realization. And it is laid aside in the same cabinet with the intricate constitution of John Locke.

The ending comes like a benediction:

"When this or some other more judicious plan of public education shall be carried into execution, when light and knowledge shall be shed upon all, may we not indulge

the hope that men will be convinced that wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness and all her paths are paths of peace; and be induced by such conviction to regulate their conduct by the rule of Christian morality, of doing unto others as they wish they would do unto them; and that they will learn to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly before their God?"

The question remained in "innocuous desuetude" till 1825, when the beginnings of a common-school fund were made. This considerable sum was further increased by the transfer of the share of the State in the national surplus revenue to the handsome figure of $2,000,000.

Then first did the Commonwealth move decidedly to give to the mass of its white children the opportunity for the education for which the people had pleaded through two centuries of its previous history. The plan proposed to divide the State into 1,250 school districts, each with a schoolhouse, a normal department attached to the State university for the training of teachers; and $100,000, the income of the State literary fund, distributed at the rate of $2.40 to each scholar; a local tax, the amount to be imposed by the county court; all to be supervised by five superintendents for each county and three committeemen for each district; the system to be crowned by a State superintendency of schools. But the plan as it came forth from the legislature was shorn of several of its most useful features. Nearly every county of the State voted for the system and in 1840 the first common-school law was enacted and remained in operation until 1852, when it passed under the charge of a State superintendency.

This movement was really a part of that great revival of education which swept like a "celestial breeze" from a heavenly land through the Republic in the decade from 1830 to 1840, and was felt in the Southland most powerfully in the Old North State. It may be added that when the civil war broke upon the land it found this State in possession of the most hopeful system of public instruction in the South, save perhaps Missouri and Kentucky.

Napoleon said, when preparing to cross the Alps with his army to Italy: "Where a goat can go a man can go, and where a man can go an army can go." One of the interesting elements in the history of education in North Carolina before the civil war, as concerned the education of the negro, was noted in the experience of the Rev. John Chavis. This young man, born free, was sent to Princeton College by some interested friends, "to see if a negro was capable of receiving a college education." In 1805, having demonstrated this possibility, he returned to North Carolina as a minister of the Presbyterian Church, became the pastor of several churches, preaching not only to colored but to white people, was noted for the correctness of his speech and the "entire orthodoxy" of his teaching. He opened a classical school in three counties of the State, which was attended by many students that afterwards became distinguished men in the Commonwealth, and it is added that "his school was the best at that time to be found in the State." To-day no well-informed man in North Carolina doubts the ability of the negro race to receive education, and the children of its former slaves are educated, with equal advantages with the white students, in the public schools, while a large number of excellent seminaries of the secondary and even higher instruction are in operation, supported by the bounty of benevolent people and tuition fees, and aided by the missionary boards of the great Northern churches of all religious denominations.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

At the close of the war of independence the State of South Carolina, with an area of 30,000 square miles—larger than all New England outside of Maine, and near the area of that extreme northeastern State—had a population of 249,000, of whom 107,000 were negro slaves. In estimating the efforts of the Southern States for education previous to 1860 we must not forget that only to the white population was this term applied. The educational record of South Carolina for the seventy-five years from

1790 to 1865 represents the effort at first of only 142,000 white people, with a school population of 25,000 from 6 to 15 years of age, not altogether exceeding the number of children and youth in a Northern city of 200,000 inhabitants, scattered over an extensive territory, which was largely an unsettled wilderness, divided into an upper and lower country as jealous of each other as any two sections of the Union; even the more favored planter class in sore financial straits and the masses of the white people in great poverty, with the social extremes of a highly cultivated superior class and a lower estate almost destitute of the elements of instruction in letters to educate itself.

But, as shown in the interesting essay of Mr. McCrady already quoted, the colony had not been especially wanting in its provisions for the higher education. With several vigorous academies at home and the almost universal habit of sending the young men of the superior families to England for university and professional training and a certain amount of tutorship in wealthy families, a strong sentiment for the higher education had been implanted in the leading minds of the new Commonwealth. As early as 1770 a movement was made for a college at Charleston, and in 1785 a charter was obtained, with gifts from private sources amounting to $50,000, and the beginning of a library. The legislature responded to the demand of the "up country" by chartering two similar institutions—at Winnsboro in the northeast and at Cambridge in the southwest. A donation of land fixed the location at Charleston, where, in 1785, the Charleston College, still in vigorous existence, was set up, with Rev. (afterwards Bishop) Robert Scott as first president. But in 1797 the movement went into a temporary eclipse after graduating several men afterwards eminent in State affairs, only to be revived in 1823-24. In 1827 the Rev. Joseph Adams was called from Brown University, Rhode Island, and under his able and hopeful administration the school rallied and assumed a respectable rank among the smaller colleges of the country.

From this date it encountered the formidable rivalry of the State College at Columbia and has always been practically a Charleston seminary. On the departure of President Adams, in 1837, the city assumed the control and until recently has aided its funds by a generous subsidy. The college has also at different times been the recipient of several considerable gifts, and to-day is perhaps the best endowed institution of learning in the State. Its museum of natural history was established or greatly aided by the suggestion of Professor Agassiz in 1851. Up to 1885 the graduates numbered 368, among whom are the names of many well and honorably known in the city and State. Under the present management of Dr. Henry E. Shepherd, the college still remains the proper head of the excellent educational system of the city and is especially known for its course in the English language and literature. In the future development of Charleston this foundation may be built upon as the most important center of the higher education on the Southern Atlantic Coast. The Winnsboro "Mount Zion" institution is at present incorporated in the graded public school system of that city.

In no Atlantic Southern State did the jealousy between the ruling planter class of the low country and the farmers of the "Piedmont district" reach a higher point than in South Carolina during the period following the Revolutionary war. It was with an honest attempt to reconcile this difference and extend the opportunities of education to the upland region, at that time in dire need even of elementary schooling, that the famous school of Moses Waddell was established in 1804 in the Abbeville district, near the Savannah River. As a fine specimen of the old-time classical seminary consecrated to "lean living" and hard study, with a Spartan discipline, it was not surpassed by any school of its day. While in full operation, from 1804 to 1819, when Dr. Waddell was called to the presidency of the University of Georgia, it was, beyond question, the most effective school in the State, numbering among its students John C. Calhoun and George McDuffie, with numbers of the promising country boys of the upland region. It is probable that from this little rural seat of

learning came the foremost group of distinguished public men whose influence more and more dominated the political destiny of the State, even to the breaking out of the civil war.

Other efforts in this region, especially on the line of manual-labor schools, are on record, ending, as did all this class of seminaries, in speedy failure. But in 1801 the legislature moved for the establishment of the South Carolina College by a grant of $50,000 for buildings and an annual subsidy of $6,000. For this movement the State seems to have been largely indebted to Paul Hamilton, the most conspicuous figure in the educational affairs of the period. Of Scotch descent and limited educational opportunities, at the age of 16 he enlisted in the patriot army and fought through till the end. His public career began in 1785. He steadily rose through the legislature to the office of comptroller of the State, his public life closing by a seat in the Cabinet of President James Madison as Secretary of the Navy.

In 1801 Governor Dayton called attention to the obligation of the State to establish "free colleges," and in due time a committee of the foremost members of the legislature reported a plan for the organization of the College of South Carolina, under thirteen trustees, appointed by the legislature for four years, with several State officials as ex-officio members. This body seems to have had little authority in the management of the college, the real direction being given to the faculty. The new seminary was established at Columbia, the State capital, in a location that still remains one of the most attractive of all the university grounds of the country. Columbia was then a village of 4,000 people, on the Congaree River, and is still almost a city in a wilderness, the prospect from the university towers extending in one direction over a primitive forest from 30 to 40 miles.

One of the most powerful motives for the establishment of this seat of learning was the laudable desire to "unify the State" by mollifying the antagonism between the upper and lower sections. This was perpetuated till the outbreak of the civil war by the original apportionment of representation in the legislature in which, by a property basis of representation, the coast region with its great wealth and overwhelming slave population, with a minority of voting citizenship, was able to control the public affairs of the Commonwealth. As far as a liberal education could develop the natural capacity of the upper portion of the State, the college was a great success, and many of the most important men of all professions were among its graduates. From the first its affairs took on the generous air of the old South Carolina gentry in respect to appropriations from the State and the support of its faculty. At first, the salary of the president was $2,500 and of each professor $1,500, including a house. At a later date the president's salary was $3,500, the professors $2,000, and a tutor $1,000. In the six years from 1814 to 1820 the State had given $286,659 to the college. It was fortunate that, like the University of Virginia at a later and of North Carolina at an earlier date, the College of South Carolina planted itself on a broad unsectarian religious platform from which it has never deviated, though often maintaining it in the face of opposition from the denominational colleges and academies of the State.

While yet in its childhood, with a student population of 46, the college had the great good fortune to have as its president Rev. Dr. Maxcy, a native of Massachusetts, a graduate and for a time president of Brown University, Rhode Island, afterwards president of Union College, New York, from which he was called, in 1804, to the same position in the College of South Carolina. By persistent effort, sometimes involving him in conflict with his trustees and faculty, he built up an effective college curriculum, although, until 1820, the study of the classical languages closed with the freshman year. But after 1829 the Latin language became an important feature in the course of instruction.

At the death of President Maxcy in 1820 the college passed under the presidency of Thomas Cooper, at the time professor of mathematics. This remarkable man was born in London in 1759 and was educated at Oxford University. He very early

seems to have displayed that fierce radical temperament and furious passion for personal liberty, amounting to violent eccentricity, which dominated him through life and made him always and everywhere one of the most conspicuous leaders of the party of agitation of church, state, and education. A four months' residence in Paris, at the height of the French Revolution, in full communion with the leading spirits of that troubled era, exposed him to grave suspicions and even denunciation in Parliament on his return to England. He came to America, married the daughter of the famous Dr. Joseph Priestly, and settled in Pennsylvania as a lawyer. A violent attack on President John Adams, in 1800, brought him in collision with the alien and sedition law with a penalty of $400 and six months imprisonment. The fine was afterwards refunded with interest, although the six months in jail rankled in his memory to the end. John Adams, one of the best haters of a period distinguished for good hating, threw in the additional exasperation of denouncing Cooper as "a learned, ingenious, scientific, and talented madman." Afterwards appointed a judge in Pennsylvania, he was impeached and removed from office at the end of five years for intolerable self-will and freaks of petty tyranny. He now took to the more peaceable work of education and was appointed a professor of chemistry in Dickinson College and afterwards in the University of Pennsylvania.

All this was but a recommendation to Thomas Jefferson, who, in sympathy with extreme views, was always liable to be what John Adams was not. Cooper was named as the first professor of the University of Virginia, but the clergy of the State raised a tumult that compelled the withdrawal of his name. This was to the intense disgust of Jefferson, who declared that Cooper was the man to whom he especially looked as the corner stone of his university—"the greatest man in America in power of mind and original information."

But for some reason all these things did not militate against his appointment as professor, and, on the death of President Maxcy in 1820, as president of the College of South Carolina. This position he held till 1834. Of the success of his administration as a vigorous and aggressive teacher there can be no question. He raised a tempest in the Dead Sea of the old-time superficiality and woke up the mind of young South Carolina as it had never been stirred before. He was especially successful as a lecturer on history and political economy, in the latter science indoctrinating his pupils with the theory of free trade, which played so important a part in the future public life of that State. He did his best to lift the ancient languages to the foremost place in the scheme of instruction and was in sympathy with a broad study of mathematics and natural sciences. His personal eccentricities were fair game for the crowd of turbulent boys that made the life of a professor in a Southern college seventy-five years ago "a hard road to travel." But his one unpardonable offense of what was then called "free thought," or "infidelity," kept him in hot water through his entire administration and finally brought him to a trial before the college authorities. Acquitted by them of serious fault, he still felt compelled to resign his presidency and retire to outside work, as the compiler of the laws of the State. He was occupied with constant authorship till his death in 1839.

It is not easy in his case as in that of Jefferson, Franklin, and other eminent characters of that day, to decide in just what his "infidelity" consisted. With these, and Calhoun and Marshall afterwards, he would probably now be received as a member "in full communion" with a large portion of what is called "the liberal wing" of several Christian denominations of the present day. Certainly, in his views of the Old Testament inspiration and authorship, he did not go beyond the opinions of the most distinguished representatives of the "higher criticism" in Europe and America. Could his opinions have been combined with a more courteous manner and toleration he, perhaps, would not have fallen by the way. He still remains one of the most interesting of the original university men of the country, and his just biography would be a decided addition to the educational and civic chronicles of the early American history.

From all sources of information we gather the testimony to the turbulent and reckless condition of student society in this, as in so many other of the early American colleges. In the case of South Carolina this is especially notable. The autobiography of the celebrated Dr. Marion Sims, once a student in the college, is especially full in this respect, as of the state of society in the northwestern counties of South Carolina and afterwards the newly-settled State of Alabama. Still, religious services were made a part of the regular college exercises, and on the appointment of Robert W. Barnwell as successor to President Cooper, in 1835, a professorship of the evidences of Christianity was appointed and strict religious observances established. But the college had suffered such diminution from the excitement of the Cooper episode that the sympathies of the religious sects were alienated and only twenty students remained. It was not till the appointment to the presidency of Hon. William C. Preston, in 1845, that the reaction came. This gentleman, celebrated in his day as one of the most accomplished orators of the Union, after his retirement from the Senate of the United States in 1842, was persuaded to accept this office in 1845. During the five years of his administration the number of students reached 237, with an average of 191, the largest in its history. The record of the college from the retirement of President Cooper in 1834 and during the administrations of Preston, Thornwell, and Lieber, and its great influence on the higher life of the State, are not in place here.

From its foundation the College of South Carolina has been in fact what so many similar institutions have been only in name, the proper head of the public scheme of education. All the remaining colleges of the State represent the different denominational religious bodies, and all were established at a period subsequent to that now under consideration.

In 1811 the legislature, on petition of several counties, moved to establish what was evidently intended as a working system of free common schools, open to all white children of school age. The law provided: (1) That in every election district there should be established as many schools as it had representatives to the lower branch of the legislature. (2) The "three r's" should be taught with such additional studies as the commissioners might direct. (3) While every white child of suitable age in the district had the right to this instruction, the preference should be given to destitute orphans and the children of the poor, in case of a deficiency of funds. (4) Three hundred dollars was appropriated for each school, while the people were required to furnish a schoolhouse. (5) The legislature was directed to appoint not less than three nor more than thirteen commissioners, with power to establish and supervise schools, distribute funds, and increase or diminish the number of scholars, fix the curriculum, etc. But this was declared a provisional and experimental arrangement, until the establishment of a permanent system. The commissioners were directed to make an annual report to the legislature.

Here would certainly appear to be a hopeful beginning. But it has been said by one of the most accomplished educators of the State: "In no country or Commonwealth has there been witnessed so remarkable a spectacle of unanimity of purpose among the leaders of public opinion on the subject of popular education, with almost utter failure of results, as in South Carolina." In 1847 a comprehensive and searching report to the legislature, prepared by Mr. Henry Summer, as chairman of the committee on education, declares that "nothing was done worthy so sacred a cause as education." The annual appropriations by the State which, for a period of forty years, averaged $37,000, was of itself a pittance for the education of at least 50,000 children and youth in need of elementary schooling. One hundred and thirty-three schools were at once established. With the following years this number gradually increased. In 1828 there were 840 schools and 9,000 pupils; in 1840, 563 schools and 12,526 pupils. But in 1847, according to this report, "it was declared in the legislature that the free-school system was a failure, and no one contradicted it." In 1839–40 legislative reports had attracted little attention and the urgent appeals of different governors failed to stir the slumbrous fathers of the State. "Resolution

after resolution had been passed approving the free-school system and recommending that something be done to diffuse a greater amount of knowledge among the children of the State, and committees appointed at different times to report on the subject. But nothing had been done." Meanwhile the State was gaining in population and influential position in national affairs.

Indeed it was during this period that South Carolina came to the front in a most conspicuous way as a leader in the movement for free trade, coupled with the extreme theory of States rights and including the right of the nullification of national laws implying the right of secession from the Union. Her statesmen in Congress were the peers of any in eloquence and general ability. But still, in 1840, it was reported that 20,000 of her white adult population were illiterate, and of her 50,000 children and youth of school age not one-fourth were under any form of public instruction and probably half were growing to manhood and womanhood with the most meager educational opportunities. At the same time it was reported that there were in the State one college with 168 students; 117 academies and grammar schools, with 4,326 pupils; 566 primary schools, with 12,520 scholars; in all, 17,000 of the 52,000 between 6 and 16 at school. Of these but 3,524 were "at public charge." A system of "combination schools" had grown up, as in other States at a recent date, which, private or denominational in their character and removed entirely from public supervision, were permitted to appropriate the public funds and give free schooling to such "poor children" as should be assigned by the commissioners.

The causes of this failure can not be found so much in popular opposition to education as in a radical condition of society in South Carolina which continued until the civil war. This is well expressed in an able article in the Southern Quarterly Review, in this pregnant statement: "While the popular habit of the South Carolina people is essentially centrifugal, the politicans and statesmen have strong centralizing tendencies." No reader of American history will impute to statesmen like Hayne, Calhoun, and McDuffie, a "strong centralizing tendency" in national affairs. The fact seems to be that, while all classes shared alike in the assertion of extreme personal and local independency, the ablest public men saw clearly the prodigious disadvantage of this political habit in State affairs and endeavored to support a real government at the State capital, while the masses insisted on the logical application of the favorite theory and lived almost without a sense of public responsibility to the government at Columbia. The same writer asserts that "a stranger might live among us for years and see no traces of government." "Out of the towns no organization exists below that of the State," save a few commissioners for absolutely essential public action. "As organized members of a Republic, our districts and parishes have absolutely no political existence." It is curious to note how the sensitiveness of the State in its relations to the General Government reappeared in every little district in a jealousy of State legislative action and a practical nullification of all laws not agreeable to the people. The power of great families and influential political leaders in their several localities; the jealousies between different portions of the State, which almost divided the Commonwealth into little hostile nations, added to the lack of effective organization even for local purposes, were the radical causes of the failure of this attempt to school the children. The different districts received the funds appropriated by the State, but failed to report to the legislature in regard to their use. In 1817, of 45 districts 31 made no report; in the most favorable years not one-half appeared in a report to the legislature. Up to 1821, ten years, $302,490 had been expended by the State.

It is easy to see how any amount of money could have been practically wasted under an administration so inefficient. "Combination schools" would absorb a good deal; incompetent teachers, appointed by favoritism in useless schools, would make way with more. The "poor people" were always in a state of protest against a system that held them up as subjects of public charity, and thousands of children were kept out of school by this cause alone. A meager appropriation, incompetent

teachers, neglect of duty by commissioners, poor school buildings—the whole train of evils that follow a lack of effective supervision—were sufficient to account for the failure of these schools. Mr. Summer declares in his illuminating report that "the commissioners are absolutely independent and irresponsible." "There is no central power which can control matters and which could inspire a common spirit and life in the whole system." "After all our legislation we have not even the elements in practical operation of a system of public schools; we have the whole work to begin over."

A fatal defect in the system was also the apportionment of the school moneys to different districts, according to their representation in the legislature. Until the civil war the system of legislative representation in South Carolina was based on property. This gave to the low country, where were found the great plantations and wealthy slaveholders, a preponderating influence in public affairs, and did much to perpetuate the hostility between different sections of the Commonwealth. As a case in point, the district of Spartanburg, in the Piedmont country, with a larger voting population than the two parishes of Charleston, had but five members in the legislature, while the city had seventeen. The school appropriation for Spartanburg was but $1,500, while Charleston received $5,100 for a smaller number of pupils. One great district, St. John's parish, containing 700 square miles, its extremes being 60 miles apart, its two sections divided by a deep river, had but one school, located according to "pulling and hauling" of patrons or the whim of commissioners. With right Mr. Summer declares at the conclusion of his report: "If the State does not arouse from this torpor she will see men as trees walking." The prophecy came to fulfillment during the memorable era of "reconstruction," 1865-1876, when the people saw their beloved State College changed to a normal school for the freedmen and the first State superintendent of education appointed from a little mountain town in Massachusetts.

But with all its defects, this experiment, persisted in with pathetic obstinacy for more than fifty years, bears testimony to the great desire of the masses of the people of South Carolina for an effective system of schools for the children under the direction of the State. Poor as it was, it did lift many thousands above the slough of illiteracy and kept alive the "hope deferred" from generation to generation. The great desire of the people for education was manifested by their acceptance of the system established in the era of reconstruction, notwithstanding objectionable features. And when the first native State superintendent of schools appeared in the person of that eminent and admirable public official, Hon. Hugh S. Thompson, in 1877, the people responded in the establishment of a proper school system that has survived the storm of recent politics, even as the old time schools of the State still went on through all the furious excitements that shook South Carolina from her sea islands to Cæsar's Head, from 1830 to the outbreak of the civil war.

The city of Charleston was from the first the educational head of South Carolina, as it remains to the present day. In fact no city of similar population in the Southern States can boast of better or a greater variety of schools for both races. In 1790 the city established the Orphan House, an excellent asylum with an elementary school attachment, which has been supported from its beginning by the city at an annual expense of $20,000. Its income is derived from private endowments and the grant of escheated property to the extent of $50,000. More than 4,000 orphan children have been educated and protected within its walls, and afterwards apprenticed to various trades and occupations.

During the years 1840–1845 the plans were developed for the establishment of the South Carolina Military Academy. This institution combines the feature of military training with a thorough course in the physical sciences, mathematics, history, English, and modern languages. It has graduated many of the foremost men of the State, and remains to-day in Charleston a State public school, until recently included in the corporation of the University of South Carolina.

The free schools of Charleston date from the passage of the act of 1811, with an attendance in 1812 of 200, which increased by 1834 to 534. At a later date, 1849–1854, under the suggestions of Dr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, who was invited to the State by the public authorities, a new departure was made, under which very satisfactory results were obtained; the schools in 1860 containing more than 4,000 white pupils.

Notwithstanding the early establishment of negro slavery in South Carolina, the population of the State in 1790 being nearly half of that race, there was always a good deal of effort for the religious and somewhat for the school education of the slave. In 1744 a school was established, probably for free negroes, under the direction of the English Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. Until 1834, when by reason of the increasing excitement of the public mind caused by several attempts at slave insurrections the school instruction of the slaves was prohibited by law, this movement was an important feature in the development of the race in connection with religious and sometimes industrial training. It is probable that in a quiet way in private this work went on up to the outbreak of the civil war. It was found, after emancipation, that all the mechanical trades were represented among these people, a portion of whom were free and themselves slaveholders. Under the providence of God this institution, so fatal to the peace of the slave States and disastrous to the entire social system of which it was the foundation, was probably the greatest elevator of a savage race in range of a Christian civilization through a period not exceeding two hundred and fifty years, of which there is a record in the history of mankind.

Here we leave the deeply interesting story of popular education in South Carolina, especially relating to the public schooling in all grades of institutions found within the State. It may be said, in passing, that in no Southern State was so much done at public expense previous to the civil war for the schooling of the people in proportion to the white population and with due consideration of circumstances as in this State. The colleges of Charleston and of South Carolina, the academy of Winnsboro, the Orphan House of Charleston, the State Military Academy—with frequent gifts to private and denominational seminaries, bear testimony to the persistent interest of the people in the secondary and higher education. The continuous effort to build up a good system of public schools for the white children and youth failed rather from the peculiar organization of society itself outside the towns, whereby the masses of the people seem to have been left almost powerless to act in behalf of any good thing, than from indifference or hostility to the sacred cause. Certain it is that no State of the South can point to a larger number of eminent friends of universal education among its leading men than this Commonwealth.

GEORGIA.

It was a significant coincidence that the first public notice of education in Georgia after the war of the Revolution should have been made by Governor Lyman Hall, a native of Connecticut, who had been sent as a delegate to the first Continental Congress by the New England colony in St. John's Parish, afterwards Liberty County, before the province had come to the decision to resist the home government. On January 8, 1783, Governor Hall said in his message to the legislature: "It will be your wisdom to lay an early foundation for enduring seminaries of learning; nor can you, I conceive, lay a better than by a grant of a sufficient tract of land that may, as in other governments, hereafter, by lease or otherwise, raise a revenue sufficient to support such valuable institutions."

The constitution of Georgia of 1777 had already provided that schools should be erected in each county, and supported at the general expense of the State. On July 31, 1783, in immediate response to the executive message, the governor was empowered to lay out the reserve land, in the town of Augusta, then the capital of the State, into lots for the erection of "a university or seminary of learning and other

purposes." By the same act the governor was authorized to grant 1,000 acres of land for a free school in each county. The act also included a provision for the establishment of an academy in each of three counties, the most important of which, the Academy of Richmond County, was opened in 1785. The master, an importation from Maryland, taught the classical and English languages, mathematics, and common branches. The tuition was $10 per quarter. Beginning with the master and two teachers, this school has gone on till the present day, when, in new buildings, it forms the highest department of the public-school system of Augusta.

In 1784–85 this preliminary legislation was supplemented by the act establishing the University of Georgia. Two counties "out west," now near the center of the State, Franklin and Washington, were laid out, with a grant of 40,000 acres of wild land, for the endowment of "a college or seminary of learning." Trustees were appointed, who, with the governor, were empowered to put the act in operation. Here again we meet the beneficent influence of New England in the presence of Abraham Baldwin, a graduate of Yale College, who originated the plan for the University of Georgia and obtained the legislative grant of land for its foundation.

In 1785 this act was expanded into a broader statute, which, for a century past, has fixed the status of the relation of the Commonwealth of Georgia to the education of its people. After an elaborate preamble, reciting the advantages of education to the State and the "humiliation" of sending the youth of the State to foreign countries for the schooling proper to republican institutions, this act empowered the trustees aforesaid to establish "the University of Georgia." But, like the action of the State of New York about the same time, the university idea was so extended as to include all grades of schools supported or subsidized by the State. To-day every public school in Georgia is legally a part of the State University. The administering of this vast responsibility was placed upon two heads, one a "board of visitors," composed of high State officials, the second a "board of thirteen trustees," elected by the legislature. A section of the act declared that "all public schools instituted or to be supported by funds or public moneys in this State shall be considered as parts and members of the university and shall be under the foregoing direction and regulation." By the same statute all officers of the university were required to be "of the Christian religion" and to publicly take the oath of allegiance. The religious test for the officers of the university was afterwards abolished in consideration of the Hebrew connection of one of the professors or trustees. But in the personal direction of the university, as in Harvard and Yale, we find the broad provision that no person is to be refused education on account of his religious convictions.

But this effort was too great to be expanded at once into a working system of public education. Thirteen years later, in 1798, although the State constitution of that date required the coming legislature to take measures to establish the university, there was found no pecuniary backing of the enterprise save the 40,000 acres of wild land in a region infested by hostile Indians, and not worth altogether $1,000. Land was too plenty and cheap, every family of settlers being offered by the State 200 acres, "with 50 acres additional for every member, young or old, white or black." The college estate would not have brought three cents an acre. Even of this, 5,000 acres had been ceded away to South Carolina in a boundary settlement. The financial knot was cut by Governor John Millege, by a donation of 600 acres of land in the present location of the pleasant little city of Athens.

With this meager outfit, in 1801, the university began its course under the presidency of Dr. Josiah Meigs, in a city of two houses, with a framed building of one room as its only home, and the great trees of the forest and the broad campus of "all out doors" as an annex. Until 1811 this grandfather of Georgia college presidents labored, with no aid, conducting recitations under the shadows of a giant oak, and graduating fifty students, some of whom were among the future leading men of the State. At the close of Dr. Meigs's presidency the "university" took a breathing spell of one year, and then called Rev. John Brown, who held on till 1816, graduat-

ing twenty students. In 1815 the money question was solved by the sale of all the college lands, from which $150,000 was realized. The State reimbursed itself from the odd $50,000 and placed the $100,000 in an 8 per cent stock as a permanent fund. From this foundation the university has received $8,000 annually from the State. This arrangement was consummated in 1821. Since then the State has made this annual grant to the university under the steady disapproval of a majority of the denominational colleges. These enlarge on the fact that the University of Georgia has, during the past one hundred years, with its "branches," absorbed $1,200,000 of the people's money, while the Commonwealth could have expended its means to better advantage by giving the opportunities of elementary education to the masses and leaving the secondary and higher education to the care of private and church support.

But certainly, until 1819, the University of Georgia was not dying of the "dry rot" of luxury. At that date, fifteen years after its inauguration, "there were neither funds, professors, nor students." It was a good Providence by which Dr. Moses Waddell was brought from the shades of his famous Abbeville Academy, in South Carolina, to the succor of the expiring college. He raised it from its bed of languishing so that during his presidency of ten years new professors were called, and, by the aid of a lottery, the library and the stock of apparatus were enlarged. On the retirement of Dr. Waddell, New England was again called on for a president, in the person of Rev. Alonzo Church, of Vermont. To replace a building destroyed by fire in 1830, the State came again to the aid of the university in an extra annual gift of $6,000, continued for ten years.

This donation was regarded as a late reimbursement by the State of the $50,000 retained from the purchase money of the original landed property of the institution. These several appropriations, $25,000 in gifts and real estate; the yearly income of the $100,000 funded from the proceeds of the original donations of lands, and the $60,000 contributed between 1830 and 1840, make up the entire contribution of Georgia to its university through all the years from 1802 to 1875. The largest addition of buildings was made between 1830 and 1840. During these years the institution retained its original name, "Franklin College." Dr. Church held the place of president of the university for thirty years, retiring in 1859. Since that time the institution has expanded through private gifts and the establishment of its several branches, the Agricultural and Mechanical College at Athens, School of Technology in Atlanta, and the Industrial College for Colored Youth at Savannah.

Meanwhile, in 1788, the State continued its policy of the endowment of academies by grants to Sunbury and Savannah in Liberty and Chatham counties. We have already told the interesting story of the famous New England colony in Liberty County and the Sunbury Academy. The Chatham Academy in Savannah now occupies the same place as the original school in Augusta; it is at the head of the public-school system of that beautiful and prosperous city. The original grant of 1,000 acres of wild lands for every county was supplemented in 1802 and 1810 by a provision that confiscated property should be turned over to these schools—a just though small recompense for the mischief and misery inflicted on the people of Georgia by the Tory party of the Revolution. At the opening of the present century some half a dozen of these free schools had been established in as many counties of this State. When we remember that the whole population of Georgia at this period was less than 90,000, perhaps not two-thirds white, and the white school population not exceeding 10,000, we can look with respect on the early efforts of this enterprising Commonwealth to raise, on the boundless wilderness of its immense territory, these little fortresses of the secondary and higher education.

But Georgia fell into the same mistaken policy as all the original States beyond and south of the Hudson River, in following the British habit of endowing and subsidizing that department of the public school from which the masses of her people could derive the least advantage. In the third constitution of the State, 1798, appears the following provision, already quoted: "The arts and sciences shall be promoted in one or more seminaries of learning, and the legislature shall, as soon as

conveniently may be, give such further donations and privileges to those already established as may be necessary to secure the enlargement of these institutions; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly, at the next session, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowments of such institutions." This provision, of course, was made in view of the fact that the University of Georgia included a school system for the whole white people of the State. It has been well said that had these original provisions been carried out, "Georgia would have had a system of education equal if not superior to that of any State in the Union." But at first the State moved exclusively in the establishment of the county academies, and by 1829 had chartered 64, and by 1840, 176 of these schools of every kind, with an attendance of 8,000 pupils. But these schools, in a society even so comparatively democratic as Georgia, ultimately fell into the hands of the well-to-do dominant class, and were declared by a late competent authority, "inaccessible to the overwhelming majority of the people of the State." They were all tuition schools, in addition to the expense of board and transportation bills, and were founded and worked rather as classical and high schools than on common school lines, from the beginning. They became justly the pride of the people of the State; the favorite schools in which all families that could afford the cost were desirous of educating their children. For more than thirty years from the time of their first endowment, or until 1817, they, with the Franklin College, absorbed and, from 1817 to 1836, divided extensively with the "poor schools" the educational resources of the State. But in 1840 these 176 seminaries contained but 8,000 pupils, while the white school-children of the State numbered 85,000. During these years not less than $200,000 had been granted to this class of seminaries.

In 1817 an upward movement from below brought into operation the system of "poor schools," or rather appropriations for the free education of poor children. Under this system the State languished in the most vital interest of its educational life for more than half a century, until the present system of common schools was established in 1870. Under this system the interest of $250,000, in 1817, and in 1821 of another $250,000, with some additional endowments, was appropriated to the project of teaching indigent children, each for three years. Thus, for fifty years and more, was the stigma of "pauper schools" applied to the most central and vital institution of the Republic.

In 1836 the great educational revival of the nation, in its progress toward the Gulf, struck the "Empire State of the South." The sum of $350,000 from the surplus revenue was set apart as "a permanent free-school and educational fund," and a "plan of common-school education" was digested by a joint committee of the legislature, which, in 1837, established a general system of common schools, to take effect in 1839. By this act the academic and free-school funds were consolidated and the old status revived. But in 1840 came the reaction, and the State appropriations for education were merged in the free-school fund, and thereafter every pupil outside the Franklin College, though enjoying the exclusive title of the university and receiving aid from the State, was burdened with the badge of pauperism.

By this time—the close of the first half century of the Republic—the mind of the leading class in Georgia had so fallen away from the ideal of the fathers that there seemed to be no more intention left of educating the mass of the children at public expense. Under the conditions then existing the State was afflicted with a malady of white illiteracy. The "poor people" rejected with contempt the pittance doled out to their children. In 1845 only 53 of the 93 counties applied for their share of the fund. From 1817 to 1860 an annual distribution of $30,000 was the extent of the contribution of the State to the education of the people, in all $1,290,000. With the addition of the $8,700,000 appropriated since 1870, the State, during seventy-two years, expended $10,000,000. During the years from 1817 to 1845, the school population of the State was 20,000, 30,000, and 50,000 for the successive decades.

From this point of view, we can well understand the criticism of the common school public so freely made by President W. A. Candler, of Emory College, that up to the present time considerably more than $1,000,000 has been applied by the State to the higher education, while up to 1870 the mass of the children had been put off with a sum not larger. Meanwhile it is stated that no alumnus of the University of Georgia has given it an endowment, and no one has been elected to its presidency. In 1833 Mercer College was established at Macon by the Baptist, in 1835 Oglethorpe University by the Presbyterian, and in 1836 Emory College by the Methodist denomination. These, with other similar institutions founded previous to 1840, have now become important features in the educational life of the State, but their chief importance has been realized subsequent to the date assigned to this essay.

Of course along with this record of the common school we must carry in mind the work of a corresponding system of private and local schools. Indeed, under the "poor school," and too much under a loose construction of the common-school law, at present the private and academic schools have been utilized to a large extent by their subsidizing for common-school work. Georgia is probably the only State in the Union to-day which subsidizes all varieties of private and denominational schools.

FLORIDA.

With the educational record of the State of Georgia, the story of the beginnings of the American common school from the establishment of the Union to the decade 1830–1840 practically comes to a close. The vast territory of Florida, 367,820 square miles in extent, was purchased of Spain in 1819 for $5,000,000. The portion of this purchase included in the present State of Florida, 58,680 square miles, settled in 1565, had been for two hundred and fifty years a land of contention between France, Spain, and England, each making little headway. Until the beginning of the present century there is no record of educational activity even in Alabama, and probably all schooling was in the hands of the Catholic clergy, as the resident population was largely of this denomination. In 1831 a movement came up at Tallahassee which, under the title, "The Florida Education Society," proposed an extended investigation preliminary to an attempt at the establishment of a system of general instruction, and the governor of the Territory was requested to appoint three commissioners in the interest of this inquiry. About the same time the manual-labor "boom" seems to have struck Tallahassee. The educational commission reported "an alarming neglect of education in the Territory," and that the general indifference and sparseness of the population were unfavorable to any general system of popular instruction. Both these attempts seem to have been spasmodic and without special result.

The first movement of the Territorial government for the preservation of the school lands assigned to the Territory was made in 1835. In 1839 three school trustees were ordered to be chosen in each district and intrusted with the duty of organizing and supervising schools. In 1843 this duty was transferred to the sheriffs of the counties. The act of 1839, amended in 1840, 1844, and 1845, like the present school law of Texas, directed the judge of probate of each county to officiate as superintendent of schools, with the additional duty of reporting to the central State authorities. But it is doubtful if any considerable success attended the efforts to establish education in a Territory so peculiarly constituted and distracted by obstinate differences of population before 1845, when Florida was admitted as a State of the Union with 58,680 inhabitants, including its slave contingent. At first the attempt was made to leave the common-school lands to the management of the different localities, but as only one township organized under that act the State assumed the responsibility of establishing a common-school fund from their sale.

ALABAMA.

The present State of Alabama was first settled by the French, at Mobile, in 1702. For a hundred years later all outside the coast was a wilderness overrun by Indians. The only educational record is the repeated applications of Bienville, the French governor of the province of Louisiana, to the home government for "a college," which was refused by the Jesuit fraternity, who at this time were at the head of such affairs in the vast undefined region of the New World. The population of the colony did not exceed 300.

In 1763 the territory known as West Florida passed under the control of the British, and in 1783 was transferred to the Spanish. But nothing seemed to have been initiated in education, and beyond the usual activity of superior families, chiefly under the direction of the clergy, there appears to have been nothing of interest in this direction till the year 1800.

The Mississippi Territory, including the present States of Alabama and Mississippi, by 1810 had established three counties within the limits of the present Alabama, which had a white population of 3,481. One John Pierce appears in history as the first schoolmaster of the Territory. From 1810 to 1814 two academies were chartered and $1,000 appropriated by the legislature of the Mississippi Territory for their support. The latter, Green Academy, at Huntsville, Ala., is chiefly interesting to us from the fact that it was the real beginning of the present public-school system of the State, supported as an academy for fifty boys, and is now a part of the common-school system of Huntsville. In 1817 the Territory of Alabama was formed, and the State was admitted to the Union in 1819, with a population of 127,000. Previous to this, Congress had appointed a survey of the Territory, the Indian title to which had been extinguished in 1813–14, including the setting apart of the sixteenth section of each township and the one, afterwards increased to two, townships of land, for common schools and a "seminary of learning." In 1855, when the State first moved for the establishment of a common-school system, it was found that the sales of these lands had placed in the treasury of the State the sum of $1,244,794, the interest of which, with the addition of the surplus revenue, direct appropriations by the State, and other receipts, amounted to $237,515, and the number of children of school age to 145,550.

Previous to 1826 no attempt was made at a system of public schools in the State. In that year the city of Mobile began, in the manner by which such movements were inaugurated in the days before the civil war, by the appointment of a board of commissioners, to whom was given full power for the complete education of the white children and youth of the city, already an important Gulf post. In 1830 a valuable plot of land was obtained, and an institution of learning, Barton Academy, was established. But for twenty-five years, until 1852, the history of this seminary appears to center on a perpetual strife concerning its organization and administration. It was finally merged into a close corporation, and the schools of Mobile were at a later date set apart from the general charge of the State in a condition of virtual independence. Up to this date the commissioners had fallen into the habit of subsidizing the various parochial and private schools of the city and county, with no attempt to support a proper system of public instruction. The history of the common school in the State really begins in 1855, when the legislature, moved by a revival of interest in the chief city, embarked on the enterprise of giving to Alabama for the next twenty years such facilities as were required in that direction.

The framers of the first constitution of Alabama, in 1819, struck a high note of prophecy in the article relating to the obligation of an American State to educate its children and youth. Says this document: "Schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged in this State, and the general assembly shall take measures to preserve from unnecessary waste and damage such lands as are or hereafter may be granted by the United States for the use of schools within each township in

this State, and apply the funds which may be raised from such lands in strict conformity to the object of such grant. The general assembly shall take like measures for the improvement of such lands as have been or may be hereafter granted by the United States to this State for the support of a seminary of learning, and the moneys which may be raised from such lands by rent, lease, or sale, or from any other quarter for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a fund for the exclusive support of a State university, for the promotion of the arts, literature, and the sciences; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as early as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowment of such institution."

We have already seen how long delayed was the fulfillment of this noble, prophetic utterance as far as it concerned the most important department of education—the elementary free common schooling of the children. But, in accordance with the prevailing idea of the day, that education must be first organized on the summit of the university that it may descend to the lowlands of common instruction, the legislature at once moved in the good work of establishing an institution of the higher culture. At the first session of the legislature after the organization of the State government, in response to the summons of Governor Bibb, he was authorized by the general assembly to appoint commissioners in every county in which there were lands set apart for "the Seminary of Learning," to lease the same till 1821. The two townships reserved for the university had wisely been located in tracts instead of in one block of real estate. Two years later the governor with twelve trustees, two from each judicial district, to be elected by the general assembly, were constituted "trustees of the University of Alabama," and were required to report at the next session concerning the proper site, to be determined by the joint vote of the two houses. It is unnecessary to detail the various arrangements for the sale or lease of the university lands or of the investment of the funds. Suffice to say that to the very liberal provision to lessees of lands for ninety-nine years is attributed the financial disaster that afterwards overwhelmed the institution.

But at first all went well. Fifty thousand dollars was appropriated for buildings. The State increased rapidly in population, nearly doubling in the eight years from its admission to the Union. The raising of cotton became the leading industry. Negro slaves were multiplied, one-third the inhabitants of the State in 1820 being colored, and the annual exports of Mobile were more than 25,000 bales of cotton. Lands were sold at high prices, and the State appropriated the avails as the capital of its new system of banking with interest at 6 per cent. The city of Tuscaloosa in 1827 was chosen as the seat of the university, and the sale of city lots proved favorable to the enterprise. In 1830, Rev. Philip Lindsley, president of the University of Nashville, having declined the presidency, the position was filled by the choice of Rev. Dr. Woods, president of Transylvania University, in Kentucky. Both these men were from the North. Dr. Lindsley was from New Jersey, Dr. Woods from Vermont, a graduate of Harvard and a classmate of George Bancroft, Caleb Cushing, and the distinguished educator, George B. Emerson. After graduating he spent two years in study abroad, was afterwards elected professor of mathematics in Brown University, Rhode Island, and was called to Transylvania University, Kentucky, on the retirement of Dr. Horace Holley in 1828. On the 12th of April, 1831, Dr. Woods was solemnly inaugurated, and the university opened with the president, 3 professors, 1 tutor, and 94 students.

Here first appears one of the most remarkable characters in the educational history of Alabama, Henry Tutwiler. A Virginian by birth, and one of the earliest graduates of the new University of Virginia; a friend of Thomas Jefferson and classmate of Robert T. Hunter and other famous men; improved by years of travel and acquaintance with distinguished scholars abroad—at the age of 24 he entered the State University of Alabama as professor of mathematics, where he remained for seven years. He became subsequently master of the famous Green Spring Academy, where for

thirty years he was recognized at home and abroad as one of the foremost educators of the country. The family name still remains among the excellent women of Alabama in the person of Miss Julia Tutwiler, principal of the State Normal School at Livingston, and widely known as one of the most devoted and cultivated of the teaching sisterhood of the Union.

The university was established at first in ample buildings, the professors being domiciled in houses on the college grounds. Two additional professorships were established in the two following years. The incumbent of one, Mr. Henry W. Hilliard, was known afterwards as one of the most distinguished men of his State in public affairs, his official life closing as minister to Brazil in 1877–1881. At the first commencement one student was graduated.

But with all of this commendable zeal for the scholarly outfit of the university, one functionary had unhappily been neglected—a competent bookkeeper and penman to manage and keep the record of the material interests of the institution. The result was that within five years of its establishment the university found itself on the verge of bankruptcy and the fund depended on for its support in peril of collapse. It required the labor of two years by an expert accountant and agent to unravel the tangle into which the affairs of the school had been involved from the ignorance or carelessness of its bookkeeping, and it was fortunate that the State escaped with the loss of only a portion of its university fund. Through this great trial Dr. Woods held on for six years, till 1837, when he retired and returned to Rhode Island, where he spent the remainder of his life.

Besides the financial trouble, the university was vexed by an extraordinary state of insubordination among the students, attributed to their extreme youth and lack of preparation for college studies. This disturbance culminated in the rebellion of the senior class in 1837, which involved the expulsion of the whole number. So discouraging were these early years that when Rev. Basil Manly assumed the presidency, as successor to Dr. Woods, in 1837, he was met by only 38 students, the highest previous attendance having been 158. But the new president held on for eighteen years, until 1855, and steadily built up the university in every way.

Up to the limit of this period, 1840, the record of Alabama in the public support of education has little more to show. Its institutions of charity, some of which have been widely known, were all organized at a later date, as was the medical school of the university and the Agricultural and Mechanical College at Auburn, under the presidency of Dr. Broun, now one of the best in the South. The various institutions bearing the name of "college" established by the different religious bodies, Baptist, Methodist, and Catholic, and the numerous private and denominational schools, some of them of national reputation, all belong to a later period, although some of them had their small beginnings in the decade from 1830 to 1840. But in the brief space of twenty years the State had displayed a spirit and set in motion an arrangement of the secondary and higher education prophetic of good things for the years to come.

MISSISSIPPI.

The story of the American common school in Mississippi does not begin during the time limit appropriated to this essay, the first half century of the Republic, 1790–1840. Indeed, until the beginning of the present century, there is, for this State, no story of education of any type connected with schools to be told. Settled by the French as early as 1699 on the shore of the great river, passing under the control of the British Empire for the brief period of twenty years, 1763–1783, then falling under the dominion of the Spanish power, which reigned supreme on the western coast of the Mississippi River from the Gulf to the summit of the Rocky Mountains and the southern boundary of British Canada, finally becoming a portion of the territory of the United States near the opening of the nineteenth century, there was little opportunity for the development of anything like education outside the

family and such instruction of children and youth as always accompanies the ministry of a priesthood so zealous as that of the Catholic Church.

But here, as in the early records of the Northwest, we find the local historians reveling in the vision of an ideal social state, in their glowing descriptions of the first Anglo-Saxon settlements in this territory. Up to the year of British possession the country had been occupied chiefly at a few military posts on the Gulf, at Biloxi, and at Natchez, on the river, with small prospect of permanent occupation by the group of wandering adventurers from France, who scoured the country in pursuit of imaginary gold fields or an elusive earthly paradise. But with the approach of the war of Independence there came hither a considerable immigration of people from New Jersey, Connecticut, and elsewhere, fleeing to the far-off wilderness to escape the perils of the impending revolt of the thirteen colonies. The early exodus of the British forces from New England, carrying with them a body of sympathizers with the mother country to the northeastern provinces of Canada, had placed these colonies in a state of assurance concerning the final issue of the conflict that was not shared by the middle provinces, which thenceforth bore the brunt of the war, while the South, below Virginia, virtually until the closing period of the strife, was overrun and demoralized by the enemy.

It is not always clearly taught in the school histories of the United States that Florida never "rebelled" against the mother country, and during the entire period of the Revolutionary struggle, especially in its western section, was a refuge for the disaffected class in all the Atlantic colonies. The New Jersey Company, under the lead of the Swayze Brothers, was granted 19,000 acres of land in Adams County, on the shore of the Mississippi, in 1772. Later came Phineas Lyman, bringing along a crowd of Connecticut Yankees, who were established on a big estate of 20,000 acres in Chickasaw County, not far away. Rev. Jedediah Smith, father of ten children, was the first Protestant clergyman to invade this primitive Catholic reserve. In the glowing record of the historians of early Mississippi, these people came to cultivate the soil, brought intelligence and capital, raised indigo, tobacco, and, later, cotton for export, reveled in a rural paradise of meats, vegetables, fruits, "milk and wild honey," and made everything at home. Although too far away from Pensacola, the British seat of government, to be affected by the laws, these people "were a law unto themselves," paid their debts, dwelt in peace, and by sheer force of personal character and public opinion kept down the evil-disposed folk that inevitably drifted in. Natchez was the only effort at a village, being a settlement of twenty log houses, under a great bluff on the river bank, with four stone buildings. They were undisturbed during the war, but in 1779 Spain, lying alongside, at war with England abroad, conquered the settlement and established its domain over a territory larger than the old republic east of the Alleghanies. But there seems to have been no interference with the original settlers, even their religion being tolerated, as certainly the Catholic faith would not have been in the old eastern English provinces from which they came.

In 1795 the boundaries of the United States territory at the south were drawn along the northern line of Florida, and this portion of the State of Georgia, extending to the Mississippi River, including the three States of Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, then came under the control of the new Republic. But even before this, the great expectations from the opening of the vast Southwest, even to the mouths of the Mississippi, had set in motion another tide of emigration. This body of people came to the southern boundary of the Republic on the eastern shore of the Pearl River. They settled in the pine woods, reared great herds of cattle, and built up a community that, in contrast to the original emigration to Mississippi, was a semicivilization. The natural antagonisms between them and the better sort previously mentioned, laid the foundations of the bitter local jealousies and feuds that, for half a century, hindered the progress of all good things in Mississippi. In 1798 the Territory was organized, and Winthrop Sargeant, of Massachusetts, was sent down by the

Government to drive the "wild team" that Mississippi undoubtedly was under circumstances so peculiar. Of course he failed, and not till Clairborne was appointed governor, in 1801, was the first Territorial legislature convened at Natchez and the new Territory really set on its feet.

Nobody claims that up to this date there had been any public movement for the schooling of any class during the hundred years of French, British, and Spanish occupation. Of course the original settlers from the Northeast, in their characteristic extempore home way, did not let their children "grow up in so great barbarism" as to be wholly ignorant of letters and unable to "read the word of God." To this first deputation of solid Anglo-American folk is Mississippi indebted for a good deal of the remarkable ability and intelligence that in its early history towered above its natural surroundings. Although it is on record that there was but one printer and no newspaper in the colony, and although copies of the first laws of the legislature were made in writing, yet during his short administration, in 1799, Governor Sargeant forwarded a petition of the people in Natchez for "a seminary" and a minister of the gospel. The trials of Parson Jedediah Smith in preaching his gospel of Protestantism are a matter of local history. But the youth of Mississippi did not incline to that profession, and in 1826 it was declared that, up to that date, no native of the State had become a Protestant clergyman.

In 1802 the capital of the Territory was located at Washington, a village 6 miles inland from Natchez. This little metropolis in the wilderness at once became the center of all the society and culture, of which there seems to have been a good supply in the Territory. Buildings were erected, a village grew up, and again we are treated to a brilliant picture of the social life of the place, including "wine parties and duels." The Territory included the present States of Alabama and Mississippi, still chiefly in possession of the Indian tribes and settled only in isolated localities in a boundless wilderness. In 1803 the vast territory of Louisiana, including the city of New Orleans and the mouths of the Mississippi River, fell into possession of the United States. But the central and northern portion of the territory and State of Mississippi were occupied by the Indian tribes until, in 1832, their final exit was accomplished. Previous to this, Gen. Andrew Jackson had carved out a military road from Florida on the Gulf to Tennessee, and along this highway poured in a new emigration, less desirable in some way than the original body of excellent people that "held the fort" at Natchez and on the shore of the mighty river. In 1817 Mississippi was admitted to the Union and in 1820 its population was 75,000.

In 1813 the first effort of the people clustering about the Natchez district culminated in the establishment of the school which became Jefferson College, the practical beginning of the superior education in the new State founded at Washington. It struggled through a varied career of success and discouragement for fifty years, till it declined with the rural metropolis in which it was located. Washington is now only a hamlet in a remote suburb of the city on the bluffs and preserves the remains of the old seminary as a village academy. The Congress of the United States made a donation of lands, first in Alabama, afterwards in Mississippi, in its favor. But misfortune after misfortune blocked its success, first in a short experience as a military school, and it was never practically more than an academy. "In its history of ninety years it has never granted an academic degree." Yet, like so many of the little seats of education in the new American life, there clusters about it a notable group of students and teachers. One of these instructors was Sir William Dunbar, a remarkable Scotchman, of noble lineage, who, for some unexplained reason, drifted to the shores of the Mississippi at this time, pursued his scientific studies on his plantation, became a member of the learned societies of Europe, and the friend and correspondent of Jefferson till his death in 1810. The great American naturalist, Audubon, was for two years teacher of drawing in this little seat of learning, where his sons were schooled. Governor A. G. Brown, the father of popular education in Mississippi, Jefferson Davis, with others only less distinguished, were also among its students.

From the earliest period the upper strata of the Mississippi people persisted in sending their children to the North or to Europe for education. Even as late as 1840 the governor of the State protested against the habit and urged the growing hostility of the North to slavery as a reason why the people should build up an effective educational system for their own State. For the thirty years succeeding the admission of the State to the Union, Mississippi had nothing that could be called a common-school system. During the early years of the country the educational situation is described as "deplorable" by reliable native historians. "Schoolmasters were difficult to be obtained and generally vicious or ignorant." A settlement of Methodist people, in Warren County, was a positive addition to the educational side of the Territory. The charter of Jefferson College, in 1802, was "the first act of incorporation in Mississippi." After great vicissitudes, in 1840 it supported a full college course with a president and four professors and 1,500 volumes in its library.

The first seminary for girls was established in Natchez in 1801 by Rev. Mr. Ker, an Irish clergyman, afterwards lawyer and judge. It was taught by his wife and daughters. In 1818 was set up at Washington the Elizabeth Female Academy, "the first fruits of Protestant denominational influence in all the extreme South." Founded by and named from a devoted woman of the Methodist order, Mrs. Elizabeth Roach, it secured for its principal Mrs. Caroline M. Thayer, a granddaughter or grandniece of Gen. Joseph Warren, who fell at the battle of Bunker Hill. This excellent lady, who afterwards removed to another school in the State, is remembered as an educational "Mother in Israel" by the grateful daughters of Mississippi, than whom there is no more zealous and farseeing body of school women in the entire South to-day. Its commencement exercises in 1829 are said to have been the first in Mississippi. The average attendance during the first ten years was from ten to fifty pupils. It was abandoned with the decay of the village of Washington in 1843.

The earliest division of the sixteenth section of Government school lands in Mississippi was made at the present city of Columbus, in the northeastern part of the State, in 1821, by the establishment of an academy. Its patrimony included a portion of the present flourishing little city; the lease, being drawn for ninety-nine years, secured a fair income. Through all the years before the civil war this was one of the most noted schools in the State, maintaining a classical, to which was added an elementary, department. At the reorganization of education in 1868 it became the public school of the city in connection with the colored department. To this must be attributed the reputation of Columbus as the proper educational center of the extensive and fertile country of northeast Mississippi and the recent establishment of the Women's Normal and Industrial State College, one of the most original, characteristic, and useful institutions of the New South, already copied in Georgia, North and South Carolina, and worthy of imitation in many States of the Union.

In 1826 the Mississippi Academy and College were established at Clinton, Hinds County, 10 miles west of Vicksburg, in one of the most favorable sections of the river country. Mrs. Thayer was called to the principalship of the female department. After an unsuccessful attempt to obtain the State seminary fund, it went through various experiences, until in 1850 it became a Baptist institution, and is still one of the best schools of the higher class in the State. To this school as a professor, and afterwards as president, came Dr. Walter Hillman, from Massachusetts, so well known, with his excellent wife, as the head of the Central Female College established by them at Clinton. We omit here the interesting story of this school, including the romantic episode of its continuance by common consent of the rival Union and Confederate authorities during the military operations around Vicksburg—a little island paradise of peace and good will amid a Commonwealth involved in the horrors of civil war.

In 1830 a distinguished divine from Pennsylvania, appealed to the Presbyterian people of Mississippi to establish a college at Oak Ridge, near Bruinsburg, where General Grant crossed the Mississippi in his final movement upon Vicksburg. He

told the people of this State that up to that date no college commencement had ever been held nor had a single college student been graduated southwest of Tennessee through the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, and the Territory of Arkansas, an area of 145,000 square miles, inhabited by 200,000 people, and not one native missionary had entered the ministry. He also declared that there was not a city or village in the State where he was willing to locate a college, because of the low condition of morals. Whatever of truth there may have been in his statements, the wealthy people of the State came to the rescue, subscribed $12,000 for the buildings, and gave 200 acres of land, with an endowment, to the enterprise. The plucky president cut down the first tree on Oak Ridge and the new school opened in 1831, with 65 students, and held its first commencement in 1833. Twenty-five thousand dollars was afterwards added for a theological professorship. This college, inaugurated under such favorable auspices, during its existence educated 1,000 students. But in 1851 its funds were lost, from bad investments, and its distinguished president murdered. After a few years of checkered success the property was sold to the State and transferred to the Alcorn University for colored youth. The remaining funds were used to establish a seminary for young women at Port Gibson, in the neighborhood.

These were but a few of the attempts to establish academic and collegiate schools in the State before the movement in 1840–1850 to place on the ground a proper school system and State university. Among others may be mentioned the Oxford Female College, established 1838, still known as the Union Female College in the university town. Centenary College, established by the Methodists in 1839, was transferred to Louisiana in 1845. "During the twenty years from 1820 to 1840," according to Governor Brown, "no less than 110 colleges and academies, male and female, had been inaugurated in Mississippi. Most of them had a fitful existence and then went down to the great receptacle of old and useless things—the tomb of the Capulets. The children of Mississippi were largely educated in private schools."

To this able and farseeing statesman, Governor A. G. Brown, is the State of Mississippi indebted for the first positive and persistent movement in favor of a State university and a system of common schools.

The seminary lands of the State were first located in Alabama, afterwards in Mississippi. In 1821 the legislature was moved to locate these lands. In 1830–1833 the Planters' Bank was established, the State owning half its stock, and being represented by six of thirteen directors. In 1833 the university lands were sold for $277,000. The dismal story of the subsequent failure of the bank, including a loss of $200,000 of this fund, with the long struggle of the university, nominally organized in 1841, to get on its feet and into a proper working condition for the next twenty years, need not be told in detail. It is the old story of the futile attempt, in so many of our new States, to establish a university on the basis of the United States land grant, the neglect or perversion and loss of a large part of the funds, and the final rally of the people, often against the determined opposition of the denominational and other adverse influences, to place the State system on its feet. To-day, spite of all hostile influences or early failures, the public support of the higher education, both in its academic and industrial departments, is as well assured as any policy of the Republic. In Mississippi, as in Georgia, the complete success was imperiled by an unwise division of the funds. Governor Brown favored a central university and auxiliary academies. The bitter contentions that raged around the cradle of the university were settled in 1845 by the location at Oxford, and funds at last were gathered for its opening prior to 1850. But this, with the history of the institution after the close of the civil war, the subsequent establishment of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, and of the Woman's Normal and Industrial College, will properly come under consideration at a future time.

It was not till the same time, 1845, and under the powerful leadership of the great educational governor of the State, Hon. A. G. Brown, that the first movement toward a common-school instruction for the white children and youth of Mississippi

was inaugurated. By the help of Judge J. S. B. Thatcher, a native of Massachusetts and a graduate of Harvard College, a plan was devised and a system of education launched upon the tide of unsuccessful experiment. The first common-school law of Mississippi did not essentially differ from those of other Southern States already described. The State had already placed in its constitution the inspiring words of the immortal ordinance of 1787: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." The statute provided that the county courts should appoint school commissioners, five in each county, who should take in charge the entire business of the establishment of a system of popular education and impose a tax which, with the approval of the people concerned, would set the great machine in motion. But all was predicated on the very uncertain hope that the majority of the voters would consent to accept the system and pay for the schooling of all the children. It was just that which the majority of the voters never decided to do until 1868. But during the fifteen years before the breaking out of the great conflict the legislature was vexed by the persistent efforts of the enemies of the system to repeal the law. As it was, only a few of the counties would accept it. By 1860 the original intent of the law had been evaded and modified by an endless series of enactments for the benefit of separate localities. The partial collapse of the law of 1845 was a new demonstration of the folly of relying on "local option" as the base of any system of public education among a people of such diverse origin in a State torn by such fierce local jealousies as any of our Southwestern Commonwealths previous to 1840. But a great deal was undoubtedly done in this way for the education of the people into a growing determination to school the children. The speedy and inevitable decision of all these Commonwealths, even under the most discouraging circumstances, at the close of the war to adopt the complete plan of the American common school for all classes and both races was the final result of the long and unsatisfactory experimenting of the half century before the great flood of 1861.

Meanwhile the state of education, as it existed during the later years of this period, receives an illuminating side light from a letter written in 1847 by Rev. Mr. Morey, of Mount Sylvan Academy, on the prospect of Northern teachers coming to Mississippi. With a detailed description of the peculiarities of the country and the qualifications of the emigrating pedagogue, especially if a woman, he states that two hundred good teachers could find immediate and profitable employment in the State. But he premises, especially to the male sex, "Come determined to teach; not to speculate or marry; our places for golden investments are all occupied and our heiresses all engaged. Not to farm it or to preach. We know how to raise cotton better than you could, and we have a fair supply of preachers. Not to become politicians or lecturers on phrenology; the science of government is wonderfully well known here and phrenology is not popular. In short, we need teachers, not peddlers, or doctors, or lawyers, or literary pretenders."

In 1840 the census of the United States reports in Mississippi 7 colleges, containing 454 students; 71 academies, with 2,553 pupils; 382 primary schools; 107 pupils educated at public expense, and 8,360 white illiterates.

LOUISIANA.

If the generations could be educated by proclamation, and if the statute law could establish and support "seminaries of learning," the State of Louisiana, instead of being one of the most illiterate, would to-day be at the head of educational eminence among the States of the Republic. In reading its body of legislation from the beginning of the century to 1860, connected with the early hope of educating the masses, the reader is impressed at once with the eloquent elaboration of the statement and the inefficiency of the administrative methods in providing effective means for the enforcement of the law. Up to the year 1803, when the vast territory

of Louisiana, including the present State, passed under the control of the Government of the United States, the educational affairs of the colony were in the hands of the Catholic priesthood, who favored a system of parochial instruction. There is an interesting record of faithful and self-sacrificing labors by the devoted members of the female, Jesuit, and other religious orders in this direction, that only indirectly concerns our present subject. In 1741 Governor Bienville petitioned the home government for a "college," but was put off with a slur upon the insignificance of the colony. The expulsion of the Jesuits and the confiscation of their property of $180,000, perhaps the largest sum of corporate wealth then in that country, in 1764, was doubtless a backset to such arrangements as were then on the ground.

But as soon as the Territory of New Orleans was organized, the attention of the Territorial legislature was called to the entire subject of the education of the children and youth. Between 1805 and 1810 a general system of schooling was enacted which, had it been workable under the circumstances, would have launched this beautiful province on a career of intelligence and prosperity unparalleled in the Southwest. A board of "regents of the University of Orleans" was established, consisting of the governor, judges of the supreme court and United States court, mayor and recorder of New Orleans, and president of the legislative council, ex officio, and twenty eminent citizens, appointed by the legislature, of whom it might almost be said, as of Lord Bacon, that "they had taken all knowledge for their province." They were empowered, by successive laws, to establish "A College of Orleans," with president and four professors in the city of New Orleans and one or more academies in each parish or county. In their ideas of the education of women, no legislative body of the day was abreast with that of Louisiana. They say: "Whereas the prosperity of every State depends on the education of the female sex, in so much that the dignity of their condition is the strongest characteristic which distinguishes civilized from savage society," and they authorize the regents of the university to establish as many academies for their education as may be considered fit. The same body was instructed to set up a public library in each parish. In 1808 the judge of each parish was instructed to appoint a "jury" of twelve to twenty-four persons to establish such educational arrangements "as should appear to them most convenient." Five trustees were to be appointed to administer the system.

Here was a scheme of education so broad and admirable that one is interested to learn the names of its framers. They were certainly not behind, if not actually in advance of, any similar group of educators in the country, not excepting Jefferson and his noble bodyguard in Virginia. But when we come to the executive side of the plan our admiration falls into a swift collapse. The educable children and youth of the Territory could not have exceeded a few thousand, as half the population was composed of negro slaves. These were scattered over a realm of 48,720 square miles, which, with its native fertility and resources, was perhaps the most difficult of subjugation by man of any inhabited portion of the Republic. The majority of the white people were still Catholic, and could not be brought into cooperation with any scheme of education outside the priestly programme of the ecclesiastical parochial schools. There was yet no such accumulation of property as would justify the setting up of a State school system so expensive. To meet the original outlay the law proposed a lottery scheme of $50,000 for the college and academies, and a public tax, in addition to the meager sum that could be realized from the sale of the Government school lands, with the proviso that all persons who objected should be excused from the imposition of the school levy.

Of course, with these two provisions the realization of this educational ideal in the Louisiana Territory was only among the possibilities of a millennium. The result followed swiftly on the heels of the endeavor. In 1809 Governor Claiborne sadly informs the fathers, "with regret, that the act to provide the means of establishing public schools in the Territory is not likely to produce the desired effect. In the parish of Pointe Coupee provisions have been made for the support of two public

schools; but no other parish has followed its example." Still the good governor is pleased to hear that "private schools are springing up in every quarter, and fathers of families are interested in the education of their offspring."

Not till 1811 did the legislature actually lay hands on the treasury and vote $15,000 for the College of Orleans and $2,000 for one or more schools in each county, the entire appropriation amounting to $39,000. Three administrators were to be appointed to each county, but only after the schools had been in operation three, and in 1813 six, months, could they profit by the public bounty. At different times until 1841 did the legislature work at this vain problem of "making bricks without straw," gradually increasing the bonus to each parish, arranging the school officials in different groups in what always seemed to be a hopeless style of educational "dress parade." The outcome of all was the sustaining of the College of Orleans, of which the celebrated New Orleans preacher, Rev. Theodore Clapp, an importation from New England, was a prominent official, until 1826. It never had one hundred students, and was finally transferred, with its funds, to a "State university," located at Jackson, East Feliciana Parish, with the same array of notabilities as trustees and a small annual legislative gift for its maintenance. The lottery method was repeatedly invoked, both for the State system and the endowment of the academies that sprang up like a crop of "gourds in the night," only to be withered by the first sunstroke of actual experience. Even in New Orleans, the center of population and culture, the public school in the second, the most progressive of its three municipalities, did not contain seventy-five pupils; and these probably the children of the poor, whose tuition and school supplies were paid from the public fund. The board of regents was finally abolished, and the effort made to work the schools by local administrators and trustees appointed by the legislature or the county court.

In 1825 $2 62½ was appropriated to each voter in the counties for public schools, the minimum and maximum of the appropriation being $800 and $1,350. But so meager was the result of all this legislation that as high an authority as President William Preston Johnston of Tulane University, declares, "there was no such thing as public school education in Louisiana previous to 1841. Parish schools were founded and small appropriations made for their support, but they were not free schools, and doled out the pittance of a public education to eight indigent pupils in each parish. In 1841 the right and duty of supporting free schools was imposed on the city of New Orleans, and in 1845 a system of public schools was established by the constitution." It is estimated that $2,000,000 was expended in these abortive attempts to educate the people of Louisiana during the first forty years of the century. A great number of academies were called into being by the offer of legislative aid, only to fall in pieces on a real attempt to live and do educational work. It is not necessary to impute dishonesty to the various organizations which received or to the directors who handled this large sum of money, although the temptations of a scheme so loose were very great. But, as in South Carolina, it is probable that a good deal of what was appropriated was absorbed by a system of subsidizing local parish and private schools. The city of New Orleans even at that early period had received many bequests from private sources, the majority of which "vanished into thin air," or linger in "innocuous desuetude" to the present day. Well may it be said, in the words of the historian of Louisiana: "No State has ever been more lavish in its expenditure of money for the instruction of its children and youth and the establishment of schools than Louisiana, but all has been a failure."

But we must not infer from the failure of the legislature of Louisiana during these forty years to put on the ground a system of public instruction that nothing was accomplished. The education of an American State in a matter so great and complex as the training of its people into American citizenship is not the work of one but of many generations. It was necessary that the people of all the States should learn the chronic obstacles to the upbuilding of the American common school. Even our

young people nowadays are not thoroughly taught, through reading and hearing, the commonplace arguments in favor of universal education. The only method by which a great and diverse people can learn any essential truth in the policy of a republican government is by an experience, continued through many years, of a struggle toward the conviction that it is one of the elements of free institutions. The vast majority of the people of the State that is now doing the most for the education of its masses do not support this policy because of arguments yearly addressed to their understanding, but from an obstinate conviction, almost amounting to a violent prejudice, inwrought into the very texture of public opinion through the conflicts, defeats, and victories that "blaze" the road to a final success.

Such was the experience of the Southern common school public during the seventy-five years from the establishment of the national Government to the close of the civil war. This portion of the Southern people, always including its ablest and most worthy public men, and a growing element among its most reliable citizens, could always be trusted to advocate the educating of the whole people for a progressive citizenship. The whole proposition was so wrought out and the inevitable result so ground into the consciousness of this class that when by the fate of war the greatest hostile influence was forever suppressed, the common school came to the front almost without opposition, save from the ignorance, prejudice, and bigotry that we always have with us.

It must not be inferred that, because of the failure of repeated efforts to establish the common school, the people of Louisiana were left in the "barbarism of ignorance." At every failure an obstinate public opinion appeared in the legislature to demand a new experiment. Every change in the laws previous to 1840 was made in the interest of a greater efficiency, as if the people were turning the matter about by every possible way to find out the one successful method of schooling their children under circumstances so complex and disheartening. And although at the last, on the eve of the great war, not half the white children of the State were gathered into the schools, and illiteracy abounded in some portions of the Commonwealth, yet, on the other hand, many thousand youth had learned something and were waked up by such opportunities as they possessed to a desire for more. The State fund was all the time growing, and only its misappropriation during the period of reconstruction prevented Louisiana from having to-day one of the large educational funds of the South. And no State in the Union during the first half century of the Republic received into itself a greater proportion of brilliant, capable, and hopeful people from all lands and every portion of the United States than Louisiana. Every feature of the history of Louisiana during her picturesque past can be easily written into a romance, and her educational record has been no exception to this fact.

One of these early histories was that of Alexander Milne, a young Scotchman engaged in the personal service of a nobleman in one of the northern districts of Scotland. Coming home from London, the master of the house is said to have issued an order that his men servants should all cut their hair after a fashion prevailing in certain great houses in the metropolis. "Sandy Milne cuts his hair to please no man," responded the obstinate youth, who thereupon betook himself to the New World, never stopping till he arrived in New Orleans. There, after a successful business career, he found himself for that day a man of wealth, and by will established an institution for boys that still exists in the city. Besides this, he remembered his old home, and endowed a classical school, with the aid of the son of his old master, which has become one of the most useful institutions of learning in that part of Scotland. I pass over the even more interesting stories of John McDonough, Paul Tulane, and a score of others only less known, who from the earliest years of the city have bestowed generous gifts, too often neglected or destroyed. To-day no city in America can be trusted to guard such a benefaction with more jealous care than New Orleans.

So we need not be surprised that the educational public of New Orleans became

finally disgusted with the fruitless fumbling of the honorable board of State regents with its educational affairs, and in 1841 dusted the "College of Orleans" out into the country and obtained a local board of education, appointed by the governor, to establish a central and two primary schools of a public character, partly supported by State funds and a local tax, with 150 poor children educated free. The great revival of the common school in the far Northeast had reached even to the Gulf, and the city fathers consulted Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, who had already become national authorities in matters of this sort. Mr. Mann recommended Mr. J. A. Shaw, of Bridgewater, Mass., as a fit person to take control of the new experiment in public school work. The city was divided into three municipalities, each independent in local affairs. Its entire population of 103,000, half colored, probably contained 10,000 white children of proper school age. Mr. Shaw came to the second municipality as superintendent of schools, and began the work with less than 100 pupils. In a year his schools numbered more than 1,000 and in two years 2,000. The schools were graded and taught according to the usual methods then prevailing in the Northern cities, including the French and English languages. By 1844 the remaining municipalities had followed; and the city of New Orleans from that day to 1860 had probably the best system of common schools in any Southern city, with some features of superiority peculiar to itself.

In 1845 the legislature of the State, encouraged by this success, made by far the most vigorous and practical effort of the century to secure the training of the children. The following articles were incorporated in the revised constitution, which went into operation in 1845:

TITLE VII—*Public education.*

ARTICLE 133. There shall be appointed a superintendent of public education, who shall hold his office for two years. His duties shall be prescribed by law. He shall receive such compensation as the legislature may direct.

ART. 134. The legislature shall establish free public schools throughout the State, and shall provide means for their support by taxation on property or otherwise.

ART. 135. The proceeds of all lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State for the use and support of schools, and of all lands which may hereafter be granted or bequeathed to the State, and not expressly granted or bequeathed for any other purpose, which hereafter may be disposed of by the State, and the proceeds of estates of deceased persons to which the State may become entitled by law, shall be held by the State as a loan, and shall be and remain a perpetual fund, on which the State shall pay an annual interest of 6 per cent, which interest, together with all the rents of the unsold lands, shall be appropriated to the support of such schools, and this appropriation shall remain inviolable.

ART. 136. All moneys arising from the sales which have been or may hereafter be made of any lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State for the use of a seminary of learning, and from any kind of donation that may hereafter be made for that purpose, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, at 6 per cent per annum, shall be appropriated to the support of a seminary of learning for the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences, and no law shall ever be made diverting said fund to any other use than to the establishment and improvement of said seminary of learning.

ART. 137. A university shall be established in the city of New Orleans. It shall be composed of four faculties, to wit: One of law, one of medicine, one of the natural sciences, and one of letters.

ART. 138. It shall be called the "University of Louisiana," and the Medical College of Louisiana, as at present organized, shall constitute the faculty of medicine.

ART. 139. The legislature shall provide by law for its further organization and government, but shall be under no obligation to contribute to the establishment or support of said university by appropriations.

The university established by this authority, as far as it had become an accomplished fact, was included in the organization of Tulane University in 1890. By a gift from one of the excellent women of New Orleans, the widow of the former dean of the Medical College, Dr. Richardson, this school is now housed in a fit building, and, with the great Charity Hospital, has become one of the most eminent foundations of medical instruction in the country.

The school law of 1845, enacted in accordance with the constitutional provision, provided for the education of all white youth under the age of 21 by a State tax of 1 mill on the dollar, which, with the income of the State fund, was disbursed to every parish that decided to place itself in connection with the system. All parishes that chose gave up their school lands to the State fund, or held them as they would. A State superintendent of schools was appointed with a salary of $3,000 and $800 for incidental expenses, while Horace Mann began work in Massachusetts for $1,000 a year and paid his own clerk hire. A parish superintendent of schools was elected by a vote of the people, with a salary of $300. Three district trustees were also elected by popular vote. Alexander Dimitry was appointed State superintendent of education in 1847, and for several years worked with great fidelity in the new system of instruction.

But no machinery, however perfect, can educate a people without its own hearty consent and cooperation. The American common school has been antagonized in Louisiana, and while it could not be overthrown, has fallen short of the proper results of the best efforts. In 1856 thirty parishes were attempting to school some 12,000 pupils, at an annual expense of $142,000; or, according to another account, forty parishes supported 740 schools, with 7,000 pupils, at a cost of $166,000. There were no very reliable statistics of education, especially in the Southern States, before 1860. Until 1861 the National Library at Washington had no collection of pamphlets, and all that concerns common school education in the way of local information in that vast repertory has been gathered since that comparatively recent date. In 1856 the State superintendent of Louisiana declared that half the children in the thirty or forty parishes referred to were out of school. He says: "More than $2,000,000 have been appropriated by the State in behalf of the system of schools since its origin. Several laws have been enacted which, making no adequate provision for their enforcement, have failed in great measure to attain the object hoped for. It is evident that here is a lamentable failure, for it appears that nearly one-half of the educable children in the parishes have not for the year derived any advantage from the system."

Governor Hobart declared in 1855: "The report of the superintendent of schools is far from showing a satisfactory condition of affairs, and the schools may be considered almost a failure. The plan adopted at one session of the legislature is entirely modified at the next. It is not a system; it is the bewildering confusion of chaos."

It had already become evident that, whatever might be the success of the American common school system in a few of the cities and large towns of the South, the sparse settlement and peculiar organization of society in all these States made its satisfactory working through the open country, where nine-tenths of the children lived, almost an impossibility. Alongside the public schools were the private, academic, parochial, and family organizations. The strong feeling of personal and political independence in every locality made all attempts to supervise education by the central government abortive. The slave class in Louisiana was a full half of the entire population of the State. Under conditions like these, it is not surprising that the persistent efforts of the common school public of Louisiana should have failed to establish a system of popular instruction satisfactory to itself, and that only after the great obstacle to universal education had been destroyed, was this State, at the end, practically, of sixteen years of warfare, brought again, in 1868, to a final attempt to school all its children and youth.

TENNESSEE.

A late historian of Tennessee, Phelan, declares: "The history of the common schools is in the main the history of the public lands in Tennessee, and the history of the public lands in this State is the history of confusion. * * * More than three hundred acts have been passed upon subjects growing out of the relation between the public schools and the school lands of the State." President Philip

Lindsley, of the University of Tennessee, who, from the year 1826, was beyond question not only the most eminent, but also the most aggressive and reliable of the educators of the State, declared at different times before 1840 that up to that date "the State had done nothing for colleges or academies, and that, practically, no school or child had been aided by the State school funds." In fact, during the period treated in this essay—the first half century of the Republic, 1790-1840—there was no history of the American common school to be told, as nothing of the sort existed in this, from the first and to-day, one of the most powerful and influential of the Southern States.

We have already given the account of the early history of such education as was established in Tennessee during its brief Territorial period and early experience, as the third Commonwealth admitted to the new Union in 1796, with an area of 45,600 square miles and a population of 77,000. It has already been related that the earliest school in the Territory, Washington College, in east Tennessee, was founded by Samuel Doak, under the legislative authority of North Carolina. Doak may be regarded as the father of education in this State, and, with his three colaborers, Craighead, Carrick, and Balch, was a good representative of the vigorous and intelligent Presbyterian clergy that we have already met as the pioneers of the superior schools in the Southern Atlantic States, from Virginia to Georgia.

Within ten years, the two institutions that promised to become the leading colleges of the State, Dickinson at Nashville and Blount in Knoxville, with several additional academies, had their modest beginning, and, until 1816, these and a few private schools appear to have supplied all the reenforcement of family and ordinary church instruction in the State. At this time Congress made a generous distribution of school lands, which, had they been preserved would have placed Tennessee at the front of the roll of new States in all matters relating to the education of her people. This munificent benefaction consisted of 100,000 acres for two colleges, 100,000 for academies, and 640 acres in each 6 miles square for common schools. The history of this great landed property, like that of so many others in different States, is but another testimony to the bottom fact in popular education, that, without an obstinate determination among the ruling class of the people for the schooling of the children and youth, nothing can be done. That determination in Tennessee, as in all the States south of Pennsylvania, was a plant of slow growth. The interminable legislative wrangles brought on by the attempt of the common school public to utilize the national bounty for the children, reveal the hostile elements in the ecclesiastical, social, and political centers of society that for eighty years postponed an effective organization of popular institutions for even the white children of the State. It was not till 1823 that any serious attempt was made to establish a school fund in Tennessee. Ten years later additional laws were passed, and in 1837 the fund was made a portion of the capital of the Bank of Tennessee. The fund grew with the passing years, although with no result adequate to the necessities of the people from the distribution of its income. At the breaking out of the civil war the State supposed itself to be in possession of a school fund of $1,500,000, all of which was wrecked in the destruction of 1861-1865. The State, on the restoration of the Union, assumed its present school estate, on which it pays interest as its annual contribution to the common school, although it has not yet assumed any charge of the Agricultural and Mechanical College at Knoxville, which, under the name of The University of Tennessee, is becoming one of the prosperous and well-conducted seminaries of the higher education in the Southwest.

One of the most interesting and instructive chapters in the history of education in the Southwest, when fully written, will be the record of the University of Nashville. It was chartered in 1786 by the legislature of North Carolina, first as Davidson, and after a brief period was named Cumberland College. In 1826 it was chartered as the University of Nashville. It was finally absorbed, as far as its literary department was concerned, into the Peabody Normal School, which may yet come to the great opportunity of becoming the first proper normal university of the country.

But in spite of these fortunes it held up the banner of good learning and universal education, and sent forth nearly 400 full graduates, with 1,500 undergraduates, including 28 members of Congress and a large number of men distinguished in the influential walks of life in the Southwest. In 1824, after twice declining the invitation, Rev. Philip Lindsley, of New Jersey, a graduate of Princeton College, was persuaded to accept the presidency. He lived and toiled in the service of his adopted State till his death, subsequent to the war, but not till he had seen his beloved institution reorganized for its new departure as the Peabody Normal School, under the efficient and inspiring leadership of Dr. Eben Stearns, aided by that great educational benefactor of the New South, the first agent of the Peabody fund, Dr. Barnas Sears.

By 1806 Blount and Davidson colleges, with an infant academy in each of the twenty-seven counties of the State, all of them staggering under the burden of impecuniosity, were laboring with the problem of education in Tennessee. The first grant of land to Cumberland College was wrecked, although a subsequent gift and the efforts of its friends enabled it to keep alive, with an occasional interregnum, till the first commencement under the presidency of Dr. Lindsley, in 1826. On that occasion the president delivered the first of the series of remarkable addresses on education in the South that has survived the general destruction of school literature, including reports and statistics, in the civil war. He calls the attention of his hearers to the educational condition of the State, from which not less than $500,000 was annually carried beyond the Alleghany Mountains for the higher education, "A tribute to the supreme wisdom of distant and foreign States." He asserts that, if placed on a firm foundation, in a year 500 students could be gathered within the spacious walls of the new university, and the expenditure abroad in one year, if utilized at home, "would create a Cambridge at our very doors."

His plan for the university was doubtless somewhat copied from the new University of Virginia, and, could it have been carried out, would have made the University of Nashville for all time the head of the higher education in the Southwest. It included an arrangement of six groups of university buildings, a noble estate of 120 acres, six great college dormitories, with recitation rooms that would accommodate one hundred students each, with lodgings for the majority of the twenty-three instructors, and seven houses for the accommodation of the president and leading members of the faculty. Each group of buildings should include a refectory and 8 to 10 acres for gardening and exercise. Machine shops and an additional 100-acre farm would provide for a thorough organization of the industrial department of the university, which included in this plan a group of professional schools of all varieties. It was believed that $200,000 would be sufficient for the first outlay. Nashville was already a flourishing city of 4,000 people and Andrew Jackson an early member of the board of trustees. The president did not fail to remind his hearers that the village of Amherst, Mass., with but 2,500 people had recently contributed $50,000 to the founding of a new college on its beautiful hill overlooking one of the loveliest of American landscapes, and dilated on the easy way in which a similar amount could be raised there, in the southwestern section of the Republic.

Later, in 1845-1848, we hear again from the indefatigable president. Almost heartsick with "hope deferred," a veteran yet an athlete, "striking out from the shoulder" in the very face of his adopted State, telling such truths as that, up to this period, outside a few schools and the university, there had been no real progress toward popular education, and recommending a return to the home training of the old New England days, as if a people that had so long neglected their schools would be either disposed or qualified for such an experiment. One-tenth of the white population of Tennessee was still in the bondage of an illiteracy even more harmful to the Commonwealth than the utter ignorance of the "inferior race," to whom the sympathies of the zealous Northern educator on Southern ground did not seem to extend.

But no man can do everything, and the work of Dr. Lindsley, carrying the university in his heart and on his shoulders, with an average attendance of sixty to seventy students, and the indescribable burdens of a man occupying the foremost literary and educational position of an entire section of the Republic, remains a notable memory and a perpetual inspiration to the generous youth of the present day. Nashville still remains the educational center of the Southwest, and, with Vanderbilt University and the reorganized University of Nashville, including the Peabody Normal School; a superior arrangement of common schools, first established in 1848; several flourishing seminaries for the secondary, higher, and professional education of the negro; excellent professional schools; an important public library, and several private and academic foundations for boys and girls, among the best in the South, is the final response of this great Commonwealth to the labors and sacrifices of Lindsley and the noble band of his coworkers who, during the dark days of popular indifference and distracted educational councils, hoped on and toiled toward the sunrise of a brighter day.

In 1829 the first real movement was attempted in behalf of a system of common schools in Tennessee. The county authorities were instructed, in 1830, to appoint commissioners "to divide the county into school districts and number the heads of families." An attempt had already been made, in 1823, to establish a school fund; and in 1838 the Commonwealth found itself possessed of $18,000 for academies and $100,000 for annual expenditure for common schools. In 1834 the revised constitution of the State provides as follows:

ARTICLE XI.

SECTION 10. Knowledge, learning, and virtue, being essential to the preservation of republican institutions, and the diffusion of the opportunities and advantages of education throughout the different portions of the State being highly conducive to the promotion of this end, it shall be the duty of the general assembly in all future periods of this government to cherish literature and science. And the fund called the common school fund, and all the lands and proceeds thereof, dividends, stocks, and other property of any description whatever, heretofore by law appropriated by the general assembly of this State, for the use of common schools, and all such as shall hereafter be appropriated, shall remain a perpetual fund, the principal of which shall never be diminished by legislative appropriation; and the interest thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support and encouragement of common schools throughout the State, and for the equal benefit of all the people thereof; and no law shall be made authorizing said fund or any part thereof to be diverted to any other use than the support and encouragement of common schools; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly to appoint a board of commissioners, for such term of time as they may think proper, who shall have the general superintendence of said fund, and who shall make a report of the condition of the same from time to time, under such rules, regulations, and restrictions as may be required by law: *Provided*, That if at any time hereafter a division of the public lands of the United States, or of the money arising from the sales of such lands, shall be made among the individual States, the part of such lands or money coming to this State shall be devoted to the purposes of education and internal improvement; and shall never be applied to any other purpose.

SEC. 11. The above provisions shall not be construed to prevent the legislature from carrying into effect any laws that have been passed in favor of the colleges, universities, or academies, or from authorizing heirs or distributees to receive and enjoy escheated property, under such rules and regulations as from time to time may be prescribed by law.

The law of 1829 provided that five school trustees should be elected in each district. But one of the most serious mistakes of this and subsequent legislation seems to have been the multitude of officials through which the school moneys were to pass before they reached the schoolhouse. In this journey they were lost or frittered away in a wilderness of detail. In 1838 another act was sent forth into the State to wrestle with the popular indifference or hostility to general education. It appointed a superintendent of schools to preside over the details of the administration of the

system; made 6 to 16 the school age; endeavored to achieve a school course, and restricted the distribution of State funds to districts that supported a school three months in the year. A rate bill was affixed to the system, and five commissioners for each county, elected for two years, managed the executive affairs of the district. In 1845 the feature of self-help was first introduced to the system, each district being permitted to tax itself for education. But in 1848 the governor of the State says: "The effort for popular education has slumbered and languished and pined and exists now rather as a memento of the past than as a living system for future growth and expansion."

But we have already exceeded the limit of our essay, 1790–1840, in this necessarily fragmentary account of the attempts of the common school public to plant a system of popular education on the soil of Tennessee. Outside less than a dozen cities, no one of the fifteen Southern States previous to the war, save, perhaps, North Carolina, had succeeded in establishing a common school system for its white children that commended itself either to rich or poor, the stigma of a pauper school and social inferiority everywhere being attached to it. The absence of reliable records, either because of failure to keep them or by destruction during the civil war, must always be a great barrier against the most industrious historical investigation which attempts to do more than sketch the progress of educational affairs and do late justice to the eminent men and women who then wrought in the faith and hope of the coming of the great hereafter in all the Southern States.

KENTUCKY.

To the student of the educational development of the American people, no chapter of this involved history is more crowded with significance than the record of the prolonged and obstinate conflict through which the Commonwealth of Kentucky made its way to the nominal establishment of a common school system in 1838, only then culminating in a final "general engagement," crowned by the people's victory, which placed in the constitution of the State a pledge for the safety of the school fund in 1850. The details of this long-drawn battle for the children, which, with all its relations to the building of an American State might be well amplified to a volume, have been so often and so thoroughly told by the friends of the common school, especially by the able State historian, Hon. Z. F. Smith, first superintendent of public instruction after the civil war, that we may best refer the reader to these interesting memorials for more complete information than can be crowded into the present essay. It will suffice for the present sketch to attempt to overlook the field and out of the conflicting records of success and defeat endeavor to draw some general conclusions that shed light on the original drift of American thought and the gradual rise and inevitable triumph of the people's determination toward the American common school.

It must be remembered that, in comparison especially with the State of Ohio, the early settlers of Kentucky were neither cosmopolitan by origin nor an independent colony. The early movement upon the new Northwest from New England, and later from all the original thirteen States, was not a journey of exploration by a group of adventurous pioneers, but a thoroughly organized movement, with a fixed purpose of establishing new States under an imperative ordinance that secured the rights of the settler to his home, pledged the faith of the nation to provide the means for all grades of education and the support of the Christian ministry, and placed the infant Commonwealth under the protection of the most complete system of legal guardianship then existing in the world. On the contrary, from the early exploration of the vast wilderness of Kentucky by Daniel Boone and his pioneer associates, Boone himself a typical North Carolina "man of the woods," till its admission into the Union as a State in 1792, almost a full generation, Kentucky was a restless backwoods province of Virginia, with all which that implies in our primitive American history. Her early explorers and settlers were not the representatives of the powerful aris-

tocracy beyond the Appalachian Mountains, but mainly a group of strong, self-willed men, of unusual native intelligence and great military and executive force, largely untaught by books or schools, but with a sprinkling of men educated according to the ideas of the day in that portion of the country.

It was as representatives of the great middle estate which, under Thomas Jefferson' overthrew the most concentrated aristocracy ever planted in the provinces and made the Virginia of the revolutionary epoch and the first thirty years of the national life, that men like George Rogers Clarke and his sort went forth to clear the ground for the coming "great West," while Washington and the patriotic Northeast were holding the British Empire at bay along an unprotected coast line of 1,000 miles. At the same time this splendid little extempore army of the Northwest, with headquarters in "the dark and bloody ground" beyond the great mountains, toiled, fought, and died with a chronic sense of the neglect, almost the contempt, of the mother, the Old Dominion. Only a few of the long-sighted statesmen of the home country, above all, Washington, appreciated the importance of what they were doing. The same feeling that, ninety years later, assisted in driving the entire State of West Virginia into the arms of the Northwest in the struggle for the preservation of the Union, wrought like a fire in the bones of Kentucky from the close of the revolutionary struggle till its admission as a State. So violent had this feeling become that the original clique of disunionists, who proposed to carry off the great Southwest, found in this State a hearing and succeeded in producing a turbulent and reckless condition of public opinion not a day too soon checked by the admission of the State to the Union in 1792. Even then, the agitators for the extreme idea of "State rights" in Virginia found in the new legislature of Kentucky the fit body of daring political theorists to challenge the new Republic in the famous Kentucky resolutions of 1798.

It was this political prominence of the State which, like an ambitious and headstrong boy that had deserted the home to which he still held with a half-hearted allegiance, fixed the character of Kentucky for many years to come. The early early introduction of negro slavery determined its public destiny, as the aspiring political leader of the new Southwest. Henceforth the cosmopolitan and national type of emigration avoided this border land and swarmed the mighty realm of freedom from Pennsylvania to the Pacific. This multitude also swept along a later contingent from the new State, the descendants of the original settlers, men like Lincoln, Miller, and Corwin, thousands of able and liberty-loving youth who found it difficult to resist the steady drift of their native land toward the conservatism which has made Kentucky, of all the southern Commonwealths, perhaps the best remaining representative of the old-time aristocratic social constitution of the Atlantic South.

These facts also explain the history of education in Kentucky during the seventy years from 1780, when the Commonwealth, after a most embittered conflict of opposing parties, finally planted the standard of the American common school in the revised constitution of 1850. The original settlers of Fincastle County, Va., beyond the mountains, were not indifferent to the importance of schooling their own children, and went about the work in the rough-and-ready way only possible to their provincial life. Each of the fortified villages, which were the only places of safety from the depredations of the savages, set up its school. One was taught by a woman, the humble pioneer of the mighty army of Western schoolmistresses who now teach, vote, hold office, and generally dominate the rising generation from the Alleghanies to the Pacific shore. More than one of these brave pioneer schoolmasters met his death about his work; all taught amid an environment of difficulty and peril that make the career of each a special romance. They took their meager pay in tobacco and the produce of the country. Several of them afterwards figured in the pulpit, on the judicial bench, and in the governor's chair. They surveyed the land, like young Washington, fought wild cats and wilder Indians, and became the "men of

all work" in the new settlement. All these early schools were private, for the original Kentuckian was a man who "had no use" for a priest or a church that proposed to make him a docile disciple of any overbearing ecclesiasticism or stringent creed.

In 1780 came the first experiment in Kentucky of the establishment of a school subsidized by the State. Col. John Todd, afterwards a victim of the chronic malady of an Indian massacre, appears as the only delegate of the Kentucky representation in the Virginia legislature who cared to moot the question of education. He prevailed on this body to make a grant of 20,000 acres of land, confiscated from British subjects in Kentucky, for the establishment of a school of the higher order. In 1783 the seminary that was afterwards developed into Transylvania University was organized with an imposing array of home celebrities as trustees, and with strict laws for the examination of its teachers and students, all of whom were exempt from military duty. The charter was premised with a stately preamble: "It is to the interest of the Commonwealth always to encourage and promote every design which may tend to the improvement of the mind and the diffusion of useful knowledge, even among the most remote citizens, whose situation in a barbarous neighborhood and a savage intercourse might otherwise render them unfriendly to science."

In November, 1783, the first meeting of this board of trustees, which, according to the local historian, comprised an eminent roll of the foremost men of all the professions in the colony, met in the county of Kentucky, near Danville, filled the time with "high debate," resolved heroically, and adjourned with a solemn call to the people of the district to furnish pecuniary aid to the new institution. The fact that "it was found impossible to do so" is one of the side lights, even at the beginning, cast on the educational record of the State. Why this eminent body of the fathers of the section which was alone to be benefited by it did not put their hands in their pockets, but left their enterprise to drag out a stinted existence for six years, until 1789, when its first spasm of genuine life seems to have been experienced at Lexington, is not so easy to be understood. The first donation to the school came from distant Virginia, consisting of a small library and some philosophical apparatus. There was yet no newspaper in the colony and "only a few of the wealthy families from Virginia had books, and they of an inferior class." The little school, under Master John Mitchell, with a salary of $400 a year, began its humble life under the shadows and almost stunned by the fast and furious din of the local political wrangle which even then dominated the "still small voice" of wisdom, pleading with the public men of Kentucky for justice to the children. At Lexington, again by a special act of the legislature of Virginia, the seminary found a temporary home in a house on a vacant place in a government lot, until a party of gentlemen raised the funds to build a two-story house and to give its present home to Transylvania in 1793, ten years after the first movement for its existence.

Meanwhile private schools of various grades were springing up in different portions of the Territory, academies were chartered by the Virginia legislature, and primary schools generally established by neighborhood groups of families, instruction in the latter being limited to the elements. In 1794 the Methodist Church began its illustrious campaign for denominational education in the West, which, in one hundred years, has sown the seeds of culture through the highways and byways of the thirty Commonwealths stretching beyond the Alleghanies, to-day one of the most potent agencies for the general uplifting of the people. It began by the establishment of Bethel Academy, in Jessamine County, on a high bluff above the Kentucky River. In 1795 the legislature of Kentucky, then a State of the Union, incorporated its first school in the Kentucky Academy. This was a Presbyterian school, started with a remarkable subscription paper containing the names of George Washington and John Adams for $100 each, and Aaron Burr for $50. First located near Lexington, it was endowed with 6,000 acres of land by the State. In 1798 the Kentucky Academy was united with the Transylvania Seminary, forming the Transylvania University.

The two constitutions of Kentucky adopted in the first eight years of its existence as a State were silent on the topic of education, as were the messages of the early

governors; but in 1807 a plea for a more extended scheme of superior instruction was made by one governor, and one candidate for the office, who failed of his election in 1808, though standing on a platform with an educational plank. Not till 1816 did Governor Slaughter take the field in a strong plea for a more generous provision for the people by schools, especially free to "the children of the poor." In 1817 he returned to the subject in an extended passage in his message, which would make an excellent "fly leaf" for distribution among "all orders and conditions of men" anywhere in behalf of universal education. No Southern State is richer in an admirable literature of this sort than Kentucky.

But it was not so much an insensibility to education as a source of personal power and public prosperity as an uncertainty about the way of applying it in the building of an American State that made the record of Kentucky in behalf of the schooling of the masses so barren during the first thirty years of her life as a Commonwealth It is true there were many disturbing causes in these years which largely explain this neglect. We have already referred to the characteristic feature in the early life of this State, that before its admission to the Union it had been involved in a long and vexatious family difference with its mother beyond the mountains, while, by a prodigal outlay of toil and sacrifice, it had done a great service to the new Republic. This peculiar training of the leading people who came to the front in State affairs gave to Kentucky at once a prominence in national affairs unprecedented in so young a Commonwealth. The passage of the extreme State rights resolutions in 1798 had directed the attention of the whole country westward. This interest was kept alive by rumors of disunion connected with the great Southwest, aggravated by the perpetual and bloody Indian wars, and culminated in the war with Great Britain in 1812–1814, which spent its fury in the valley of the Mississippi, and in which Kentucky and Tennessee carried off the honors of the land service. A series of able political leaders from these two States, representatives of Southern ideas in the new Southwest, made the Congress of the United States the central field of activity for the aspiring young men of the section. The masses of the people were perpetually excited by calls to arms and by the hardly less fierce struggles of political life. All these things, in addition to the ordinary perils of pioneer life, were doubtless a valid reason for the long neglect to make provision for the schooling of the people.

But, in addition to this, perhaps more responsible than all these conditions for what came to pass was the fact that it became more evident as the years went on that Kentucky was to become one of the most conservative and able representatives in the Union of the peculiar ideal of social life produced by the institution of slavery. The failure of the early attempts to abolish the institution in Kentucky set in motion a steady exodus of the class of young men from the State into the opening Northwest whose presence at home would have told powerfully in the impending national conflict. Hence it came about that, although originally largely representing the progressive element in Virginia, the successful public men of Kentucky, and behind them the most influential element of the population, were committed at an early date to the belief that the chief educational interest of their Commonwealth was the training of a superior class for eminence in the learned professions, especially the Christian ministry, law, and politics.

It was under this influence that the legislature of Kentucky as early as 1798 entered upon the policy of subsidizing a system of county academies and a State university, with absolute neglect of the elementary education. Even in this there was an apparent advance on the line of the Virginia scheme of Thomas Jefferson, which provided that each county or district should have a "college" tributary to the State university, to which a select few should be admitted as free State pupils from the elementary schools, and these seminaries were to be generously subsidized by the State. It has been already shown how Virginia rejected this, with the common school department of the system proposed by her great statesman, and flung but a poor pittance to the masses for the support of what came to be justly regarded as "a

pauper school." But the Kentucky legislature took up the secondary member of the triple-headed scheme of Jefferson, and for the first thirty years in the life of the State wrought at its establishment with remarkable patience and for the time a reasonable liberality.

A bonus of 6,000 acres of land was given to every county in the State for the support of a county academy, still a "college" in the popular educational vocabulary of the section, and a large number of these schools were founded. At the same time Transylvania University at Lexington was, in theory, raised to the position of a State institution, although for an entire generation the State had given it altogether but $20,000. It was on these county academies that the first generations of the respectable Kentucky people depended largely for the schooling of their boys, the girls still being left on the back seat, with small care for their school instruction.

But here was again demonstrated the fallacy of the idea that the secondary education can safely be made the fulcrum over which the lever of State education shall pry. It is possible, as European experience has shown, that a national government can support a magnificent system of university education, with a limited annex for the secondary studies, as long as the demand for the educated class is not too great and the admission to the upper story of life is guarded by strong barriers of sect, caste, and political privilege. But the absolute breakdown of the system of endowed secondary schools in England, which has forced from the greatest educators of the Empire the confession that in this department of schooling their country is behind all the leading European nations, was a warning that might well have been taken by some of our American States had it not come so late; for the imperative condition of success in any great scheme of American public secondary education is found in the establishment of a reliable and extended system of elementary schools, without which the most pretentious academy or college inevitably sinks in rank, the energy of its teachers being absorbed in setting green and ignorant youths on their feet in the elements of knowledge.

This was the capital failure in the scheme of the Kentucky legislature and in more than one of the Southern and original Central States. Below the county academy, aspiring to handle the entire circle of the liberal education, was nothing but a huddle of elementary schools, extemporized in neighborhoods or supported by churches, generally inefficient for primary use and quite useless to graduate a class of pupils fit for a proper secondary schooling.

In giving these generous subsidies, the legislature seems to have reserved no right of the State, either over the control of the funds or the direction of the instruction. These bountiful land grants were carelessly thrown into the hands of irresponsible boards of trustees, often self-perpetuating. The result was inevitable. A generation of such experimenting, whatever might have been the temporary result on the education of the young men who attended the schools, left the great majority of these academies financially bankrupt, their generous endowment parted with "for a song," the avails of the sale absorbed in the erection of the first building, often with the income and principal the prey of incompetents or dishonest speculators. By 1820 the academic side of the scheme came to naught.

The State University only held on a decade longer. From the first the Transylvania Seminary and University seemed to stand to the different religious bodies of the State as a declaration of war. The appearance of every new faculty was the signal for a fresh outbreak. The conflict came to a head when Dr. Horace Holley, the great liberal preacher of Boston, Mass., was brought to Kentucky, with the most exaggerated expectations of his friends, as president. Of the warfare provoked by his administration, the retirement of Dr. Holley, and his decease shortly afterwards it is not necessary to speak. Enough to say that while Transylvania remained a State institution under the nominal control of the legislature it received within its walls a large number of students afterwards distinguished in local and national affairs, among them the president of the Southern Confederacy, Jefferson Davis. But the

conflict ended with a victory for the opponents of State direction of the higher education, who captured the institution, which, after a protracted struggle of more than half a century, is now held as a flourishing collegiate school of the Christian denomination, probably a better institution of learning than ever before. The final establishment of a State university wholly under the control of the Commonwealth has been the work of the past fifteen years.

Meanwhile the power of the different religious bodies, somewhat in abeyance during the first generation in the life of the State, was now rapidly coming to the front, displayed in the erection of a number of denominational colleges and many academies, which still remain the almost exclusive agencies for the secondary and higher education outside a few cities. Here was developed an influence even more unfriendly to the establishment of a thorough system of common schooling than under the former experiment. The first generation of the leaders of Kentucky were not especially enamored of ecclesiastical pretension in any denomination, and in their scheme of subsidizing county academies and the university appeared to have shared the broad ideas of Jefferson. But with the downfall of this experiment came in as a practical necessity the activity of the only set of people who for the coming years appear to have cherished a vital influence in education, the leading clergy of the different religious sects. Under their influence was built up a great number of schools of the average, occasionally of superior, merit, which in many of the considerable towns of the State still appear to the leading class sufficient for all educational necessities, leaving the common school for the "common people." Still it must be admitted that the movement from 1820 to 1850 in behalf of the common school was largely led by influential clergymen, Peers, Bullock, Bishop Smith, and Dr. Breckinridge being all eminent leaders in the church life of the State.

By 1821 the failure of the system of subsidized academies had been so fully demonstrated that the attention of the friends of universal education was concentrated on the support of a system of elementary schooling for the masses. An act was passed, evidently suggested by the policy of Virginia, setting apart one-half of the net profits of the Bank of the Commonwealth as a literary fund to be distributed to the people for a general system of education, and the sum of $60,000 was at once found available. Then opposition came to the front. For thirty years longer the favorite policy appeared to be, after an act of apparently creditable generosity for building up a school system, to reappropriate funds thus established and apply them to the ordinary expenses of the State. The history of the common schools in Kentucky from that early period to the present time is one of the most instructive records in the annals of the Republic of a persistent and patient campaign of education, which, like

> Freedom's battle, once begun,
> * * * * * * *
> Though baffled oft, is ever won.

Our present limits will compel us to halt on the eve of the final struggle between the opposing forces, which extended over the entire decade from 1840 to 1850, and was closed by the planting in the revised constitution of the State a provision for the preservation of the State school fund derived from the surplus revenue of the United States and its defense against all comers.

The movement for the inauguration of a scheme of public elementary education for the masses of the white people was apparently successful in 1821 by the establishment of a literary fund. But the triumph was short-lived. Within five years the legislative majority had captured and diverted the entire sum to other uses, and nothing came of the effort. A sharp contest over the appropriation of the revenues of the branch State bank to Transylvania and Central colleges seemed at first to have established a more liberal policy for these schools. At the same time Kentucky, in connection with several of the States, under the lead of Maryland, was moved, both in its legislative bodies and by its governor, to a remonstrance against the restriction of the educational grants of the national land to the new States of

the Union. An elaborate report was made, strong resolutions were passed, and several governors protested vigorously against the great injustice of this policy, which left Kentucky and Tennessee especially "out in the cold" in this distribution of school lands. Nothing came of the movement, since, with the exception of the first two new Southern States, all the remaining new Commonwealths shared in this gift, and the old thirteen, for reasons of their own, seemed little interested in claiming their rights. And it could be said with some share of justice that inasmuch as Virginia had abandoned her own claim upon the whole territory of Kentucky and North Carolina upon Tennessee, each of these States had within its own borders, like Texas at a later period, a sufficiency of land for all educational uses. Had the original appropriation of their legislatures for education, reenforced by subsequent direct gifts from Congress, been carefully guarded and wisely used, there would have been little cause for such complaint. But the painful fact was that for a variety of reasons neither of these States in the first half century of its life was sufficiently in earnest concerning matters of universal education to insist on any strong control over or a wise and economical use of its valuable patrimony.

The same influence that created the literary fund and urged the legislative demonstrations concerning the distribution of Government lands went further and caused the appointment of four commissioners, of which Mr. William T. Barry was chairman, to collect information and devise a system of schools proper for the State. The attempt of this committee to collect information from the home schools was a failure, their elaborate inquiries generally bringing no response. The result was a striking revelation of popular indifference to the whole matter. But earnest and able responses were secured from eminent statesmen of all sections, including Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, John Adams, and Robert Y. Hayne. The report of this committee is pronounced to-day by the leading educators of Kentucky one of the most important deliverances ever made in the State on the schooling of the whole people. But it fell dead on the legislature, notwithstanding the efforts of Governor Desha to persuade the fathers of the State to try the grand experiment. It did, however, bring out in full force the hostility of the average popular politician of that day to anything that would so surely, in his estimation, "disturb the political equilibrium" as a general advance in popular intelligence. For eight years longer this condition of affairs continued, as usual the most intelligent people of the State endeavoring, by the building up of private, neighborhood, and denominational schools of every grade and the growing habit of sending young men and women away from home for education, to supply their own imperious need for the schooling of their own households.

In 1828–29 the new charter of the city of Louisville provided for the establishment of free schools, and a beginning was made of the present flourishing common school system of that city by the enrollment of some 300 pupils, instructed on the Lancasterian monitorial plan by two teachers at an expense of $1,000 annually. But the rising spirit of educational reform was not daunted by the failure of the movement of 1822. Some of the presidents of the local colleges came forward as advocates of universal education, meetings were held, information circulated, and public opinion again aroused. Meanwhile the buildings of the State Transylvania University were destroyed by fire, and the effort to interest the legislature in the institution was only partially successful. The college struggled on against a hopeless public indifference a few years longer, and finally passed into the hands of the religious denomination which for the past half century and more has cared for its wants and now has made it one of the most prosperous of the collegiate foundations of the Commonwealth.

The historians of this period point to Rev. Benjamin O. Peers as the foremost of the educational leaders developed by the emergency now upon the State. According to one of them, "A close examination into the educational condition of Kentucky made by friendly eyes showed that in the 1,100 or 1,200 primary schools in the State in 1830 there were 31,834 children in school and 139,142 out of school. One large

county in the State, whose children numbered 893, did not have a school in its limits or a single child at school. Large tiers of counties had their children at school in proportions ranging from 10 to 300; from 10 to 180; from 10 to 140; from 10 to 130. * * * Even the most favored county in the State in 1830 had its children at school in proportion of 10 to 23. The number of people in New York who could then read and write, as compared with the whole population, was 1 to 3; while in Kentucky it was 1 to 21. Our State was behind three-fourths of the monarchical countries of Europe in the matter of education. Only Portugal, Russia, Poland, and France were behind us. The masses of our people as yet had manifested no abiding interest in the educational legislation of the State. Members of the legislature, when reproached for the slowness of their movements upon this great subject, always responded that their constituents took no interest whatever in the matter."

It is not strange that in such a juncture two pronounced results were sure to occur. The growing common school public of the Commonwealth would be stung to an extra effort, both in the direction of a popular revival and action upon the legislature. But no action of the law-making power could be expected at once to meet an effectual response from a people still content with its position as the extreme rear guard of the educational army. The legislature again responded to the plea of the influential and devoted school men of the State, and Rev. Mr. Peers was requested to make a report of his investigations among the common schools of New England and New York concerning matters pertaining to popular instruction. In 1830 he prepared another of those able and comprehensive documents which make the State as celebrated for its rich educational literature as for its long and almost inconceivable popular insensibility to the cause of general education. Mr. Peers's report was not favorable to the attempt to establish a large school fund as a basis for a common school system, for the perversion of the Connecticut fund and the inefficiency of that of New York, these States having the only considerable school funds in the Union, seemed to him of unfavorable import. He saw clearly that an unmistakable popular interest is the only firm basis of a movement to educate the whole people. He was also attracted by the success of Massachusetts in supporting her common schools by local taxation and supervision and recommended that as the most feasible plan.

But he made the mistake, so common in all the States outside of New England, in supposing that a "district" carved out of a county or a "township," which is only a local name, can have the qualification for local self-government of a New England "town." Each of these towns was a genuine local republic—from its earliest history intensely local and insulated in its public interests, endowed with many of the powers and obligations of an American State. Many of them, for a century or more, had been the most effective training schools in Christendom for the ability and disposition to deal with a matter at once so personal and general as public education. Mr. Peers suggested the division of the counties of Kentucky, a new State not yet half a century old, into artificial districts, with some of the most important powers and obligations of a New England town for this special use.

On the impulse of this enthusiastic report the legislature acted in the law of 1830, which was founded on the Massachusetts system, even then unsatisfactory to the educational reformers of that State. The county courts were instructed to district the State and their people were empowered to establish a system of public instruction by local taxation. It was urged, in objection to the bill, that some twenty counties were so sparsely populated that "the heads of families did not average one to the square mile, the districts would be 10 miles square, and the children would require a guard to keep off the bears and wolves." It was also urged that people with no property were given the power to tax those who had. These ominous predictions unfortunately proved to be nearer the facts of the case than the hopes of the author of the law. The statute only landed another literary corpse in the educational cemetery of the State. Not a school district was organized under its

provisions. The friends of the measure, with a chivalry worthy of that much-abused name, moved to wake up the popular mind and heart for eight years longer, until a more practical effort could be attempted.

The good providence which at last committed the State to the idea of public education was the distribution of the surplus revenue by the United States Government in 1836. Thus, after a fashion, was made a late atonement for the manifest injustice of the national policy in the omission of the old Atlantic States in its general distribution of school lands. The State of Kentucky received the sum of $1,433,757.40. The application of this sum being left to the decision of each State, the friends of popular education at once moved for the establishment of a common-school fund, and after the usual legislative wrangle, which raged around every measure for the educational advancement of the people, secured an appropriation of $850,000 as a perpetual fund dedicated "to founding and sustaining a general system of public instruction."

In 1838 this act was followed by the passage of another law "to establish a system of common schools in Kentucky." The interest of the school fund, $850,000, was set apart for its aid, a school system was put on paper, and, in 1838, Rev. Joseph J. Bullock was appointed the first superintendent of public instruction. The new law was framed on the basis of the New York law, as that of 1830 had been on the system of Massachusetts. It did not propose a free, but a common school, very moderately subsidized by the interest of the State fund, the bonus of the Commonwealth to be given on condition that the people of a district should build a schoolhouse and lay a tax to support a school. In connection with the passage of the law a "campaign of education" was again attempted in the State, led by the first State superintendent of education. In this campaign, by popular addresses and the press, the people were informed and stimulated to effectual action. In 1840 a few districts in the State had been induced to act. A school tax of 10 to 30 cents on the $100 was voted in several counties. The town of Versailles is said to have organized the first common school of the State under the act, and the county of Wayne adopted the new system entire. Bishop Smith, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, was appointed third superintendent of schools, and all things seemed ready for the final triumph of the good cause.

Here, at the supreme crisis of popular education in Kentucky, we must leave the record of its efforts for schools. For fifty years had the common school public of the State labored, sometimes, perhaps, with "a faith not according to knowledge," but with a persistence and expenditure of personal and moral power that reflects imperishable honor on their State, in behalf of the children against a combination of hostile influences sufficient to dampen the courage and exhaust the patience of men less in earnest and enthusiastic than themselves. But now, apparently on the threshold of success, it became apparent to this patriotic "army of the Lord" that it had only come up to the day of decision to face a violent conflict such as had hitherto not been encountered. All the forces of opposition and reaction made haste to combine for the destruction of the new system. This decisive contest was waged with varying fortunes through the coming ten years, from 1840 to 1850. At last the common people of Kentucky were aroused to the true interest of the State, and saw clearly the intention of the opponents of popular education. Happily for the Commonwealth, the great occasion found its great leader in Dr. Robert Breckinridge, who not only saved the common school to Kentucky, but fifteen years later again came up to the salvation of the Union, fighting the good fight at the State and national end of the great issue. The detailed account of this magnificent defense of the people's school against all its foes, and the final victory of popular education in Kentucky, may well introduce the history of education in that Commonwealth during the second half century of its life, from 1840 to 1890.

ARKANSAS.

The two remaining Southwestern Commonwealths, whose statehood comes within the range of the period included in this essay, are Arkansas and Texas. The former was admitted to the Union in 1836, with an area of 53,830 square miles and a population of 52,000, the third State carved out of the vast "Louisiana purchase." Texas, itself an empire in its immense area of 265,780 square miles, more than ten times the size of New York, with a population of 212,500, was admitted, then an independent Republic, into the Union in 1845, with the proviso that it might be afterwards divided into five States in all, an expedient to neutralize the possibility of a continuous accession of free States out of the "Louisiana district" of the Northwest. Neither Arkansas nor Texas was in any considerable state of advancement in the foundation of educational institutions by 1840. In each the establishment of the State university was postponed to a period subsequent to the civil war.

In 1827 the Territory of Arkansas received the usual gift of one township of land for a university; and in 1833, on receiving a valuable donation of school lands, the legislature devised a plan for leasing all the school landed property of the State. In 1838 the price of such lands was fixed, first at $10, afterwards at $6 per acre. But in 1844 the State turned the 72 sections of the university estate into the common fund for the support of schools, and in 1855 reduced the price to $4 an acre. Whatever of educational value was established previous to this time was in the line of the private, family, and church substitutes for a system of public instruction, common to the early life of all the Southern and several of the Northern States.

In 1836 an article was placed in the first constitution of Arkansas which was good enough in itself to excite a great hope, but was destined to bide its time for a long probation before its prophecy became a recognized condition of society, on the bitter side of the Red Sea of reconstruction through which eleven of the fifteen Southern Commonwealths marched to a final destiny far more glorious than the dreams of their enthusiastic leaders of the earlier days.

The constitutional provision of 1836 reads as follows:

ARTICLE VII. Knowledge and learning, generally diffused through a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, and diffusing the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the State being highly conducive to this end, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to provide by law for the improvement of such lands as are or may be hereafter granted by the United States to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such lands, or from any other source, to the accomplishment of the object for which they are or may be intended. The general assembly shall, from time to time, pass such laws as shall be calculated to encourage intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvements, by allowing rewards and immunities for the promotion and improvement of arts, science, commerce, manufactures, and natural history, and countenance and encourage the principles of humanity, industry, and morality.

TEXAS.

The portion of the Republic of Mexico which, under the name of Texas, had for one hundred and fifty years been a sort of "no man's land" of border contention, in 1835 revolted from this dominion, and under the leadership of a group of men of extraordinary ability, representing every section of the United States, achieved its independence. After a brief period of existence as the "Republic of Texas," it was admitted to the Union in 1845.

In nothing did the fathers of Texas vindicate their claim to statesmanship so conclusively as in their original provision for the education of the people. While yet a Republic, in 1839, the legislature granted 3 leagues of land in each county for a grammar school or academy, increased in 1840 to 4 leagues. The chief justice and two associate justices were made a school board for each county to protect the lands and make arrangements for the appropriation of the funds. In the more progressive

counties schools, generally of the academic sort, were set up and the neighborhood system, resembling the old Southern type, inaugurated. The constitution of 1836 was silent on the subject of education; but in 1839 three leagues of land were set apart for two colleges, and every tenth section of the vast territory granted to railroads and a navigation company was added to the generous school domain. Out of these and subsequent donations, all of which by the terms of admission to the Union were reserved to the State, Texas found itself in 1865 possessed of a school fund in public lands equal to that of half a dozen of the most favored Commonwealths of the Northwest.

But the slow growth of the State before the war, its interminable extent of territory, and the system of disposing of school lands, which often seems to have been designed rather to invite population than to school the children, greatly delayed the growth of the public school until the last fifteen years. Since that period the increase has been so rapid that in 1890 there were 150 graded free public schools in as many cities, villages, and counties, a number probably as large as, at that date, in all the old Atlantic Southern States. Within the past fifteen years the State has established a university for academic and one for industrial education, both well housed, well supported, and embarked on a fair career of progress, with a State normal school, a similar arrangement for colored youth, and a large supply of private academies.

But this history of progress belongs to that period in which the details of the great movement of the half century of educational revival in the United States—1840–1890—should be written. It remains only to reproduce here, for convenient reference, the elaborate provisions for general and university education at different times placed in the constitution of Texas. These read as follows:

[Constitution of 1845.]

ARTICLE X.

SECTION 1. A general diffusion of knowledge being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislature of the State to make suitable provisions for the support and maintenance of public schools.

SEC. 2. The legislature shall, as early as practicable, establish free schools throughout the State, and shall furnish means for their support by taxation on property. And it shall be the duty of the legislature to set apart not less than one-tenth of the annual revenue of the State derivable from taxation as a perpetual fund, which fund shall be appropriated to the support of free public schools, and no law shall ever be made diverting said fund to any other use; and until such times as the legislature shall provide for the establishment of such schools in the several districts of the State the fund thus created shall remain as a charge against the State, passed to the credit of the free common school fund.

SEC. 3. All public lands which have been heretofore or which may hereafter be granted for public schools to the various counties or other political divisions in this State shall not be alienated in fee nor disposed of otherwise than by lease for a term not exceeding twenty years, in such manner as the legislature may direct.

SEC. 4. The several counties in this State which have not received their quantum of lands for the purposes of education shall be entitled to the same quantity heretofore appropriated by the Congress of the Republic of Texas to other counties.

[Constitution of 1866.]

ARTICLE X.

SECTION 1. A general diffusion of knowledge being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislature of this State to make suitable provisions for the support and maintenance of public schools.

SEC. 2. The legislature shall, as early as practicable, establish a system of free schools throughout the State; and, as a basis for the endowment and support of said system, all the funds, lands, or other property heretofore set apart and appropriated, or that hereafter may be set apart and appropriated, for the support and maintenance of public schools shall constitute the public school fund; and said fund, and the income derived therefrom, shall be a perpetual fund exclusively for the

education of all the white scholastic inhabitants of this State, and no law shall ever be made appropriating said fund to any other use or purpose whatever. And until such time as the legislature shall provide for the establishment of such system of public schools in the State the fund thus created and the income derived therefrom shall remain as a charge against the State, and be passed to the credit of the free common school fund.

SEC. 3. And all the alternate sections of land reserved by the State out of grants heretofore made, or that may hereafter be made, to railroad companies or other corporations, of any nature whatever, for internal improvements or for the development of the wealth and resources of the State shall be set apart as a part of the perpetual school fund of the State: *Provided*, That if at any time hereafter any part of the public domain of this State shall be sold, and by virtue of said sale the jurisdiction over said land shall be vested in the United States Government, in such event one-half of the proceeds derived from said sale shall become a part of the perpetual school fund of the State, and the legislature shall hereafter appropriate one-half of the proceeds resulting from all sales of the public lands to the perpetual public school fund.

SEC. 4. The legislature shall provide from time to time for the sale of lands belonging to the perpetual public school fund, upon such time and terms as it may deem expedient: *Provided*, That in cases of sale the preference shall be given to actual settlers: *And provided further*, That the legislature shall have no power to grant relief to purchasers by granting further time for payment, but shall in all cases provide for the forfeiture of the land to the State for the benefit of a perpetual public school fund, and that all interest accruing upon such sales shall be a part of the income belonging to the school fund, and subject to an appropriation annually for educational purposes.

SEC. 5. The legislature shall have no power to appropriate, or loan, or invest, except as follows, any part of the principal sum of the perpetual public school fund for any purpose whatever; and it shall be the duty of the legislature to appropriate annually the income which may be derived from said fund for educational purposes, under such system as it may adopt; and it shall, from time to time, cause the principal sum now on hand and arising from sales of land, or from any other source, to be invested in the bonds of the United States of America, or the bonds of the State of Texas, or such bonds as the State may guarantee.

SEC. 6. All public lands which may have been heretofore, or may be hereafter, granted for public schools to the various counties or other political divisions in this State shall be under the control of the legislature, and may be sold on such terms and under such regulations as the legislature may by law prescribe, and the proceeds of the sale of such lands shall be added to the perpetual public school fund of the State; but each county shall receive the full benefit of the interest arising from the proceeds of the sale of the lands granted to them respectively: *Provided*, That the lands already patented to the counties shall not be sold without the consent of such county or counties to which the lands may belong.

SEC. 7. The legislature may provide for the levying of a tax for educational purposes: *Provided*, The taxes levied shall be distributed from year to year as the same may be collected: *And provided*, That all the sums arising from said tax which may be collected from Africans, or persons of African descent, shall be exclusively appropriated for the maintenance of a system of public schools for Africans and their children; and it shall be the duty of the legislature to encourage schools among these people.

SEC. 8. The moneys and lands heretofore granted to, or which may hereafter be granted for, the endowment and support of one or more universities shall constitute a special fund for the maintenance of said universities, and until the university or universities are located and commenced the principal and the interest arising from the principal's investment shall be invested in like manner and under the same restrictions as provided for the investment and control of the perpetual public school fund in sections 4 and 5 in this article of the constitution; and the legislature shall have no power to appropriate the university fund for any other purpose than that of the maintenance of said universities, and the legislature shall, at an early day, make such provisions, by law, as will organize and put into operation the university.

SEC. 9. The 400,000 acres of land that have been surveyed and set apart, under the provisions of a law approved August 30, A. D. 1856, for the benefit of a lunatic asylum, a deaf and dumb asylum, a blind asylum, an orphan asylum, shall constitute a fund for the support of such institutions, one-fourth part for each, and the said fund shall never be diverted for any other purpose. The said lands may be sold and the fund invested under the same rules and regulations as provided for the lands belonging to the school fund. The income of said fund only shall be applied to the support of such institutions, and until so applied shall be invested in the same manner as the principal.

SEC. 10. The governor, by and with the advice and consent of two-thirds of the senate, shall appoint an officer, to be styled the superintendent of public instruction.

His term of office shall be four years, and his annual salary shall not be less than $2,000, payable at stated times; and the governor, comptroller, and superintendent of public education shall constitute a board to be styled a board of education, and shall have the general management and control of the perpetual school fund and common schools, under such regulations as the legislature may hereafter prescribe.

SEC. 11. The several counties in this State which have not received their quantum of the lands for the purposes of education shall be entitled to the same quantity heretofore appropriated by the Congress of the Republic of Texas and the State to other counties; and the counties which have not had the lands to which they were entitled for educational purposes located shall have the right to contract for the location, surveying, and procuring the patents for said lands, and of paying for the same with any portion of said lands so patented, not to exceed one-fourth of the whole amount to be so located, surveyed, and patented, to be divided according to quality, allowing to each part a fair proportion of land, water, and timber.

In some respects the details of the constitutional provisions for education in Texas have been changed, due information concerning which will be given hereafter.

IOWA.

Turning to the new Northwest beyond the Mississippi which was included in the Louisiana purchase, we find the State of Iowa, organized as a Territory in 1838, admitted to the Union in 1846, with an area of 55,000 square miles and a population of 82,000. Even before its existence as an independent Territory the city of Dubuque built the first public schoolhouse in 1833. One of the first acts of the Territorial legislature, in 1839, was to pass a law providing for the establishment of "a common school or schools in each county for all white children and youth from 5 to 21, school districts to be governed each by three trustees." In 1840 a more comprehensive law was passed. In 1841, five years before the admission of Iowa to the Union, a State superintendency of schools was established, to be suspended the following year and revived in the first general plan for common school education, which followed immediately on the admission of the State to the Union in 1846.

The first constitutional provision of the new State of Iowa, made in 1846, reads as follows:

ARTICLE IX.

SECTION 1. The general assembly shall provide for the election by the people of a superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for three years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law, and who shall receive such compensation as the general assembly may direct.

SEC. 2. The general assembly shall encourage by all suitable means the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral, and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this State for the support of schools which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, and the 500,000 acres of land granted to the new States, under an act of Congress distributing the proceeds of the public lands among the several States of the Union, approved A. D. 1841, and all estates of deceased persons who may have died without leaving a will or heir, and also such per cent as may be granted by Congress on the sale of lands in this State, shall be and remain a perpetual fund the interest of which, together with all the rents of the unsold lands and such other means as the assembly may provide, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools throughout the State.

SEC. 3. The general assembly shall provide for a system of common schools by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each school district at least three months in every year; and any school district neglecting to keep up and support such a school may be deprived of its proportion of the interest of the public fund during such neglect.

SEC. 4. The money which shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty and the clear proceeds of all fines collected in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws shall be exclusively applied, in the several counties in which such money is paid or fine collected, among the several school districts of said counties, in proportion to the number of inhabitants in such districts, to the support of common schools, or to the establishment of libraries, as the general assembly shall, from time to time, provide by law.

SEC. 5. The general assembly shall take measures for the protection, improvement, or other disposition of such lands as have been or may hereafter be reserved or

granted by the United States, or any person or persons, to this State for the use of a university, and the funds accruing from the rents or sale of such lands, or from any other source, for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund the interest of which shall be applied to the support of said university, with such branches as the public convenience may hereafter demand for the promotion of literature, the arts, and sciences, as may be authorized by the terms of such grant. And it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said university.

MISSOURI.

In 1820 the Territory of Missouri, organized in 1804 as a part of the vast upper "District of Louisiana," was admitted to the Union—the result of the first grand conflict and compromise of the two sections of the Republic on the contested question of negro slavery. The prohibition against the "peculiar institution" in the ordinance of 1787 for the Northwest Territory did not affect the region beyond the Mississippi River. This had been secured to the slavery propaganda by the original contents of the agreement by which the Republic came in possession of the Louisiana purchase. The original French occupants who were found in St. Louis in 1804 were gradually outnumbered by the incoming of immigrants from all the States. In 1810 there were 10,000 people in Missouri, all concentrated in a strip of territory upon the Mississippi River 15 to 20 miles wide. In 1808 two-thirds the area of the State was in possession of the Indian tribes, but by 1815 all Indian titles were canceled. In 1811 came the great earthquake which upheaved a region 300 square miles in extent, from the Ohio to the St. Francis River. In 1812 the population had increased to 12,000, scattered through five counties, each of the size of an ordinary New England State, and in 1820 there were 66,000 people in fifteen counties. In 1804 St. Louis was a French village of 180 log houses, the logs being set upright, surrounded by gardens. In 1809 it was incorporated as a town, and in 1820 "had streets of brick houses like Philadelphia," 232 buildings of brick and stone and 419 of wood. In 1808 the second newspaper published west of the Mississippi appeared at St. Louis, the first having been printed in New Orleans in 1794. There were 1,400 people in the city in 1811, briefly described by the epithet of the first judge of a Cincinnati (Ohio) court as "hotorogenous." There were 12 stores and an annual trade of $250,000, largely in "barter."

From four to six months was the regulation time of a voyage by an ordinary flatboat from St. Louis to New Orleans, although a sailboat could make the passage in thirty days. But in 1817 the first steamboat puffed leisurely up to the wharves of the little metropolis, although that sort of craft had been navigating the Ohio and Mississippi since 1811. By 1819 the whistles of sixty-three steamers were waking the echoes of the boundless wilderness between St. Louis and the Gulf. The Bank of Missouri, established in 1816, had 286 of its 780 shares in the hands of Frenchmen; for many of the original families had prospered greatly in wealth by the rise in value of their estates. The Southern population, originally in a majority among the immigrants to this the northern borderland, flowed into this new province, where "with two days' work a week one could do as much as in a full week down East." There also came a growing contingent from the old States, even New England sending some of her most reliable elements of population to this new land.

The early settlers from the old States found little of any sort of education in this new Territory. At first Missouri was only a portion of the vast "District of Louisiana," under the Territorial law of Indiana. The population at once felt the striving of the American spirit, and petitioned Congress for an independent organization of government and "that funds and lands should be granted for the support of a French and English school in each county, in which also the classics, mathematics, and Constitution of the United States should be taught." Eight of these fifteen petitioners were French. In 1807 the unpopular administration of Governor Wilkinson was succeeded by the appointment of Captain Lewis, one of the partners

in the famous Lewis and Clarke western exploring expedition. In 1812 Congress ordered that "all lands not of private ownership be reserved for school purposes" in a dozen of the larger villages of the new Territory. This grant was confirmed in 1831, with the result that St. Louis ultimately came into possession of a great landed estate, from which an annual income of $50,000 to $60,000 is realized at the present time for common school purposes. For this the city was indebted to Mr. F——, a native of Virginia, who made a horseback journey from St. Louis to Washington to carry the measure through. In 1812 Missouri was granted a full Territorial existence, with a legislature, one house being elected by the people, and a legislative council of nine members, which was appointed by the President of the United States from eighteen chosen by the lower house.

As early as 1794 the Catholic Cathedral of St. Louis boasted the presence of a considerable library and several valuable works of art, although a large proportion of the original French settlers were unable to read. In 1811 there were two schools in the little city, one kept by a young lawyer who afterwards became chief justice of the State, the other by a Frenchman, J. B. Tradeau, who held on for fifty years, from 1774 to 1825. But all these were private institutions. "As yet there was no such thing in the Territory as a public school." In 1811 the Catholic College, now the St. Louis University, was founded in St. Louis. In 1817 the first step was taken toward organization for public school purposes in the city, one member of the board being the rising young politician, Thomas H. Benton. But for twenty-one years longer the effort was directed chiefly to carrying on the almost hopeless suit for the recovering of the vacant lands ceded to the city by Congress. In 1820 the State had received the usual grant of public domain for common schools and a university, with the addition of valuable "saline lands" at a later period. It was 1838, and "after much contention," before the first public school was opened in the city of St. Louis.

The State University was established in a very moderate way at Columbia in 1844. The common school domain consisted of 1,199,137 acres, with 46,000 acres for a university. It was not until 1842 that the first public schoolhouse was erected in St. Louis, at a cost of $10,000. By 1835 the legislature moved for a survey of school lands in each of the counties of the State. But few township schools were established before 1837. In 1843, when the State had a population of 400,000, Dr. William G. Eliot, long known as one of the foremost educational men of Missouri, wrote to a friend in Connecticut that "there was no public school system in St. Louis." There were four public schools for boys and girls, with 500 pupils; their management was almost entirely left to the teachers, although nominally under the charge of a board of directors chosen by the people. The great expectation from the landed property, still in the courts, was a hindrance to the progress of education, an income of $4,000 being all that could be secured, while the present arrangement was utterly inefficient for the public demand. There were 100 children in Catholic and Protestant parochial schools. "There were 80,000 people in St. Louis before there was anything done in behalf of public instruction." Indeed the historian declares: "Up to 1842 Missouri, despite the patriotic injunctions of her citizens to the contrary, had done but little to favor the cause of popular education."

In 1839 Boone County obtained the university at Columbia by the payment of $117,900, and $70,000 was obtained from the sale of seminary lands. In 1840 buildings were erected; but for twenty-five years the legislature gave no support. University lands, then sold "for a song," are now valued at $4,500,000. It was nine years before the university was really on its feet. In 1834-35 an act was passed to regulate the sale of the sixteenth section lands granted for schools. In 1839 a State system of schools was established by a law creating a superintendent, 6 to 18 being the school age, and in 1842 thirteen counties of the State received school money. In 1843 10,000 and in 1844 21,000 pupils were in attendance on the schools. By 1850 the number had risen to 73,000, with a distribution of $27,000.

But the "conclusion of the whole matter" was that up to 1840, twenty years after the organization of the State, with such opportunities as were granted to no Western Commonwealth, Missouri still "lingered, shivering on the brink, and feared to launch away" in the great enterprise of the public schooling of her children. The loud call to the leadership of the new West, through the location of the possible metropolis of the Republic near the junction of her two great rivers, had been thrown away for the poor privilege of adding another to the roll of slave-holding Commonwealths. Outside of St. Louis and a few rising cities and towns the common schools had little success, even till the coming on of the civil war. But no State has more splendidly demonstrated the determination of the American people, through whatever difficulties and delays, to educate the children for American citizenship than Missouri during the past twenty-five years, nobly redeeming the promise of her original constitution of 1820, which leads off in this prophetic strain:

ARTICLE VI.—*Of education.*

SECTION 1. Schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged in this State; and the general assembly shall take measures to preserve from waste or damage such lands as have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States for the use of schools within each township in this State, and shall apply the funds which may arise from such lands in strict conformity to the object of the grant. One school or more shall be established in each township as soon as practicable and necessary, where the poor shall be taught gratis.

SEC. 2. The general assembly shall take measures for the improvement of such lands as have been or may hereafter be granted by the United States to this State for the support of a seminary of learning, and the funds accruing from such lands by rent or lease, or in any other manner, or which may be obtained from any other source for the purposes aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund to support a university for the promotion of literature and of the arts and sciences; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement of such lands, and for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowments of such institution.

THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

It was characteristic of Washington that in his first message as first President of the United States he should invoke the attention of Congress to the importance of the educational question, and in his own guarded way suggest the direct interference of the National Legislature in its favor. The founding and occupation of the city bearing his name furnished an occasion for a more positive and practical presentation of his educational views. He had long pondered the lurking danger of the obstinate differences of nationality, sect, and section to the new Republic, and through the exasperating and discouraging experiences of the war period had learned how easy it might be to destroy a Union not half appreciated by the masses and fought over with bitterness by the leaders of public opinion. His mind dwelt upon the establishment of a national university in the city of Washington where the promising young men of all portions of the country could be educated together into a patriotic pride and affection for their whole country through observation of the operations of the Federal Government that might be a daily instruction in good citizenship and a preparation for a public career. At his death he left what seemed at the time and under the promise of the investment a generous sum in the stock of a projected canal for the establishment of such an institution of the higher learning.

But the time was not ripe for the success of a project so broad and beneficent. Each section of the country had already built up its own school of the superior education. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, The University of Pennsylvania, William and Mary, with other colleges of less note, were buttressed by an environment of academical seminaries, each to a greater or less extent representing one of the great rival ecclesiastical parties of the country. It may not be possible to ascertain what has become of this donation of Washington, or if indeed it ever represented a definite value. The fate of the original plan of a national university at

the National Capital was prophetic of all separate attempts in the same direction. While numerous schools of various grades have boldly assumed the name "national," no institution of learning has yet been established in Washington to whose merits the rapidly increasing fraternity of colleges and universities has done homage as the legitimate head of the American system of universal education.

But could Washington have foreseen the present condition of educational affairs in the great and beautiful city that bears his name, in these closing years of the nineteenth century, even he might have acknowledged that in all essential respects the National Capital is rapidly becoming a national university in a way that no institution of learning, however famous, could be. With its excellent system of common schools, probably in general efficiency not inferior to those of any American city, and in some respects, notably in the education of the colored people, the best in the Union; the Catholic College at Georgetown, with Columbian and Howard universities already established; the group of private denominational and professional schools; the national library, now sure of a permanent home, with the numerous and valuable collections of books in the various Departments of the Government; the gathering of scientific men of national reputation in connection with Governmental operations; the National Museum and Smithsonian Institution; the sessions of Congress and the Supreme Court; the development of music and establishment of one valuable gallery of art; the great variety of associations, clubs, and groups of educational people for mutual improvement; the residence of the official representatives of all the nations of the earth, and the development of the most characteristic type of American society—all these and other agencies working together, with the great plans for at least two new universities rapidly unfolding, make the city of Washington to-day the most important arrangement for that all-round education which will realize the ideal of American citizenship that filled the soul of the Father of his Country.

But this latter day achievement is largely the result of influences that have come to the front since the close of the great civil war, which, among other things, changed Washington from a provincial to a national capital. The District of Columbia was originally composed of two essentially southern colonies on opposite sides of the Potomac River. Georgetown, the oldest of these, was a rural settlement of Maryland people as early as 1751. The legislature condemned 60 acres of land at the falls of the Potomac River, out of which 80 lots were assessed, at a valuation of $280 each, George Beall, the original owner of the territory, protesting to the last against the summary proceeding, but taking two lots by choice, on the principle of "better saving a little than being totally demolished." But having treated itself to this sensation at first, the little town subsided into an educational slumber of sixty years before its people moved in behalf of popular education. In 1799 Georgetown College, the first Catholic college in the original Union, at first only an academical school, was founded by the ecclesiastical authorities of the Church in Maryland, although it was not till 1815 that it was authorized by Congress to confer degrees.

Still this, the original settlement of the District, was in advance of Washington in its appreciation of the need of popular education. In 1810 a hundred substantial citizens of the place formed an association "to secure the advantages of education according to the system devised by Joseph Lancaster," and raised $1,000 as an evidence of their sincerity. They memorialized the corporation for aid, but the first substantial gift was a school lot presented by Leonard Neal, on which a schoolhouse was built and dedicated. The school opened in 1811, under the mastership of Mr. Robert Ould, a teacher sent from England by Mr. Lancaster. This school, which immediately gathered 340 children, was declared by its master "the second rea-Lancasterian school in America."

But a very natural prejudice against coeducation instead of destroying the school was made the occasion for obtaining a gift of $1,000 from the corporation to build an addition to the schoolhouse to accommodate 200 of what were gallantly described by the directors as "the distinguished ornaments of creation." This gift was made to extend over four years; but meanwhile the city government consented to appro-

priate $1,000 annually to the school on condition that all poor children should be educated free and at the close of their schooling be bound out to service. Ample arrangements were devised for supervision and reporting. The organization continued for nine years with fair success.

At this point an application for subsidizing denominational religious schools was made, but after a trifling experiment the city rejected the policy and thereafter went on by the method of supporting a public school through the united contributions of friends, collecting tuition fees, and annual public gifts. For thirty-two years this school upheld the cause of popular education, as was done in the city of New York. In 1842 the city corporation assumed its entire control, and put it under the charge of a board of "guardians." This date brings us to the close of the period included in the present essay, and marks the change in administration from a private society, aided by the municipality, to the entire assumption of public education by the city. It is a pleasing record, such as was furnished by few communities in the Middle or Southern States at a date so early.

But in the neighboring settlement, which afterward became the metropolis of the Republic, the cause of education did not thus prevail. From the first the people's school moved on its laggard and wearisome way, like a vessel beating up the Potomac against a stiff north wind. The District of Columbia, composed of Washington, Alexandria, and Georgetown, was organized in the year 1800, each settlement under its own municipal control. The first charter of Washington in 1802 contained no notice of education. But in 1804, possibly through the influence of the first president of the Washington school board, Thomas Jefferson, a provision was inserted in the revised charter "for the establishment and supervision of schools." An act passed the same year authorized the city "to establish and endow a permanent institution for the education of youth." An elaborate statute, with an eloquent preamble, provided for the election of a board of thirteen trustees—seven to be chosen by the city council from the body of the citizens and six elected by the contributors to the school fund. The sum of $10 contributed entitled the giver to a vote. This board was instructed to receive contributions at home and abroad toward the expense of educating the children of the poor. The avails of certain taxes, including the tax on "slaves and dogs," to the extent of $1,500 a year, were available for this purpose. One hundred and ninety-one persons contributed the sum of $3,782, Thomas Jefferson giving the sum of $200. Jefferson was elected president of the board, with a body of twelve good men as assistants. In accepting the position he writes: "Sincerely believing that knowledge promotes the happiness of man, I shall ever be disposed to contribute my endeavors to its extension."

We seem to recognize the hand of Jefferson in the almost ideal scheme of instruction proposed by this first board of trustees. It provided for the establishment of "an institution in which every species of knowledge essential to the liberal education of youth may ultimately be acquired in three great departments." (1) There should be an elementary school for instruction in the common branches; (2) a college equivalent to a modern high school; (3) a university "in which the highest and most splendid attainments may be acquired." It was believed that while the elementary school would be the special concern of the District, the college and university would commend themselves to the benevolent consideration of liberal-minded people everywhere, and that national aid might be hoped for. But a current of common sense seems to have blown across the magnificent project, for it is suggested that all this must be of gradual achievement and that the incredulous public should not be too severely tried by the expert. A most eloquent plea, setting forth the advantages of education to the metropolis of the Republic, was drawn up and the "new education" stepped forth to fight its way through a long period of indifference and hostility, a battle virtually prolonged for half a century.

And for forty years it was a battle for life. What would have been the result had the friends of education in Washington, like those of Georgetown, courageously

faced the position and established a proper system of schooling for all classes and conditions of white folk, can not be predicted. As it was, the launching of a scheme for the support of a school for the poor, in which the "children of the indigent" alone should receive free education and the "pay department" at best be a sort of uneasy appendage, was sure to array against itself not only the prejudice of an extremely exclusive order of society, but, what was even more obstructive, the scheme was born with the stigma of the "pauper school." It was not till 1848, when the city came to itself and established a system of common schools for white children on the plan of the Northern and Eastern States, that any real success was achieved.

The city first responded to the enthusiastic petition of the thirteen trustees by an offering of $1,500 a year from the avails of certain taxes and fees. Two small schools, one half a mile east of the Capitol, the other the same distance from the White House, were set up. Mr. Bentley was appointed the first teacher at a salary of $500 a year, with the addition of the fees of the tuition pupils, out of which he was to pay the rent of his schoolhouse, hire assistant teachers, and meet all the general expenses of conducting the school. It was soon evident that no school system weighted like this could live, and this experiment came to a speedy collapse The city soon reduced its appropriation to $800 a year, and in 1809 the two were merged into one school. During the first thirteen years the corporation had furnished but $10,000, and the contributions of the citizens, amounting to $4,000, alone held up the scheme. During ten years twenty different teachers had been elected, only to be "starved out" or discouraged by the popular indifference to the obscure institution that was dragging out a feeble existence in the lower regions of the proud little capital on the Potomac. The board of thirteen trustees was a public vagrant, without a home, meeting anywhere and everywhere, half the appointed sessions failing for want of a quorum. Notwithstanding the concealment of the names of the charity scholars, the "pauper" element was an indelible stigma that could not be overcome.

Baffled in their effort to commend the system to the people of the District, the trustees turned to Congress for "aid and comfort," only to meet the same cold reception. From 1812 to 1828 their efforts effected nothing but an indirect appropriation of city fees collected by the United States marshal and of all escheated estates. A lottery was authorized, and by a desperate effort, at large expense and the incurring of a city debt, was made to yield some $40,000, which has increased to a present fund of $60,000. Until 1818 there was an annual report by the management. But after that there seems to have been little inducement to "report progress," and, for twenty-seven years, until 1845, the goings on of the educational department are to be laboriously gathered up from the occasional notices of the press and formal reference in the city documents. In 1820 the schools were declared to be exclusively of the charity order, no pay pupils being received. The whole story of these years is a melancholy record of a board of well-intentioned gentlemen, working "against the grain" of a community that could not be lifted up to the hearty support of a scheme of charity education, virtually confined to the children of the poor. In 1836 a new effort was made to interest Congress by a memorial from the three cities, with the usual result.

It was not till 1840 that the schools found a wise and persistent friend in the person of Mayor Seaton. He startled the good people of Washington by the announcement that only 1,200 of the 5,000 children of school age were attending the public and private schools of the city, leaving 3,800 out of school altogether. This, of course, included only the white children and youths, for all there was of schooling for the free colored folk was by private and personal effort. It is not to be supposed that the white population of Washington was in the desperate state of ignorance indicated by this startling record. But the Washington of that early day was not the charming metropolis of the present. It was a new and disagreeable town, far

away from the great centers of social and cultivated life, where the wealthy and influential people schooled their children elsewhere and the "lower orders" drifted on, as in all communities of similar type. The population of the city must have been far less stable than now, and the contentions of national politics during those exciting years, including the second war with England and the nullification movement of 1832, were doubtless a great hindrance. It was only by degrees that the press of the city came to pay any respect to the schools. In fact, a scheme of "pauper education," altogether including less than 1,000 children, with no fit place of abode, with schoolhouses, books, and apparatus of the lowest order, would hardly attract attention outside its own poor environment.

But the time was favorable to a forward movement. Mayor Seaton had the good sense to understand that only by a challenge of the town to rise up and establish the American system of universal education at public cost could there be a reasonable hope of success. The fact that as soon as this plan of the mayor was plainly stated the city responded, and in 1844–45 put on the ground a system of common schools corresponding to that of the chief Northern States, would seem to prove that it was not due so much to the indifference of the people to education as to the lack of competent leadership that Washington had so long remained in the rear rank of American cities in this respect.

In the city council Mr. J. F. Halliday brought forward a plan for a system of seven public schools, to accommodate 3,000 pupils, and a tax of one-sixth of 1 per cent on all the assessable property of the city. This precipitated a sharp discussion in which the poverty of the present arrangement, where 200 children were placed in surroundings rather indicating "a place of punishment for offenders than a school for instruction," was made evident. John Quincy Adams, Caleb Cushing, Justice Woodbury, and other eminent residents of Washington added their powerful influence The result was the passage of the school law of 1844, by which a board of twelve trustees, three from each of the four wards, was chosen by the city council, and $3,612 was appropriated for erecting schoolhouses and renting rooms. From this date the public schools of Washington had a real existence. In the four years following this action more than $5,000 a year was appropriated. In 1848 a tax of $1 a year was laid on every white male citizen for education, and the board of trustees was assigned a place of meeting in the city hall.

One of the most interesting chapters in the educational history of the national capital is the records of the efforts of the free colored people for the instruction of their children previous to 1860. In the nineteenth volume of Barnard's American Journal of Education will be found an elaborate treatise in which the details of this wonderful story are set forth in a way so complete as to obviate the necessity of their repetition. Of course all this was in the line of private and Sunday-school work, the Sunday school at one time bearing the same relation to the elementary education of these people as at an earlier period in England. But so persistent was this movement and so thoroughly did it impress itself on the mass of superior colored people that it laid the foundation of the remarkable public-school movement in 1862 which has resulted in the development of the most elaborate and successful system of common schools for this people in Washington known in the country.

In the year 1807, two years after the earliest movement for schooling the white people of the city, three men, Bell, Franklin, and Liverpool, established the first school for free negroes in the city of Washington. There were then but 5,000 white people in the city, 1,000 slaves, and 500 free negroes. When we consider the difficulties through which the first public school in Washington for white children struggled year after year through a sickly life with 5,000 people of the "superior race" behind it, we can appreciate the courage of these three men, all mechanics and just emancipated from slavery, in the establishment of their own school, representing but 500 people, with no hope of public aid. Neither of these men could read or write. Bell was the leader in the noble enterprise. His freedom was purchased by

his enslaved wife for $400, earned by market gardening, and he returned the favor by purchasing her freedom out of the first earnings of his free labor. The teacher of the school was a Mr. Lowe, a white man, and it was continued for several years.

About the same time a Mrs. Alethia Tanner, afterwards the housemaid of Thomas Jefferson, began a remarkable career of purchasing, first, her own freedom, and then that of 21 relatives and friends, including the Cook family, which has been identified with the education of their people from the first. In 1818 an association of colored folk, under the name the Resolute Beneficial Society, established a school which first under the instruction of a relative of Rev. John Pierpont and afterwards of John Adams, the first colored teacher in the District, did good service. From that day until the breaking out of the civil war, in Washington and Georgetown, and in Alexandria, until its retrocession to Virginia, in 1846, a series of schools for these people were established, each with some characteristic of special interest. Several of the most successful teachers were from England and Scotland, and a good number of Southern white people of recognized social standing. At one time there was a habit of educating colored children in the private schools for whites, and even slaves were permitted to receive instruction. The Sunday schools of the leading churches had also a colored department.

But all this came to an end in 1832-1834, when, as the result of the Nat Turner slave insurrection in Virginia, the public mind in the South was wrought to a high pitch of excitement. The schools of these people in Washington were largely broken up by mobs, the colored churches assailed, and several of the leading teachers obliged to flee the town. But nothing could suppress the determination of such as remained, and in due time the schools came up, every year better than before. The constituency was not large, the free negroes of the District up to 1840 not numbering more than 6,000. A careful study of the records of these numerous private colored schools will show that a good proportion of the 1,000 children of school age must have been under instruction. The Catholic Church was not behind in this movement. There was one important school in Georgetown and another under the management of the Sisters of Providence, an order of colored women devoted to the education of their race, is still an important seminary for girls. The school of Rev. John F. Cook, teacher and clergyman, was the beginning of the valuable educational labors of this family, one of whom is the excellent superintendent of the colored schools of the city of Washington.

In this movement the colored people were supported by the sympathy and encouraged by the aid of many leading people of the District. Thomas Jefferson did not hesitate to publish his belief that the African race is capable of education and should be admitted to all opportunities of good schooling. In a letter to Benjamin Banneker, a remarkable colored man of Maryland, the son of native African parents, who, by self-education, became noted as an author, mathematician, and mechanician, a publisher of an almanac, known to the learned societies of Paris and London, Mr. Jefferson wrote: "Nobody wishes more than I do to see such proofs as you exhibit that nature has given to our black brethren talents equal to those of the other colors of men, and that the appearance of a want of them is owing only to the degraded condition of their existence both in Africa and America." Jefferson sent the almanac of Banneker to the Academy of Sciences at Paris as a "justification against the doubts which have been entertained of them;" and it was quoted by Pitt, Fox, and Wilberforce in the British Parliament as an argument in behalf of the emancipation and education of the negro race.

Out of this notable and most praiseworthy effort of the superior free colored people to educate their children it has come to pass that in no part of the country is there so fine a group of educated and worthy families of this race as in Washington. At the critical period of the civil war, when thousands of emancipated slaves were thrown upon the city, these people came to the front and have been largely influential in the organization and highly successful management of their department of

the public school system in which 12,000 children are now educated not only in elementary schools, but with excellent high, normal, industrial, and artistic training, their teachers being paid the same salaries as those of the white race, with schoolhouses of the most approved pattern. Half the expenses of the public schools of the District of Columbia are now paid by the Congress of the United States, which also makes a generous yearly grant of money to Howard University, one of the earliest and best known institutions for the higher and professional education of this people in the country.

CONCLUSION.

The close of the first half century of the Republic may be regarded as the limit of the period included in this essay. At this decade, 1830–1840, the idea of the original New England system of public instruction, the organization, support, and supervision of a scheme of education by the people, acting through the ordinary agencies of local, colonial, and State government, had finally been adopted by every Commonwealth in the New England, Central, and Northwestern States; and although none of the slaveholding States had fully accepted the system, all were either partially committed to it, or the educational public in each of them—a steadily increasing factor in their educational affairs—was working along the same line, gathering the elements for the prodigious effort for the establishment of the American common school as soon as the chief hindrance to universal education—the institution of slavery—should be removed. Before 1840 every American State had either adopted, or its educational public was working toward, the ideal of a common system of instruction and discipline, under the direction of the State, for the training of the children and youth into good American citizenship.

If this story of the origin of the American common school has been fitly told, it will be seen that its one original, characteristic, and essential idea is only the application of the American idea of government and society to education. The American common school is only the American people keeping school. It is their will and pleasure expressed through the agency of a flexible majority. This is the radical note of difference between the American and any other type of national education in any previous age or in any European nation at the present time. And because this is its only essential characteristic the American common school has this conspicuous advantage over all other systems: It becomes, in its development, the recipient of the highest thinking, aspiration, and living of a great nationality composed of the most powerful and progressive elements of all civilized peoples, working under the boundless encouragements and opportunities of a new world toward the realization of the broadest and most practical ideal of freedom consistent with a safe and conservative order of society.

It is not therefore essential that the American common school should be free in the sense of instruction without direct cost to the pupil, although, since under all conditions the indirect expense of schooling bears more heavily on the family than the public, it is good policy to make the public school free to all. Neither is the system chained to any despotic or essential method of organization, discipline, and instruction. It "lives and moves and has its being" in the expanding educational consciousness of the whole people. Thus, it may with perfect consistency adopt much that is excellent in the systems of other peoples, avail itself of the fruits of the largest educational experience everywhere, and make its own the most admirable results of the wisest thought and noblest achievement in all countries and all times. So that, "without variablenesss or shadow of turning," it abides by its own ideal that this is the people's school. It violates no radical American principle and vindicates its right to "claim the earth" in behalf of the children of the Republic.

In the rude and tentative beginnings of the American common school, as in the earliest motions of the colonial life, which was feeling after the beginnings of republican institutions, we have seen that misapprehensions and mistakes were inevitable. Hence, no State may claim exemption from criticism and none should resent a correct

and fair statement of its early educational history. For no Commonwealth has failed to contribute some valuable element of thought in its foremost educators and rich experience from its various experiments in school-keeping toward the present condition of educational affairs. In each the educational public appeared in due season and became an inevitable and vital feature in the life of the State, wrought in its own way, and finally triumphed. And the most significant fact is that this victory was often achieved in a style inexplicable to the educational pedant, in the face and eyes of the schemes and predictions of the great educational theorist, in a way that can only be appreciated by him who believes in the American idea of the gradual development of the whole people under the direction of a gracious Divine Providence.

The opening decade of the second half century of the Republic became memorable as the period of the great American revival of universal education. Under this great uplift of public sentiment, through the direction of the most notable group of educational leaders that had appeared in the country, the local district elementary school of the old time evolved into the graded common school of the later years; was immensely extended and enriched in all its departments; was especially improved in its methods of instruction and discipline, chiefly through native genius and experience, gradually by the careful adjustment of the best European methods to home use, and largely under the pronounced influence of the State normal schools, and most important of all is the fact that this was a veritable people's revival, in which the intelligent and patriotic masses in every State were aroused, educated, and confirmed in the conviction of their imperative right and duty to provide the best for the children.

One may see how this fruitful period of reform in education found its grand culmination in the generation that followed the close of the great civil war. Then, first, under the inspiration of a renewed and reconstructed nationality, the American common school had free course, ran, and was glorified through the entire area of the Republic. And very significant is the fact that the older States, in which the conflict for universal education had been most involved and prolonged, now came to the front in the most decisive way and in some respects surpassed all the original States. And the South, that so long remained outside the expanding circle of the common school, has responded to the cry of the children during the past twenty years by the most remarkable achievement in the organization and support of popular education recorded in history.

To the careful reader of this "great and wondrous story," who is in full accord with the American idea, there can be no conclusion possible save a profound confidence in the American gospel of universal education, and an abiding faith that under a wise and gracious Providence the American people is now summoned to the apostleship of this gospel in a career only now well begun.

[NOTE.—The fact that the constitution of the State of Delaware in 1792 contained the provision for education, afterwards adopted in the revised constitution in 1831, directing the legislature "to provide by law for the establishment of schools and promoting arts and sciences," was inadvertently omitted; also, on page 276 the name Lyon should be spelled Ligon.—A. D. M.]

CHAPTER VIII.

PUBLIC, SOCIETY, AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES.[1]

References to preceding reports of the United States Bureau of Education, in which this subject has been treated: In annual reports, 1870, pp. 541, 542; 1871, pp. 668–677; 1872, pp. liii-lvii, 820–887; 1873, pp. lxxxviii-xciv, 729-763; 1874, pp. lxxxvii-xcii, 753-793; 1875, pp. civ–cvii, 797–883; 1876, pp. cxxiii-cxxv, 777-779; 1877, pp. cxxxi-cxlii, 583-585; 1878, pp. cxxii, 599-600; 1879, pp. clvii-clviii, 618-619; 1880, pp. clxvi-clxvii, 738-741; 1881, pp. cci-ccix, 668-671; 1882–83, pp. clxxxv-clxxxviii, 694-699; 1883–84, pp. clxxxiii-clxxxiv, 724-737; 1884–85, pp. ccxxix-ccxxx, 691-782; 1885–86, pp. 716–719; 1886–87, pp. 901–972; 1887–88, pp. 1031-1039; 1892–93, pp. 575–583, 691-1014; 1893–94, pp. 1503-1504; 1895–96, pp. 339–599. See also in each report statistics of libraries of schools and colleges. Refer also to index in each annual report from 1888-89 to 1895–96 for libraries in foreign countries.

In special reports and circulars of information; 1876, Public Libraries in the United States of America, their history, condition, and management, Part I, edited by S. R. Warren and S. N. Clark, pp. xxxv, 1187; Rules for a printed Dictionary Catalogue, Part II, by C. A. Cutter, pp. 89; Circular of Information No. 1, 1880, College Libraries as Aids to Instruction, by Justin Winsor and Otis H. Robinson, pp. 27; Circular of Information No. 1, 1881, Construction of Library Buildings, by William Poole, pp. 26; 1881, Library Aids, by Samuel Green, pp. 10; 1886, Statistics of Public Libraries in the United States, pp. 98, reprinted from 1884–85 annual report; 1886, Special Report, New Orleans Exposition 1884–85, pp. 650–655; 1891, Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue, by Charles A. Cutter, pp. 140; third edition, with corrections and additions, reprinted from the 1876 special report; Circular of Information No. 7, 1893, Statistics of Public Libraries in the United States and Canada (in 1891), by Weston Flint, pp. 213; 1893, Catalogue of A. L. A. Library, 5,000 volumes, for a popular library, pp. 592; 1896, Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, held at the Columbian Exposition, edited by Melvil Dewey, pp. 691-1014, reprinted from annual report 1892–93.

The public library is recognized as one of the great forces in modern educational progress. For nearly thirty years the United States Bureau of Education has constantly emphasized the importance of these institutions as aids to instruction. In every annual report from 1867-68 to the present year has appeared information relating to college and school libraries, and periodically the Bureau has published detailed statistics of public libraries. The annual report for 1870 contained a list of 161 principal libraries not including college libraries. The report for 1872 contained a list of 1,080 libraries of 1,000 or more volumes. A special effort was made in 1875 to obtain a list of all the libraries in the United States having 300 volumes and over. The list as printed in the report for that year included 3,648 libraries, and of these, 2,039 had 1,000 or more volumes. This list was also published in the great special report issued by this office in 1876. That report was a volume of about 1,200 pages devoted to "Public Libraries in the United States of America, their

[1] By Alex Summers, Statistician of the Bureau.

History, Condition, and Management." The volume contained 39 chapters by as many as twenty eminent specialists in subjects relating to libraries. In the annual report for 1884–85 was published a list of 5,338 libraries of 300 or more volumes, 2,988 of these libraries had 1,000 or more volumes. This list was reprinted in a pamphlet of about 100 pages. A valuable chapter of about 70 pages appeared in the 1886–87 report devoted to "Libraries in the United States." The statistics of 1,779 libraries were published in seven tables, classified as follows: (1) Free public lending libraries, (2) free public reference libraries, (3) free public school libraries, (4) free corporate lending libraries, (5) libraries of clubs, associations, etc., (6) subscription corporate libraries, and (7) circulating libraries proper. In 1893 this Bureau published 20,000 copies of a circular of information of 213 pages, giving the statistics of 3,503 public libraries in the United States having 1,000 volumes and over. The statistics collected were for the year 1891. Also in 1893 the Bureau published 20,000 copies of "Catalogue of A. L. A. Library. 5,000 volumes for a public library selected by the American Library Association and shown at the World's Columbian Exposition." So great was the demand for this publication that a second edition was printed in 1896. This special report contained about 600 pages. The papers prepared for the American Library Association for its annual meeting held at Chicago in 1893, and read before the World's Library Congress at the Columbian Exposition, were printed in the Education Report for 1892–93. These papers, which were prepared by about twenty leading members of the association, occupy 324 pages of the above-mentioned report, pages 691–1014. A small edition of the matter was reprinted in a separate pamphlet. One of the most popular publications of this Bureau is Cutter's Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue, which was published in 1876 as Part II of the special library report of that year. The third edition was published in 1891 in a pamphlet of 140 pages. The special report issued by this Bureau in 1886 on "Educational Exhibits and Conventions at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition, New Orleans, 1884–85," contained much valuable matter in relation to libraries. This report is now out of print, as are all the earlier reports above mentioned. In addition to the statistics of college and school libraries published every year in the annual reports of this Bureau since 1870, many of the reports have contained valuable facts concerning libraries in foreign countries. This is particularly true of the reports from 1888–89 to 1895–96.

STATISTICS FOR 1896.

Five years having elapsed since the collection of statistics of public libraries published in Circular of Information No. 7, 1893, this Bureau sent out under date of April 1, 1896, forms of inquiry to all the libraries reporting to this office in 1891 and to several thousand others. Efforts were made to secure the names of all the libraries in the United States, but it was the purpose to publish a list of only public and school libraries having 1,000 or more volumes. Nearly 10,000 addresses were obtained and from this number about 8,000 responses were received. The number of libraries reporting 1,000 or more volumes was 4,026; the number reporting less than 1,000 volumes but not less than 300 was 3,167, while nearly 1,000 had fewer than 300 volumes each. To obtain the 8,000 reports it was necessary to send out 15,000 blank forms between the 1st of April and the 1st of August. Not more than 50 per cent of the librarians responded promptly, and many hundreds ignored the second and even the third requests for information. It is presumed, however, that most of the libraries from which no returns could be obtained were so small that those in charge of them did not deem them of sufficient importance to be included in the list. It is safe to assume that the list of 4,026 public and school libraries published in this report includes very nearly all the libraries in the United States having 1,000 or more volumes. (See page 366.)

TABLE 1.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.*

NUMBER OF LIBRARIES AND NUMBER OF VOLUMES.

States and Territories.	Libraries reporting.	Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Increase since 1891.		
				Libraries.	Volumes.	Per cent in number of volumes.
United States	4,026	33,051,872	5,444,788	523	7,074,229	27.23
North Atlantic Division	2,000	17,647,723	2,801,270	231	3,893,631	28.31
South Atlantic Division	322	4,015,087	966,999	18	614,269	18.06
South Central Division	255	1,360,451	215,856	26	238,085	21.21
North Central Division	1,195	8,016,780	1,250,342	175	1,756,970	28.07
Western Division	254	2,011,831	210,321	73	571,274	39.66
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine	93	542,666	100,443	7	107,288	24.67
New Hampshire	122	595,800	108,887	35	179,870	43.25
Vermont	67	359,213	13,827	16	85,702	31.33
Massachusetts	494	5,450,397	1,231,953	32	997,626	22.40
Rhode Island	74	580,305	95,950	7	113,072	24.20
Connecticut	154	1,102,082	214,405	28	216,653	24.47
New York	572	5,251,347	563,914	101	1,289,499	32.55
New Jersey	94	801,152	116,327	4	159,466	24.85
Pennsylvania	330	2,964,761	355,564	1	744,455	33.53
South Atlantic Division:						
Delaware	14	83,763	15,264	0	15,230	22.22
Maryland	67	985,330	127,660	2	143,156	17
District of Columbia	55	1,793,910	735,231	5	300,855	20.15
Virginia	50	341,225	31,550	5	686	.20
West Virginia	10	46,137	7,548	4	11,157	31.90
North Carolina	40	218,757	16,192	2	52,516	31.59
South Carolina	32	232,418	9,372	1	47,936	25.98
Georgia	41	270,041	19,262	0	46,208	20.64
Florida	13	43,596	4,920	a1	a3,475	a7.40
South Central Division:						
Kentucky	47	318,661	27,739	a12	3,924	1.25
Tennessee	62	318,571	29,436	13	96,109	43.20
Alabama	28	117,337	35,121	5	21,171	22.02
Mississippi	31	166,870	23,915	2	39,556	31.07
Louisiana	27	212,828	46,431	a1	33,610	18.75
Texas	39	131,222	13,804	12	44,619	51.52
Arkansas	17	87,600	37,502	6	a4,500	a4.89
Oklahoma	2	5,157	1,206	2	5,157	.....
Indian Territory	2	2,205	708	a1	a1,561	a41.45
North Central Division:						
Ohio	202	1,587,891	205,754	29	329,455	26.18
Indiana	107	654,651	53,357	9	129,825	24.74
Illinois	214	1,822,580	447,168	11	181,451	11.06
Michigan	153	975,031	70,455	18	248,765	34.25
Wisconsin	102	626,442	132,224	22	178,539	39.86
Minnesota	75	467,197	46,364	22	167,634	55.92
Iowa	113	607,765	56,339	24	176,070	40.79
Missouri	104	686,955	115,355	11	159,445	30.23
North Dakota	6	23,682	3,100	4	15,802	200.53
South Dakota	14	34,863	10,564	5	14,277	69.35
Nebraska	42	226,743	26,093	13	58,492	34.76
Kansas	63	302,780	83,569	7	97,215	47.29
Western Division:						
Montana	13	69,222	9,892	8	48,083	227.46
Wyoming	4	23,785	3,200	1	4,485	23.24
Colorado	34	300,990	20,318	11	178,923	146.58
New Mexico	6	13,273	3,200	1	2,119	19
Arizona	4	17,472	250	1	2,472	16.48
Utah	11	49,582	18,002	5	24,856	100.53
Nevada	6	49,989	2,240	0	11,774	30.81
Idaho	5	13,023	10,230	3	7,023	117.05
Washington	20	76,646	19,380	11	35,640	86.91
Oregon	16	90,190	6,628	1	24,646	37.60
California	35	1,307,659	116,981	31	231,253	21.48

a Decrease.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.*

VOLUMES AND PAMPHLETS ADDED AND BOOKS ISSUED.

States and Territories.	Periodicals.		Volumes added during the year.		Pamphlets added during the year.		Books issued for home use.		Books issued for use in library.	
	Libraries reporting.	Number.	Libraries reporting.	Number.	Libraries reporting.	Number.	Libraries reporting.	Number.	Libraries reporting.	Number.
United States	2,166	116,248	2,851	1,591,861	1,303	439,412	1,852	35,075,955	594	7,706,830
North Atlantic Division	1,053	55,667	1,505	883,121	615	235,947	1,088	19,407,838	295	2,349,927
South Atlantic Division	158	9,626	198	120,586	104	54,638	89	1,303,619	39	310,995
South Central Division	130	4,057	149	48,909	96	22,314	41	185,086	19	128,286
North Central Division	672	38,371	832	428,781	396	88,398	541	11,476,578	198	4,330,105
Western Division	153	8,527	167	110,464	92	38,115	93	2,701,934	43	587,517
North Atlantic Division:										
Maine	48	1,556	74	21,027	23	16,822	49	600,978	14	82,054
New Hampshire	56	1,402	90	26,283	34	7,901	74	698,295	10	102,568
Vermont	32	973	54	15,761	16	3,268	37	316,304	6	20,875
Massachusetts	267	14,351	406	249,986	159	65,409	336	6,706,970	61	373,621
Rhode Island	40	1,945	58	24,440	24	5,389	51	534,089	9	55,815
Connecticut	83	4,065	110	70,751	49	16,674	89	1,480,748	17	49,123
New York	300	18,119	433	249,985	189	49,897	287	4,525,641	123	1,238,708
New Jersey	54	3,621	53	43,937	27	9,919	38	1,290,171	15	47,806
Pennsylvania	173	9,635	227	180,901	94	60,668	127	3,254,642	40	399,357
South Atlantic Division:										
Delaware	7	191	12	4,587	10	1,758	8	149,001	3	1,545
Maryland	40	2,852	42	34,380	26	9,660	15	706,006	8	141,247
Dist. of Columbia	21	3,298	37	42,723	21	36,727	14	148,576	10	148,066
Virginia	27	1,244	30	13,026	15	1,601	17	90,987	9	3,413
West Virginia	5	118	5	1,667	3	883	2	58,616	1	12,908
North Carolina	19	834	20	5,763	7	1,126	8	27,651	2	889
South Carolina	13	376	17	3,057	7	665	6	34,954	1	250
Georgia	19	542	26	13,365	11	1,568	15	81,764	3	1,216
Florida	7	171	9	2,018	4	650	4	6,064	2	1,470
South Central Division:										
Kentucky	23	517	34	10,557	20	3,676	5	27,144	6	55,711
Tennessee	27	1,297	26	6,428	16	1,925	13	62,432	3	33,184
Alabama	18	534	17	4,939	12	2,325	5	8,797	4	6,061
Mississippi	18	427	18	5,017	13	2,324	3	10,855	1	800
Louisiana	12	493	14	6,041	10	4,450	2	1,896	1	23,441
Texas	18	379	25	5,001	14	1,988	8	62,561	3	8,589
Arkansas	11	271	12	10,312	10	4,426	5	11,401	1	500
Oklahoma	2	127	2	574	1	1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indian Territory	1	12	1	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
North Central Division:										
Ohio	122	7,075	145	62,945	63	15,647	78	2,088,278	31	549,157
Indiana	51	1,604	64	23,447	29	5,443	51	843,191	25	333,996
Illinois	119	8,016	144	96,588	66	17,678	104	3,039,273	35	1,992,736
Michigan	73	3,336	116	59,965	45	6,201	85	1,464,103	38	676,077
Wisconsin	57	7,443	73	40,944	27	6,634	50	905,640	11	45,612
Minnesota	49	2,188	58	37,300	29	4,480	32	946,628	11	327,937
Iowa	73	2,553	75	31,569	43	7,441	50	565,452	11	49,358
Missouri	56	2,284	67	36,354	39	10,901	38	894,391	15	244,239
North Dakota	2	105	3	1,488	2	600	1	1,257	.....	.....
South Dakota	8	261	11	3,892	6	1,142	6	28,710	2	1,453
Nebraska	26	1,120	33	15,548	22	6,020	19	445,824	8	81,129
Kansas	36	2,386	43	18,741	27	6,211	27	253,831	11	28,411
Western Division:										
Montana	10	1,049	9	7,536	3	952	7	180,807	4	60,586
Wyoming	1	43	2	830	2	390	2	10,980	1	1,200
Colorado	22	1,399	26	21,128	12	2,033	12	475,490	5	29,785
New Mexico	3	72	4	1,056	2	700	.....	.....	2	850
Arizona	2	66	3	230	2	95	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah	5	179	7	980	6	1,046	3	14,824	3	18,620
Nevada	6	120	5	2,069	3	273	5	17,253	1	1,800
Idaho	4	234	5	1,915	4	3,705	2	1,540	2	5,860
Washington	13	585	13	4,769	9	3,665	6	132,645	3	16,107
Oregon	13	618	12	3,967	9	1,486	8	46,761	3	380
California	74	4,162	81	65,984	40	23,770	48	1,821,634	19	452,389

TABLE 3.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.*

SOURCES OF SUPPORT—CLASSIFICATION.

States and Territories.	Own or rent buildings.			Supported by taxation or by corporation.				Free or subscription.				Circulating or reference.			
	Own.	Rent.	Not reporting.	By taxation.	By corporation.	By both.	Not reporting.	Free.	Free for reference.	Subscription.	Not reporting.	Circulating.	Reference.	Both.	Not reporting.
United States	765	548	2,713	1,147	2,346	14	519	1,558	635	772	1,061	342	765	2,600	379
North Atlantic Division	464	287	1,249	600	1,112	13	275	928	276	364	432	216	301	1,348	135
South Atlantic Division	65	21	236	44	216	....	62	53	71	64	134	17	78	173	54
South Central Division	26	14	215	25	183	....	47	64	50	60	81	11	77	122	45
North Central Division	180	178	837	405	696	....	94	424	209	230	332	92	197	801	105
Western Division	30	48	176	73	139	1	41	89	29	54	82	6	52	156	40
North Atlantic Division:															
Maine	30	21	42	28	58	2	5	41	8	24	20	16	12	60	5
New Hampshire	37	17	68	63	45	....	14	87	6	17	12	22	8	86	6
Vermont	20	12	35	14	38	1	14	29	9	16	13	11	5	46	5
Massachusetts	141	72	281	221	243	5	25	301	59	53	81	72	65	345	12
Rhode Island	14	16	44	19	38	....	17	50	4	11	9	7	6	58	3
Connecticut	52	22	80	37	85	1	31	72	13	46	23	14	11	122	7
New York	91	70	411	179	334	....	59	241	106	87	138	38	117	379	38
New Jersey	34	22	38	17	57	....	20	30	17	16	31	7	14	60	13
Pennsylvania	45	35	250	22	214	4	90	77	54	94	105	29	63	192	46
South Atlantic Division:															
Delaware	6	2	6	2	10	....	2	4	1	6	3	4	3	5	2
Maryland	8	8	51	10	57	....	....	9	15	11	32	6	22	28	11
District of Columbia	5	2	48	20	24	....	11	13	17	3	22	....	21	27	7
Virginia	11	5	34	3	32	....	15	7	9	10	24	1	7	34	8
West Virginia	....	1	9	2	4	....	4	2	4	1	3	....	3	5	2
North Carolina	5	1	34	3	23	....	14	4	11	9	16	1	6	20	13
South Carolina	8	....	24	3	21	....	8	6	9	4	13	4	7	17	4
Georgia	18	2	21	.....	35	....	6	5	3	16	17	1	6	29	5
Florida	4	....	9	1	10	....	2	3	2	4	4	....	3	8	2
South Central Division:															
Kentucky	15	3	29	5	41	....	1	17	6	11	13	....	17	27	3
Tennessee	4	5	53	3	39	....	20	7	11	19	25	1	15	26	20
Alabama	....	2	26	2	21	....	5	7	4	6	11	3	9	15	1
Mississippi	1	1	29	3	21	....	7	6	8	9	8	4	6	14	7
Louisiana	5	....	22	3	23	....	1	12	5	4	6	3	10	11	3
Texas	....	2	37	7	22	....	10	7	11	5	16	....	10	18	11
Arkansas	1	1	15	1	14	....	2	5	4	6	2	....	9	8	....
Oklahoma	.....	.....	2	1	1	....	....	2	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	....
Indian Territory	....	....	2	.....	1	....	1	1	1	....	.....	....	1	1	....
North Central Division:															
Ohio	32	23	147	46	128	....	28	52	40	48	62	16	45	122	19
Indiana	18	11	78	43	55	....	9	44	15	19	29	2	26	72	7
Illinois	43	41	130	87	122	....	5	88	30	39	57	12	28	158	16
Michigan	24	28	101	60	87	....	6	71	13	35	34	23	12	104	14
Wisconsin	12	18	72	44	42	....	16	45	19	8	30	7	15	72	8
Minnesota	4	10	61	30	44	....	1	24	15	10	26	6	17	45	7
Iowa	24	16	73	37	68	....	8	39	21	26	27	8	18	78	9
Missouri	9	11	84	16	77	....	11	17	30	18	39	10	25	55	14
North Dakota	.....	.....	6	2	3	....	1	3	1	....	2	....	1	3	2
South Dakota	....	2	12	3	8	....	3	5	6	1	2	2	....	10	2
Nebraska	4	7	31	15	25	....	2	18	8	8	8	3	3	34	2
Kansas	10	11	42	22	37	....	4	18	11	18	16	3	7	48	5
Western Division:															
Montana	3	2	8	6	7	....	....	10	3	....	.....	1	3	9	....
Wyoming	....	1	3	2	.....	....	2	2	....	....	2	....	....	3	1
Colorado	3	7	24	10	17	....	7	11	6	10	7	1	8	22	3
New Mexico	3	1	2	2	4	....	....	1	1	1	3	....	2	4	....
Arizona	....	1	3	2	1	....	1	2	....	....	2	1	1	2	....
Utah	....	1	10	2	6	....	3	3	2	1	5	....	3	5	3
Nevada	3	....	3	1	5	....	....	2	1	2	1	....	....	6	....
Idaho	1	....	4	.....	4	....	1	4	....	1	.....	....	2	3	....
Washington	2	3	15	6	8	....	6	8	3	1	8	....	2	13	5
Oregon	4	3	9	1	14	....	1	2	5	7	2	1	2	13	....
California	11	29	95	41	73	1	20	44	8	31	52	2	29	76	28

TABLE 4.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.*

GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF LIBRARIES.

States and Territories.	General.	School.	College.	College society.	Law.	Theological.	Medical.	Government.	State.	Asylum and reformatory.	Young Men's Christian Association.	Masonic.	Independent Order of Odd Fellows.	Social.	Scientific.	Historical.	Garrison.	Mercantile.	Society.
United States	1,560	940	626	54	127	97	44	23	26	87	84	14	17	57	78	60	14	10	108
North Atlantic Division	986	434	115	18	57	50	26	2	10	46	56	2	3	43	42	37	5	8	60
South Atlantic Division	56	70	95	9	13	11	5	19	2	7	6	3	3	5	5	5	2	...	6
South Central Division	31	59	122	8	5	3	2	...	6	4	3	3	1	...	2	..	1	...	5
North Central Division	413	309	247	17	34	29	11	2	5	26	16	2	6	5	22	16	4	1	30
Western Division	74	68	47	2	18	4	...	...	3	4	3	4	4	4	7	2	2	1	7
North Atlantic Division:																			
Maine	52	10	5	....	6	2	...	...	1	4	1	...	....	5	2	3	1	...	1
New Hampshire	90	16	2	....	....	...	1	...	1	2	....	....	....	3	...	1	....	...	6
Vermont	46	13	3	....	....	1	...	...	1	1	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....
Massachusetts	315	62	17	1	12	14	10	1	2	8	6	1	1	12	9	11	1	1	10
Rhode Island	50	7	2	....	1	...	1	...	...	3	2	....	....	1	...	2	1	...	4
Connecticut	103	23	4	....	1	5	1	...	...	5	3	....	....	...	1	5	...	1	2
New York	193	203	30	2	20	9	9	1	2	13	27	1	....	12	15	5	2	3	25
New Jersey	38	26	7	2	3	5	...	...	1	2	2	....	....	4	1	2	...	1	...
Pennsylvania	99	74	45	13	14	14	4	...	2	8	15	...	2	4	14	8	...	2	12
South Atlantic Division:																			
Delaware	5	2	1	1	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	1	...	...	...
Maryland	12	17	20	1	1	4	1	...	...	2	2	1	1	3	...	1	...	...	1
District of Columbia	7	9	8	....	4	...	2	17	...	...	....	1	1	...	4	...	1	...	1
Virginia	6	12	17	....	3	3	...	2	...	...	3	1	....	...	1	1	1	...	...
West Virginia	2	2	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....
North Carolina	7	13	15	....	1	1	...	...	1	...	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	1
South Carolina	5	8	10	2	....	2	1	...	1	2	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Georgia	7	5	15	5	1	1	1	...	...	2	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	3
Florida	5	2	5	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
South Central Division:																			
Kentucky	5	12	17	3	....	2	1	...	1	1	....	1	1	...	.	....	....	....	2
Tennessee	7	18	30	2	1	...	....	....	1	...	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
Alabama	6	5	13	....	....	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	...	1	....	....	....	1
Mississippi	2	10	14	3	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
Louisiana	5	3	13	....	1	...	1	...	1	1	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Texas	4	8	22	....	2	....	....	....	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....
Arkansas	1	3	10	....	1	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Oklahoma	.....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Indian Territory	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
North Central Division:																			
Ohio	64	47	46	4	7	9	5	...	.	5	3	...	1	1	5	3	...	...	2
Indiana	32	28	25	4	6	1	1	...	...	3	2	...	....	....	....	3	...	...	2
Illinois	91	36	42	7	3	7	1	..	2	4	2	...	1	1	6	3	...	...	8
Michigan	60	47	14	1	4	1	2	1	.	6	1	...	....	2	1	...	1	...	12
Wisconsin	42	31	15	....	2	2	...	...	...	2	1	1	....	1	2	1	1	...	1
Minnesota	22	29	9	1	5	2	1	..	1	2	1	...	....	...	1	1	...	...	...
Iowa	44	27	26	....	3	2	...	...	1	2	1	...	2	..	2	2	...	...	1
Missouri	16	36	31	....	3	3	1	..	...	...	3	...	2	...	3	2	1	1	2
North Dakota	2	1	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
South Dakota	2	4	7	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Nebraska	15	10	10	....	1	1	...	...	1	1	1	....	....	....	1	...	...	...	1
Kansas	23	13	19	....	....	1	...	1	...	...	1	1	....	...	2	...	1	...	1
Western Division:																			
Montana	8	1	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
Wyoming	1	1	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Colorado	10	6	7	....	6	1	...	...	1	1	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
New Mexico	1	1	2	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....
Arizona	1	...	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Utah	1	2	6	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....
Nevada	3	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
Idaho	1	2	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Washington	7	6	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
Oregon	1	2	5	1	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	1	2	....	....	....	....	....	2
California	40	46	15	1	7	3	....	....	....	2	1	2	2	3	7	2	1	1	2

TABLE 5.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.*

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO SIZE.

States and Territories.	Number of volumes to a library.							
	500,000 and over.	300,000 to 499,999.	100,000 to 299,999.	50,000 to 99,999.	25,000 to 49,999.	10,000 to 24,999.	5,000 to 9,999.	1,000 to 4,999.
United States	2	4	28	69	155	411	630	2,727
North Atlantic Division	1	3	16	35	87	192	325	1,341
South Atlantic Division	1	.....	4	12	18	40	55	192
South Central Division	.....	.....	.....	3	6	26	36	184
North Central Division	.....	1	6	14	34	125	174	841
Western Division	.....	.....	2	5	10	28	40	169
North Atlantic Division:								
Maine	.....	.....	.....	1	4	4	20	64
New Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	2	1	9	15	95
Vermont	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	5	10	49
Massachusetts	1	1	3	10	27	62	103	287
Rhode Island	.....	.....	.....	3	2	6	10	53
Connecticut	.....	.....	1	3	5	11	13	121
New York	.....	2	6	9	27	42	81	405
New Jersey	.....	.....	1	3	4	12	10	64
Pennsylvania	.....	.....	5	4	14	41	63	203
South Atlantic Division:								
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	2	10
Maryland	.....	.....	2	3	4	9	10	39
District of Columbia	1	.....	2	6	7	7	10	22
Virginia	.....	.....	.....	1	1	9	10	29
West Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	2	6
North Carolina	.....	.....	.....	1	1	4	5	29
South Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	3	5	21
Georgia	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	6	8	26
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	10
South Central Division:								
Kentucky	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	5	7	33
Tennessee	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	9	10	41
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	6	19
Mississippi	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	2	27
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	4	4	16
Texas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	6	30
Arkansas	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	1	14
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
Indian Territory	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
North Central Division:								
Ohio	.....	.....	2	3	6	30	27	134
Indiana	.....	.....	.....	2	3	11	19	72
Illinois	.....	1	2	1	5	27	34	144
Michigan	.....	.....	1	2	3	15	17	115
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	2	2	10	16	72
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	1	4	6	11	53
Iowa	.....	.....	.....	1	3	12	16	81
Missouri	.....	.....	1	1	4	7	16	75
North Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	4
South Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	12
Nebraska	.....	.....	.....	1	2	1	5	33
Kansas	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	5	10	46
Western Division:								
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	1	9
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	3
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	1	2	3	9	19
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	3
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	1	8
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....	4
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	4
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	3	15
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	3	11
California	.....	.....	2	4	7	13	22	87

TABLE 6.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and*

INCOME FROM VARIOUS

	States and Territories.	From taxation.		Appropriations, State, county, or city.		From endowment funds.		From membership fees and dues.		From book rents.	
		Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.
1	United States	600	$1,679,210	773	$1,513,352	594	$1,035,052	833	$386,441	303	$38,684
2	North Atlantic Division.	338	304,450	521	989,883	448	721,423	425	203,114	174	20,833
3	South Atlantic Division.	4	7,470	28	133,674	21	67,137	53	33,614	11	961
4	South Central Division.	3	2,100	22	17,775	10	11,660	46	15,096	7	1,608
5	North Central Division.	213	1,163,766	171	337,421	103	217,003	261	87,197	96	11,960
6	Western Division	42	201,424	31	34,599	12	17,829	48	47,420	15	3,322
	North Atlantic Division:										
7	Maine	9	3,132	29	24,586	25	19,098	28	3,958	9	937
8	New Hampshire	38	15,154	26	26,585	33	8,000	28	4,849	13	195
9	Vermont	8	3,749	13	9,535	21	8,550	23	1,796	7	309
10	Massachusetts	128	103,537	151	507,540	163	197,009	92	20,160	50	8,763
11	Rhode Island	8	3,525	42	19,301	14	11,465	15	5,679	6	423
12	Connecticut	15	23,077	33	35,561	46	74,218	43	6,292	27	1,589
13	New York	122	51,707	199	180,914	69	269,809	84	80,720	30	3,729
14	New Jersey	8	99,969	10	7,564	13	9,348	26	5,173	13	2,408
15	Pennsylvania	2	600	18	178,297	64	123,926	86	74,487	19	2,470
	South Atlantic Division:										
16	Delaware	1	30	3	19,057	2	434	7	3,961	2	270
17	Maryland	1	300	5	15,716	5	60,390	8	15,190	1	100
18	Dist. of Columbia	....	....	9	87,271	1	50	1	6	....	....
19	Virginia	1	160	4	5,555	6	2,156	5	1,959	2	302
20	West Virginia	1	6,980	2	1,500	....	....	3	21	....	....
21	North Carolina	....	....	1	500	....	....	7	2,262	2	28
22	South Carolina	....	....	1	550	1	600	5	1,402	....	....
23	Georgia	....	....	1	3,000	3	2,080	13	8,458	2	96
24	Florida	....	....	2	525	3	1,427	4	355	2	165
	South Central Division:										
25	Kentucky	1	200	3	1,000	3	600	5	1,593	2	556
26	Tennessee	....	....	3	6,750	2	1,305	13	8,491	3	789
27	Alabama	1	1,500	1	63	2	1,400	6	1,094	....	....
28	Mississippi	....	....	3	1,850	1	35	9	1,110	1	250
29	Louisiana	....	....	2	550	1	8,000	4	902	....	....
30	Texas	....	....	6	4,960	....	....	5	990	....	....
31	Arkansas	....	....	4	2,600	1	320	4	916	1	13
32	Oklahoma	1	400	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
33	Indian Territory	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	North Central Division:										
34	Ohio	33	131,861	15	147,005	28	21,688	43	22,422	11	325
35	Indiana	21	72,508	9	4,390	10	10,238	20	9,263	8	961
36	Illinois	42	594,425	27	32,891	20	117,309	54	11,470	16	554
37	Michigan	35	61,521	38	31,555	12	9,494	40	5,896	16	649
38	Wisconsin	19	58,857	29	34,525	12	8,013	19	2,185	8	4,544
39	Minnesota	15	84,638	11	15,920	4	6,102	10	2,537	7	446
40	Iowa	23	45,905	12	25,397	8	1,267	22	4,951	9	414
41	Missouri	8	83,805	7	11,554	4	41,792	20	22,206	9	2,630
42	North Dakota	....	....	3	2,300	....	....	....	....	....	....
43	South Dakota	1	900	2	800	1	200	2	105	2	1,050
44	Nebraska	9	19,988	6	7,259	1	70	14	3,824	3	31
45	Kansas	7	9,358	12	23,825	3	830	17	2,338	7	356
	Western Division:										
46	Montana	5	25,255	2	1,750	....	....	....	....	....	....
47	Wyoming	2	200	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
48	Colorado	2	21,871	5	12,800	3	350	8	2,946	2	141
49	New Mexico	....	....	1	2,500	....	....	....	....	1	8
50	Arizona	....	....	1	300	....	....	....	....	....	....
51	Utah	....	....	3	3,433	....	....	2	319	1	206
52	Nevada	....	....	2	2,233	....	....	2	528	....	....
53	Idaho	....	....	1	150	....	....	1	70	1	100
54	Washington	3	9,264	3	4,100	1	80	1	300	2	350
55	Oregon	....	....	1	2,500	2	5,555	6	4,966	1	15
56	California	30	144,834	12	4,833	6	11,844	28	38,291	7	2,502

school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.

SOURCES, ENDOWMENTS, ETC.

From donations.		From sources not stated.		Total income.		Permanent endowment fund.		Value of library buildings.		Expended for books during the year.		
Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	Number reporting.	Amount.	
625	$529,350	1,017	$729,547	2,437	$5,911,636	605	$17,570,673	567	$33,291,259	2,233	$1,574,410	1
354	419,066	569	489,220	1,334	3,147,989	454	11,243,839	349	17,408,874	1,218	878,028	2
30	12,488	51	28,722	133	284,066	22	2,301,170	42	7,697,050	130	94,797	3
36	5,855	39	33,046	106	87,140	11	278,675	15	596,750	106	38,144	4
164	75,729	305	151,892	730	2,044,968	100	3,563,996	138	6,978,017	662	463,721	5
32	16,212	53	26,667	134	347,473	18	182,993	23	610,568	117	99,720	6
16	5,356	28	10,718	72	67,785	29	406,903	20	409,400	54	21,524	7
21	5,608	31	3,011	88	63,402	32	128,470	30	569,341	81	23,205	8
17	4,705	19	2,322	49	30,966	19	54,725	17	315,350	43	11,999	9
71	48,607	161	84,956	362	970,577	171	3,389,528	115	5,800,935	342	289,474	10
9	3,091	18	11,188	54	54,677	9	175,289	9	231,700	43	30,002	11
37	29,492	48	74,140	116	244,369	49	1,404,927	36	1,063,150	93	66,079	12
102	292,199	147	220,365	358	1,099,443	71	3,101,445	74	4,250,536	349	294,363	13
23	4,645	32	28,593	53	157,700	16	251,163	17	739,200	42	35,341	14
58	25,363	85	53,927	182	459,070	58	2,331,389	31	4,029,262	171	106,041	15
2	425	6	9,064	11	33,241	3	8,150	6	129,200	8	3,941	16
7	4,975	11	7,639	29	104,310	5	2,107,000	5	986,000	25	28,088	17
1	2,315	2	4,143	13	93,785	.....	.....	4	6,281,000	24	39,249	18
8	1,045	8	2,027	22	13,204	6	43,970	5	82,200	24	8,834	19
.....	.....	1	80	5	8,581	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	1,280	20
7	1,452	3	279	12	4,521	.....	.....	5	21,500	16	4,208	21
5	1,645	6	945	14	5,142	2	86,000	6	16,650	10	1,147	22
4	275	10	3,830	19	17,739	3	28,250	7	149,000	13	6,361	23
5	356	4	715	8	3,543	3	27,800	4	31,500	8	1,689	24
7	1,260	12	19,694	20	24,903	5	52,000	8	304,000	28	8,361	25
8	2,184	7	3,227	23	22,746	2	21,750	4	121,250	16	7,322	26
3	155	2	385	9	4,599	.....	.....	.....	.....	12	3,819	27
3	152	3	1,145	14	4,542	1	550	1	15,000	10	2,340	28
3	249	4	1,141	10	10,842	1	200,000	1	150,000	11	3,056	29
6	1,197	6	4,283	16	11,430	1	175	.....	.....	16	7,948	30
5	623	4	3,146	12	7,618	1	4,200	1	6,500	10	2,389	31
.....	.....	.....	.....	1	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	2,874	32
1	35	1	25	1	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	35	33
36	12,731	51	38,067	117	374,099	30	291,099	24	1,040,487	90	76,311	34
10	4,335	17	16,742	63	118,437	11	241,091	10	440,700	56	35,222	35
26	14,094	53	16,519	131	787,262	17	2,383,197	36	2,981,575	119	85,758	36
12	1,663	55	32,091	109	142,869	11	195,300	21	658,200	99	59,111	37
15	9,291	27	7,038	73	124,453	8	148,901	9	162,700	63	34,066	38
14	19,705	18	6,531	42	135,879	6	216,323	3	500,000	50	52,704	39
22	10,158	39	16,329	74	104,421	6	17,585	15	217,500	61	35,686	40
14	1,755	20	5,303	49	169,045	4	41,900	9	651,055	51	47,128	41
.....	.....	.....	.....	3	2,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	1,500	42
1	200	3	581	6	3,836	1	2,500	.....	.....	9	3,525	43
2	360	8	10,419	25	41,951	1	1,100	4	116,300	26	15,042	44
12	1,437	14	2,272	38	40,416	5	25,000	7	209,500	36	17,668	45
1	50	5	1,154	8	28,209	.....	.....	3	78,068	7	4,211	46
1	900	.....	.....	3	1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	900	47
5	2,797	8	7,028	16	47,933	4	11,200	3	57,000	19	20,284	48
.....	.....	1	750	3	3,258	.....	.....	2	25,000	2	700	49
1	85	2	548	3	933	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	538	50
1	150	1	50	5	4,158	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	1,142	51
.....	.....	2	295	5	3,056	1	3,480	2	12,000	2	1,473	52
2	250	3	1,383	4	1,953	.....	.....	1	2,000	4	2,282	53
3	558	3	3,035	10	17,687	2	1,800	2	20,000	7	2,868	54
2	160	4	2,138	11	15,334	3	96,100	1	150,000	10	6,312	55
16	11,262	24	10,286	66	223,852	8	70,413	9	266,500	57	59,010	56

TABLE 7.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1891.*

DISTRIBUTION OF LIBRARIES AND OF VOLUMES.

States and Territories.	Libraries.	Volumes.	Population, census 1890.	Number of people per library.	Books per 100 of population.
United States	3,503	25,977,643	62,622,250	17,877	41
North Atlantic Division	1,769	13,754,092	17,401,545	9,837	79
South Atlantic Division	304	3,400,818	8,857,920	29,138	38
South Central Division	229	1,122,366	10,972,893	47,917	10
North Central Division	1,020	6,259,810	22,362,279	21,924	28
Western Division	181	1,440,557	3,027,613	16,727	48
North Atlantic Division:					
Maine	86	435,378	661,086	7,687	66
New Hampshire	87	415,930	376,530	4,328	73
Vermont	51	273,511	332,422	6,518	82
Massachusetts	462	4,452,771	2,238,943	4,846	199
Rhode Island	67	467,233	345,506	5,157	135
Connecticut	126	885,429	746,258	5,923	119
New York	471	3,961,848	5,997,853	12,734	66
New Jersey	90	641,686	1,444,933	16,055	44
Pennsylvania	329	2,220,306	5,258,014	15,982	42
South Atlantic Division:					
Delaware	14	68,533	168,493	12,035	41
Maryland	65	842,174	1,042,390	16,037	143
District of Columbia	50	1,493,055	230,392	4,607	648
Virginia	45	340,539	1,655,980	36,800	21
West Virginia	6	34,980	762,794	127,132	5
North Carolina	38	166,241	1,617,947	42,578	10
South Carolina	31	184,482	1,151,149	37,134	16
Georgia	41	223,833	1,837,353	44,813	12
Florida	14	46,981	391,422	27,959	12
South Central Division:					
Kentucky	59	314,737	1,858,635	31,502	17
Tennessee	49	222,462	1,767,518	36,072	13
Alabama	23	96,166	1,513,017	65,783	6
Mississippi	29	127,314	1,289,600	44,469	10
Louisiana	28	179,218	1,118,587	39,950	16
Texas	27	86,603	2,235,523	82,797	4
Arkansas	11	92,100	1,128,179	102,562	*8
Oklahoma	.....	.....	61,834	.....	.....
Indian Territory	3	3,766	.....	.....	.....
North Central Division:					
Ohio	173	1,258,436	3,672,316	21,227	34
Indiana	98	524,826	2,192,404	22,371	24
Illinois	203	1,641,129	3,826,351	18,849	43
Michigan	135	726,266	2,093,889	15,510	35
Wisconsin	80	447,903	1,686,880	21,086	27
Minnesota	53	299,763	1,301,826	24,563	23
Iowa	89	431,695	1,911,896	21,482	23
Missouri	93	527,510	2,679,184	28,808	20
North Dakota	2	7,880	182,719	91,360	4
South Dakota	9	20,586	328,808	36,534	6
Nebraska	29	168,251	1,058,910	36,514	16
Kansas	56	205,565	1,427,096	25,484	14
Western Division:					
Montana	5	21,139	132,159	26,432	16
Wyoming	3	19,300	60,705	20,235	32
Colorado	23	122,067	412,198	17,922	30
New Mexico	5	11,154	153,593	30,719	7
Arizona	3	15,000	59,620	19,873	25
Utah	6	24,726	207,905	34,651	12
Nevada	6	38,215	45,761	7,627	84
Idaho	2	6,000	84,385	42,193	7
Washington	9	41,006	349,390	38,821	12
Oregon	15	65,544	313,767	20,918	21
California	104	1,076,406	1,208,130	11,617	89

TABLE 8.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.*

DISTRIBUTION OF LIBRARIES AND OF VOLUMES.

States and Territories.	Libraries.	Volumes	Estimated population in 1895.	Number of people per library.	Books per 100 of population.
United States	4,026	33,051,872	69,954,000	17,376	47
North Atlantic Division	2,000	17,647,723	19,318,000	9,659	91
South Atlantic Division	322	4,015,087	9,436,000	29,305	43
South Central Division	255	1,360,451	12,091,000	47,416	11
North Central Division	1,195	8,016,780	25,234,000	21,116	32
Western Division	254	2,011,831	3,875,000	15,256	52
North Atlantic Division:					
Maine	93	542,666	666,000	7,161	81
New Hampshire	122	595,800	391,000	3,205	152
Vermont	67	359,213	333,000	4,970	109
Massachusetts	494	5,450,397	2,675,000	5,415	204
Rhode Island	74	580,305	382,000	5,162	152
Connecticut	154	1,102,082	821,000	5,331	134
New York	572	5,251,347	6,557,000	11,463	80
New Jersey	94	801,152	1,632,000	17,362	49
Pennsylvania	330	2,964,761	5,861,000	17,761	51
South Atlantic Division:					
Delaware	14	83,763	180,000	12,857	47
Maryland	67	985,330	1,095,000	16,343	90
District of Columbia	55	1,793,910	284,000	5,164	632
Virginia	50	341,225	1,722,000	34,400	20
West Virginia	10	46,137	835,000	83,500	6
North Carolina	40	218,757	1,690,000	42,250	13
South Carolina	32	232,418	1,195,000	37,34[illegible]	19
Georgia	41	270,041	1,960,000	47,8[illegible]	14
Florida	13	43,506	475,000	36,538	9
South Central Division:					
Kentucky	47	318,661	1,955,000	41,596	16
Tennessee	62	318,571	1,890,000	30,484	17
Alabama	28	117,337	1,625,000	58,036	7
Mississippi	31	166,870	1,350,000	43,548	12
Louisiana	27	212,828	1,190,000	44,074	18
Texas	39	131,222	2,445,000	62,692	5
Arkansas	17	87,600	1,290,000	75,882	7
Oklahoma	2	5,157	145,000	72,500	4
Indian Territory	2	2,205	201,000	100,500	1
North Central Division:					
Ohio	202	1,587,891	3,882,000	19,218	41
Indiana	107	654,651	2,290,000	21,402	29
Illinois	214	1,822,580	4,200,000	19,626	43
Michigan	153	975,031	2,350,000	15,360	42
Wisconsin	102	626,442	1,939,000	19,010	32
Minnesota	75	467,397	1,660,000	22,133	28
Iowa	113	607,765	2,025,000	17,920	30
Missouri	104	686,955	2,970,000	28,558	23
North Dakota	6	23,682	316,000	52,667	7
South Dakota	14	34,863	522,000	37,286	7
Nebraska	42	226,743	1,490,000	35,476	15
Kansas	63	302,780	1,590,000	25,238	13
Western Division:					
Montana	13	69,222	217,000	16,692	32
Wyoming	4	23,785	91,000	22,750	26
Colorado	34	300,990	546,000	16,059	55
New Mexico	6	13,276	173,000	28,833	8
Arizona	4	17,472	67,000	16,750	26
Utah	11	49,582	255,000	23,182	19
Nevada	6	49,989	45,000	7,500	111
Idaho	5	13,023	126,000	25,200	10
Washington	20	76,646	575,000	28,750	13
Oregon	16	90,190	388,000	24,250	23
California	135	1,307,659	1,392,000	10,311	94

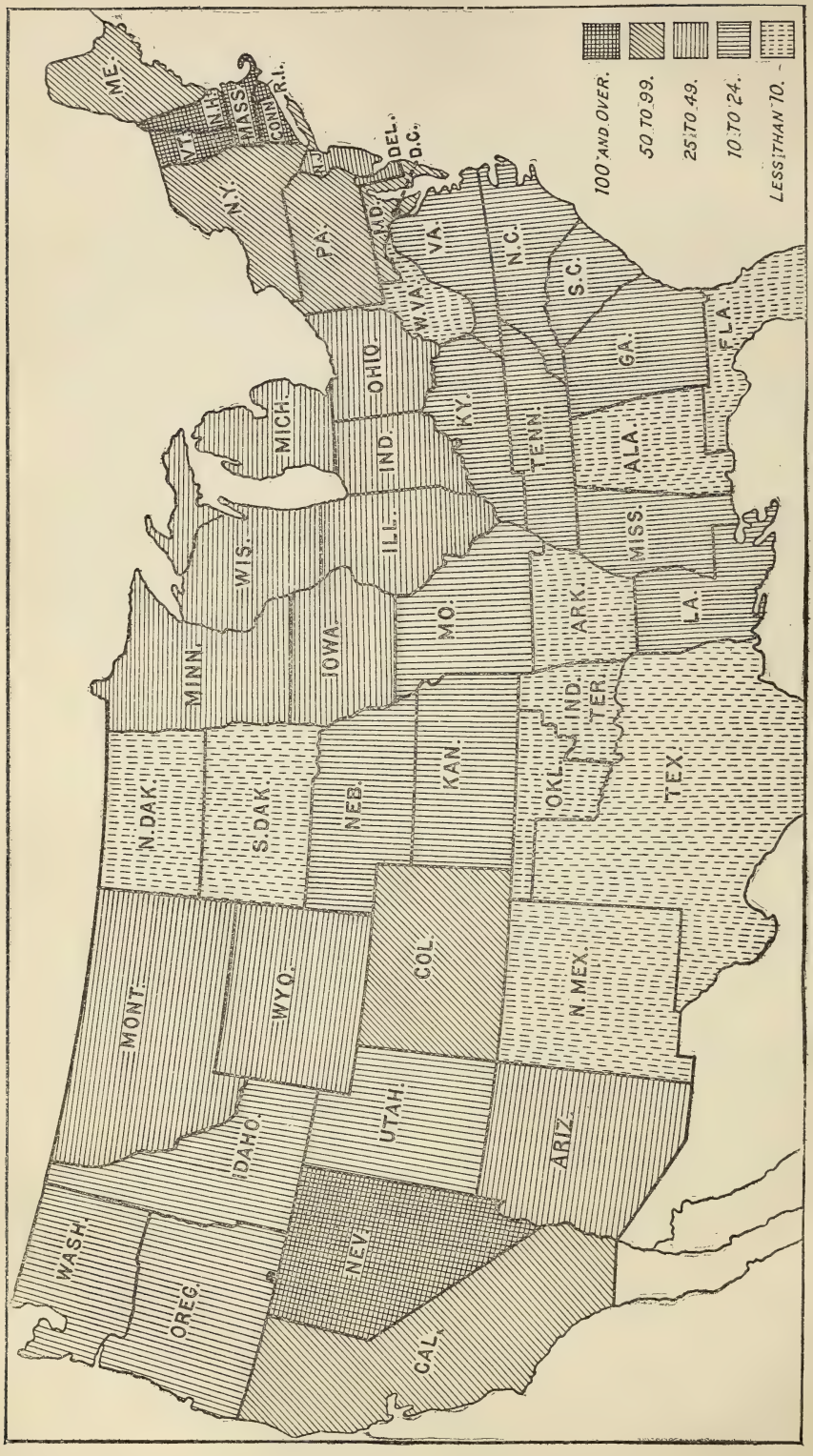


Chart showing relative number volumes to each 100 population in 1896.

TABLE 9.—*Summary of statistics of libraries in 1875 of 300 volumes and over.*

NUMBER OF LIBRARIES AND NUMBER OF VOLUMES.

States and Territories.	Libraries having 1,000 volumes and over.		Libraries having less than 1,000 volumes.		Total libraries.	Total volumes.
	Libraries.	Volumes.	Libraries.	Volumes.		
United States	2,039	11,487,778	1,609	841,748	3,648	12,329,526
North Atlantic Division	1,127	6,714,765	818	431,357	1,945	7,146,122
South Atlantic Division	223	1,776,099	128	65,708	351	1,841,807
South Central Division	138	580,179	142	70,654	280	650,833
North Central Division	482	2,045,797	455	240,527	937	2,286,324
Western Division	69	370,938	66	33,502	135	404,440
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine	47	211,644	38	21,136	85	232,780
New Hampshire	54	190,146	32	15,607	86	205,753
Vermont	33	119,483	32	14,815	65	134,298
Massachusetts	307	2,128,734	146	78,405	453	2,207,139
Rhode Island	34	210,063	22	13,073	56	223,136
Connecticut	67	394,750	58	29,496	125	424,246
New York	310	1,980,445	307	167,229	617	2,147,674
New Jersey	53	262,993	38	17,938	91	280,931
Pennsylvania	222	1,216,507	145	73,658	367	1,290,165
South Atlantic Division:						
Delaware	7	41,300	11	5,740	18	47,040
Maryland	47	366,634	30	15,707	77	382,341
District of Columbia	46	756,288	11	4,645	57	760,933
Virginia	44	236,955	19	10,301	63	247,256
West Virginia	9	32,000	14	6,575	23	38,575
North Carolina	25	113,507	12	6,200	37	119,707
South Carolina	16	107,679	10	5,782	26	113,461
Georgia	26	109,236	18	9,108	44	118,344
Florida	3	12,500	3	1,650	6	14,150
South Central Division:						
Kentucky	34	184,505	38	19,710	72	204,215
Tennessee	37	125,212	34	17,533	71	142,745
Alabama	19	55,090	12	5,525	31	60,615
Mississippi	10	31,929	13	6,581	23	38,510
Louisiana	20	126,812	11	5,066	31	131,878
Texas	15	48,607	27	13,024	42	61,631
Arkansas	2	7,024	4	1,625	6	8,649
Oklahoma						
Indian Territory	1	1,000	3	1,590	4	2,590
North Central Division:						
Ohio	119	578,736	104	56,463	223	635,199
Indiana	55	200,527	78	40,342	133	240,869
Illinois	98	424,231	79	42,147	177	466,378
Michigan	43	185,854	46	25,861	89	211,715
Wisconsin	41	169,004	32	15,710	73	184,714
Minnesota	16	59,359	23	13,471	39	72,830
Iowa	42	121,500	37	18,760	79	140,260
Missouri	47	242,614	40	19,738	87	262,352
North Dakota	1	1,900	3	1,983	4	3,883
South Dakota						
Nebraska	7	24,264	7	2,996	14	27,260
Kansas	13	37,808	6	3,056	19	40,864
Western Division:						
Montana	1	1,250	1	550	2	1,800
Wyoming	1	3,011	2	1,475	3	4,486
Colorado	5	10,997	3	1,257	8	12,254
New Mexico	1	4,500	3	1,485	4	5,985
Arizona	1	2,600	2	628	3	3,228
Utah	2	9,253	3	1,600	5	10,853
Nevada	3	15,000	3	1,100	6	16,100
Idaho	1	1,846			1	1,846
Washington	1	6,459	1	500	2	6,959
Oregon	6	25,292	8	3,650	14	28,942
California	47	290,730	40	21,257	87	311,987

TABLE 10.—*Summary of statistics of libraries in 1885 of 300 volumes and over.*

NUMBER OF LIBRARIES AND NUMBER OF VOLUMES.

States and Territories.	Libraries having 1,000 volumes and over.		Libraries having less than 1,000 volumes.		Total libraries.	Total volumes.
	Libraries.	Volumes.	Libraries.	Volumes.		
United States	2,988	19,401,199	2,350	1,321,194	5,338	20,722,393
North Atlantic Division	1,545	10,722,466	960	525,646	2,505	11,248,112
South Atlantic Division	289	2,753,420	155	80,622	444	2,834,042
South Central Division	200	846,838	159	163,778	359	1,010,616
North Central Division	815	4,129,203	911	469,759	1,726	4,598,962
Western Division	139	949,272	165	81,389	304	1,030,661
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine	74	353,549	62	35,062	136	388,611
New Hampshire	78	328,606	51	25,837	129	354,443
Vermont	42	204,317	33	18,120	75	222,437
Massachusetts	426	3,489,159	143	80,536	569	3,569,695
Rhode Island	65	387,157	13	7,873	78	395,030
Connecticut	98	663,070	81	44,089	179	707,159
New York	397	2,959,798	383	208,504	780	3,168,302
New Jersey	74	436,581	52	27,081	126	463,662
Pennsylvania	291	1,900,229	142	78,544	433	1,978,773
South Atlantic Division:						
Delaware	12	60,562	6	3,758	18	64,320
Maryland	62	600,544	27	14,950	89	615,494
District of Columbia	53	1,197,169	13	6,587	66	1,203,756
Virginia	46	307,235	29	14,612	75	321,847
West Virginia	6	30,000	13	6,138	19	36,138
North Carolina	35	145,685	22	12,365	57	158,050
South Carolina	28	170,679	12	5,884	40	176,563
Georgia	42	219,446	24	11,768	66	231,214
Florida	5	22,100	9	4,560	14	26,660
South Central Division:						
Kentucky	54	255,856	45	24,654	99	280,510
Tennessee	44	180,614	28	14,572	72	195,186
Alabama	23	85,083	18	10,220	41	95,303
Mississippi	23	89,140	14	6,932	37	96,072
Louisiana	23	130,858	19	89,001	42	219,859
Texas	22	57,521	20	10,221	42	67,742
Arkansas	8	43,500	8	4,643	16	48,143
Oklahoma						
Indian Territory	3	4,266	7	3,535	10	7,801
North Central Division:						
Ohio	158	998,821	132	71,438	290	1,070,259
Indiana	82	371,759	88	42,569	170	414,328
Illinois	172	853,624	145	75,776	317	929,400
Michigan	103	475,934	236	116,226	339	592,160
Wisconsin	62	363,882	52	26,901	114	390,783
Minnesota	36	155,544	46	23,397	82	178,941
Iowa	68	286,938	52	30,392	120	317,330
Missouri	69	380,521	77	37,385	146	417,906
North Dakota	7	10,830	11	5,720	18	16,550
South Dakota						
Nebraska	19	80,718	29	15,626	48	96,344
Kansas	39	150,632	43	24,329	82	174,961
Western Division:						
Montana	2	12,200	4	2,200	6	14,400
Wyoming	1	10,000	3	1,892	4	11,892
Colorado	17	56,377	13	7,351	30	63,728
New Mexico	4	13,470	2	900	6	14,370
Arizona	2	7,456	2	1,200	4	8,656
Utah	7	23,499	7	4,035	14	27,534
Nevada	5	25,977	2	850	7	26,827
Idaho	3	7,000	3	1,800	6	8,800
Washington	7	12,436	11	6,126	18	18,562
Oregon	11	44,789	10	5,051	21	49,840
California	80	736,068	108	49,984	188	786,052

TABLE 11.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries of 300 volumes and over and less than 1,000 volumes in 1896.*

LIBRARIES, VOLUMES, AND CLASSIFICATION.

States and Territories.	Libraries.	Volumes.	Free or subscription.				Classification.			
			Free.	Free for reference.	Subscription.	Not reported.	School.	College.	General.	All others.
United States	3,158	1,544,386	679	88	210	2,181	2,455	155	289	259
North Atlantic Division	912	496,441	328	38	82	464	609	7	177	119
South Atlantic Division	176	84,832	21	5	17	133	117	33	5	21
South Central Division	242	115,504	24	15	21	182	159	54	7	22
North Central Division	1,043	510,154	271	19	67	686	833	52	80	78
Western Division	785	337,455	35	11	23	716	737	9	20	19
North Atlantic Division:										
Maine	34	19,145	13	.....	6	15	22	.....	5	7
New Hampshire	75	40,176	61	.....	3	11	13	.....	55	7
Vermont	33	16,039	7	6	3	17	19	.....	9	5
Massachusetts	136	76,041	66	.....	11	59	68	.....	45	23
Rhode Island	16	8,807	.....	3	3	10	10	.....	3	3
Connecticut	63	32,487	18	1	15	29	37	.....	22	4
New York	282	160,124	122	8	23	129	213	2	24	43
New Jersey	116	60,684	25	.....	3	88	104	1	3	8
Pennsylvania	157	82,938	16	20	15	106	123	4	11	19
South Atlantic Division:										
Delaware	7	4,174	2	.....	2	3	3	1	1	2
Maryland	26	12,817	4	.....	3	19	15	1	2	8
District of Columbia	9	4,913	1	.....	1	7	8	1	.....	.....
Virginia	37	17,490	.....	1	3	33	24	8	.....	5
West Virginia	18	9,426	1	2	1	14	14	3	1	.....
North Carolina	22	10,157	3	1	1	17	17	4	.....	1
South Carolina	18	8,100	.....	1	3	14	9	6	1	2
Georgia	31	13,842	7	.....	2	22	24	6	.....	1
Florida	8	3,913	3	.....	1	4	3	3	.....	2
South Central Division:										
Kentucky	48	22,657	5	.....	7	36	29	10	1	8
Tennessee	51	23,897	1	7	5	38	32	11	3	5
Alabama	19	9,178	3	1	1	14	11	7	.....	1
Mississippi	30	13,744	8	.....	3	19	17	10	1	2
Louisiana	14	6,900	1	.....	1	12	12	.....	1	1
Texas	51	26,257	1	6	2	42	34	13	1	3
Arkansas	22	9,806	4	1	1	16	18	3	.....	1
Oklahoma	1	600	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
Indian Territory	6	2,465	.....	.....	1	5	6	.....	.....	.....
North Central Division:										
Ohio	144	68,529	19	9	8	108	127	1	7	9
Indiana	88	41,258	25	.....	6	57	76	.....	6	6
Illinois	134	66,992	40	.....	12	82	107	5	6	16
Michigan	127	66,241	49	.....	4	74	109	1	9	8
Wisconsin	87	43,416	16	6	4	61	77	1	6	3
Minnesota	79	41,539	36	.....	6	37	62	4	9	4
Iowa	139	65,550	28	.....	14	97	97	8	20	14
Missouri	108	50,924	26	.....	5	77	73	18	6	11
North Dakota	17	7,463	1	2	.....	14	16	1	.....	.....
South Dakota	12	5,425	1	2	1	8	9	1	1	1
Nebraska	36	18,495	10	.....	3	23	27	5	4	.....
Kansas	72	34,322	20	.....	4	48	53	7	6	6
Western Division:										
Montana	9	5,790	4	.....	1	4	7	.....	1	1
Wyoming	1	450	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	21	10,071	4	3	2	12	17	.....	2	2
New Mexico	4	2,237	2	.....	.....	2	2	1	.....	1
Arizona	2	1,272	.....	.....	.....	2	2	.....	.....	.....
Utah	13	6,427	1	.....	1	11	11	.....	1	1
Nevada	2	600	1	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	1
Idaho	2	900	.....	.....	1	1	2	.....	.....	.....
Washington	10	4,973	.....	2	3	5	6	2	2	.....
Oregon	22	10,091	2	2	5	13	13	3	2	4
California	699	294,644	21	4	10	664	675	3	12	9

TABLE 12.—*Summary of statistics of public, society, and school libraries in 1896 of 300 volumes and over.*

NUMBER OF LIBRARIES AND NUMBER OF VOLUMES.

States and Territories.	Libraries having 1,000 volumes and over.		Libraries having less than 1,000 but over 299.		Total libraries of 300 volumes and over.	
	Libraries.	Volumes.	Libraries.	Volumes.	Libraries.	Volumes.
United States	4,026	33,051,872	3,158	1,544,386	7,184	34,596,258
North Atlantic Division	2,000	17,647,723	912	496,441	2,912	18,144,164
South Atlantic Division	322	4,015,087	176	84,832	498	4,099,919
South Central Division	255	1,360,451	242	115,504	497	1,475,955
North Central Division	1,195	8,016,780	1,043	510,154	2,238	8,526,934
Western Division	254	2,011,831	785	337,455	1,039	2,349,286
North Atlantic Division:						
Maine	93	542,666	34	19,145	127	561,811
New Hampshire	122	595,800	75	40,176	197	635,976
Vermont	67	359,213	33	16,039	100	375,252
Massachusetts	494	5,450,397	136	76,041	630	5,526,438
Rhode Island	74	580,305	16	8,807	90	589,112
Connecticut	154	1,102,082	63	32,487	217	1,134,569
New York	572	5,251,347	282	160,124	854	5,411,471
New Jersey	94	801,152	116	60,684	210	861,836
Pennsylvania	330	2,964,761	157	82,938	487	3,047,699
South Atlantic Division:						
Delaware	14	83,763	7	4,174	21	87,937
Maryland	67	985,330	26	12,817	93	998,147
District of Columbia	55	1,793,910	9	4,913	64	1,798,823
Virginia	50	341,225	37	17,490	87	358,715
West Virginia	10	46,137	18	9,426	28	55,563
North Carolina	40	218,757	22	10,157	62	228,914
South Carolina	32	232,418	18	8,100	50	240,518
Georgia	41	270,041	31	13,842	72	283,883
Florida	13	43,506	8	3,913	21	47,419
South Central Division:						
Kentucky	47	318,661	48	22,657	95	341,318
Tennessee	62	318,571	51	23,897	113	342,468
Alabama	28	117,337	19	9,178	47	126,515
Mississippi	31	166,870	30	13,744	61	180,614
Louisiana	27	212,828	14	6,900	41	219,728
Texas	39	131,222	51	26,257	90	157,479
Arkansas	17	87,600	22	9,806	39	97,406
Oklahoma	2	5,157	1	600	3	5,757
Indian Territory	2	2,295	6	2,465	8	4,670
North Central Division:						
Ohio	202	1,587,891	144	68,529	346	1,656,420
Indiana	107	654,651	88	41,258	195	695,909
Illinois	214	1,822,580	134	66,992	348	1 889,572
Michigan	153	975,031	127	66,241	280	1 041 272
Wisconsin	102	626,442	87	43,416	189	669 858
Minnesota	75	467,397	79	41,539	154	508 936
Iowa	113	607,765	139	65,550	252	673,315
Missouri	104	686,955	108	50,924	212	737,879
North Dakota	6	23,682	17	7,463	23	31,145
South Dakota	14	34,863	12	5,425	26	40,288
Nebraska	42	226,743	36	18,495	78	245,238
Kansas	63	302,780	72	34,322	135	337,102
Western Division:						
Montana	13	69,222	9	5,790	22	75,012
Wyoming	4	23,785	1	450	5	24,235
Colorado	34	300,990	21	10,071	55	311,061
New Mexico	6	13,273	4	2,237	10	15,510
Arizona	4	17,472	2	1,272	6	18,744
Utah	11	49,582	13	6,427	24	56,009
Nevada	6	49,989	2	600	8	50,589
Idaho	5	13,023	2	900	7	13,923
Washington	20	76,646	10	4,973	30	81,619
Oregon	16	90,190	22	10,091	38	100,281
California	35	1,307,659	699	294,644	834	1,602,303

TABLE 13.—*Summary of Statistics of libraries entirely free to the public having 3,000 volumes and over.*

States and Territories.	Libraries.	Volumes in libraries.	Aggregate volumes issued for home use during the year.
United States	627	9,062,363	27,015,234
North Atlantic Division	421	5,846,612	15,205,998
South Atlantic Division	10	255,297	848,631
South Central Division	8	61,000	117,863
North Central Division	155	2,414,181	8,679,783
Western Division	33	485,273	2,162,959
North Atlantic Division:			
Maine	19	147,035	402,309
New Hampshire	33	250,412	589,103
Vermont	16	128,273	270,355
Massachusetts	194	3,062,101	5,913,568
Rhode Island	24	238,477	418,051
Connecticut	33	330,718	1,204,403
New York	60	1,034,544	2,801,195
New Jersey	13	210,872	1,160,220
Pennsylvania	29	444,180	2,446,794
South Atlantic Division:			
Delaware	2	28,834	138,255
Maryland	1	166,854	548,278
District of Columbia	2	12,762	72,680
Virginia			
West Virginia	1	14,347	58,345
North Carolina	1	6,000	1,634
South Carolina			
Georgia	2	22,000	28,439
Florida	1	4,500	1,000
South Central Division:			
Kentucky	1	4,000	8,000
Tennessee	3	23,500	36,024
Alabama	1	5,000	4,188
Mississippi			
Louisiana	2	22,000	44,000
Texas	1	6,500	25,651
Arkansas			
Oklahoma			
Indian Territory			
North Central Division:			
Ohio	19	413,734	999,698
Indiana	16	193,526	690,265
Illinois	39	634,791	2,574,801
Michigan	26	429,323	1,244,238
Wisconsin	17	199,401	732,937
Minnesota	9	176,420	869,691
Iowa	14	122,656	388,490
Missouri	5	138,663	665,052
North Dakota			
South Dakota			
Nebraska	5	74,870	353,011
Kansas	5	30,797	161,600
Western Division:			
Montana	4	43,224	167,774
Wyoming	1	3,500	9,980
Colorado	5	82,674	435,139
New Mexico			
Arizona	1	3,000	6,000
Utah			
Nevada	1	10,587	5,232
Idaho			
Washington	3	22,379	116,420
Oregon			
California	18	319,909	1,422,414

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public having 3,000 volumes and over.*

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
ALABAMA.			
Birmingham	Public Library	5,000	4,188
ARIZONA.			
Tucson	Public Library	3,000	*6,000
CALIFORNIA.			
Alameda	Public Library	20,342	114,784
Berkeley	do	3,000	6,746
Los Angeles	do	43,238	371,638
Marysville	City Library	5,940	4,300
Napa	Free Public Library	5,092	15,842
Oakland	do	25,000	118,605
Pasadena	Public Library	10,000	75,710
Petaluma	do	6,835	10,475
Riverside	Free Public Library	7,337	55,506
Sacramento	do	25,575	69,220
San Diego	do	13,000	64,545
San Francisco	do	85,000	244,483
San Jose	do	13,118	100,555
San Rafael	Free Library	3,061	11,460
Santa Barbara	Free Public Library	10,770	36,778
Santa Cruz	Free Library	9,596	39,004
Santa Rosa	Free Public Library	7,005	*14,010
Stockton	Free Public and Hazelton Library	26,000	68,753
COLORADO.			
Denver	City Library	29,005	147,076
Do	Public Library	32,243	219,562
La Junta	Young Folks' Library	7,777	7,803
Pueblo	McClelland Public Library	6,589	46,578
Trinidad	Free Public Library	7,060	*14,120
CONNECTICUT.			
Branford	Blackstone Memorial Library	6,000	*12,000
Bridgeport	Public Library and Reading Room	26,092	124,175
Bristol	Free Public Library	5,854	32,316
Canaan	Douglass Library	3,500	15,500
Columbia	Free Library	3,300	2,000
Danbury	Danbury Library	12,801	70,641
Danielson	Free Public Library	3,600	17,672
Farmington	Village Library	3,193	6,595
Hartford	Public Library	50,000	207,685
Jewett City	Slater Library	3,355	8,666
Lyme	Old Lyme Public Library	3,600	*7,200
Middletown	Russell Free Library	10,783	20,976
Milford	Taylor Library	7,000	31,300
Moodus	East Haddam Public Library	3,900	5,857
Naugatuck	Howard Whittemore Memorial Library	4,047	17,256
New Haven	Free Public Library	31,500	232,014
New London	Public Library	15,550	70,735
Norfolk	Norfolk Library	7,175	13,795
Norwalk	Public Library	3,300	500
Norwich	Otis Library	20,559	97,562
Salisbury	Scoville Memorial Library	3,300	11,631
Shelton	Plumb Memorial Library	3,400	16,764
Simsbury	Free Library	4,000	5,000
South Manchester	do	4,396	14,002
South Norwalk	Public Library and Reading Room	3,000	18,470
Southport	Pequot Library	8,000	12,699
Stonington	Free Library	3,700	11,804
Stratford	Stratford Library	4,500	*9,000
Warrenville	Babcock Library	3,247	*6,494
Waterbury	Silas Bronson Library	51,954	71,005
Watertown	Library Association	7,412	11,733
Willimantic	Dunham Hall Library	4,500	8,685
Do	Public Library	4,200	12,671
DELAWARE.			
Odessa	Corbit Library	3,132	1,040
Wilmington	Wilmington Institute Free Library	25,702	137,215

* Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.			
Washington	Peabody Library Association	8,000	*10,000
Do	Washington City Free Library	4,762	55,680
FLORIDA.			
St. Augustine	Free Public Library	4,500	1,000
GEORGIA.			
Atlanta	Young Men's Library Association	17,000	20,000
Washington	Mary Willis Library	5,000	8,439
ILLINOIS.			
Aurora	Public Library	14,350	90,117
Batavia	do	5,450	18,127
Belleville	do	14,511	20,529
Belvidere	Ida Public Library	9,362	23,950
Bloomington	Withers Public Library	16,068	79,562
Cairo	Public Library	7,100	17,565
Cambridge	do	4,650	*9,300
Centralia	do	3,500	*7,000
Champaign	do	5,838	15,171
Chicago	do	217,065	1,147,862
Danville	do	8,000	30,000
Decatur	Free Public Library	14,766	86,774
Elgin	Gail Borden Public Library	17,000	121,911
Evanston	Free Public Library	15,515	55,271
Freeport	Public Library	9,375	41,088
Galesburg	do	18,469	53,782
Geneseo	do	6,000	*12,000
Jacksonville	do	7,500	30,616
Joliet	do	12,325	59,954
Kewanee	do	7,400	20,142
Lincoln	do	4,178	23,443
Macomb	Free Public Library	6,882	23,316
Mendota	Graves Public Library	4,150	17,909
Moline	Public Library	8,956	19,554
Olney	do	3,383	11,969
Onarga	do	3,760	11,253
Ottawa	Reddick Public Library	8,000	28,077
Palo	Buffalo Free Public Library	3,187	5,747
Peoria	Public Library	57,604	131,691
Princeton	Matson Public Library	7,000	21,000
Quincy	Free Public Library and Reading Room	19,400	71,058
Rockford	Public Library	28,000	93,809
Rock Island	do	12,634	36,523
Rockton	Talcott Free Library	3,075	7,500
Springfield	Public Library	28,639	72,960
Sterling	do	7,526	21,476
Urbana	Free Library	7,500	19,960
Warsaw	Free Public Library	3,733	8,717
Wheaton	Adams Memorial Library	3,000	7,518
INDIANA.			
Anderson	Public Library	3,000	31,573
Evansville	Willard Library	21,743	45,919
Fort Wayne	Public Library	6,206	38,196
Greencastle	do	4,597	15,038
Indianapolis	do	62,270	233,776
Kokomo	do	5,028	22,645
Lafayette	do	14,280	59,277
Madison	do	7,000	13,676
Marion	do	3,500	21,000
Muncie	do	9,784	18,181
New Albany	do	8,665	42,256
Plymouth	City Library	4,912	4,000
Richmond	Morrison Reeves Library	20,314	62,389
South Bend	Public Library	6,000	24,069
Terre Haute	do	12,000	35,361
Vincennes	do	4,227	22,909
IOWA.			
Boone	Free Public Library	3,105	10,160
Burlington	Public Library	14,928	44,436
Cedar Falls	do	4,100	5,860
Cedar Rapids	Iowa Masonic Library	15,000	350

* Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
IOWA—continued.			
Council Bluffs	Public Library	19,886	62,970
Des Moines	do	19,158	98,292
Fort Dodge	Free Public Library	7,380	17,160
Independence	do	4,000	10,800
Keokuk	Public Library	12,203	52,333
Le Mars	do	3,000	15,502
Manchester	Free Public Library	3,025	9,987
Nevada	Public Library	3,271	8,507
Sioux City	do	9,600	39,133
Washington	Free Public Library	4,000	13,000
KANSAS.			
Emporia	Free Library	4,000	18,197
Newton	do	3,897	12,932
Paola	Free City Library	4,400	10,000
Peabody	Public Library	5,000	39,729
Topeka	Free Public Library	13,500	89,742
KENTUCKY.			
Louisville	Grand Lodge of Kentucky, F. and A. M.	4,000	*8,000
LOUISIANA.			
New Orleans	Fisk Free and Public Library	18,000	*36,000
Do	Grand Lodge F. and A. M.	4,000	*8,000
MAINE.			
Auburn	Public Library	5,414	32,760
Augusta	Lithgow Library and Reading Room	7,000	*14,000
Bar Harbor	Bar Harbor Library	5,200	9,044
Bath	Patten Free Library	7,874	32,331
Belfast	Free Library	7,192	23,951
Biddeford	Public Library	6,000	9,000
Brunswick	do	6,000	21,000
Calais	Free Library	4,891	19,143
Cumberland Mills	Cumberland Mills Library	3,000	9,050
Dexter	Town Library	4,373	18,381
Eastport	Public Library	4,977	19,333
Ellsworth	City Library	3,640	*7,280
Gardiner	Public Library	5,610	8,756
Hallowell	Hubbard Free Library	8,500	13,079
Kittery	Rice Public Library	5,000	13,952
Norway	Public Library	5,000	3,000
Portland	do	41,583	86,269
Saco	Dyer Library	10,500	27,000
Westbrook	Memorial Library	5,281	34,980
MARYLAND.			
Baltimore	Enoch Pratt Free Library	166,854	548,273
MASSACHUSETTS.			
Abington	Abington Public Library	10,732	19,691
Acton	Acton Memorial Library	5,590	8,766
Adams	Public Library	7,191	22,671
Amesbury	Free Public Library	7,500	27,757
Amherst	Public Library	7,070	17,867
Andover	Memorial Hall Library	13,826	20,314
Arlington	Robbins Library	13,958	38,579
Ashfield	Library Association	4,200	3,500
Ashland	Public Library	4,000	1,348
Athol	do	4,582	*9,164
Attleboro	do	4,200	24,000
Ayer	Ayer Library	6,924	8,913
Barnstable	Sturgis Library	12,718	3,500
Barre	Free Public Library	5,445	7,147
Bedford	do	4,064	6,305
Belchertown	Clapp Memorial Library	5,000	10,204
Belmont	Public Library	9,113	11,966
Bernardston	Cushman Library	5,800	6,557
Beverly	Public Library	19,265	41,863
Blackstone	Free Public Library	5,560	6,854
Boston	Public Library	630,961	847,321
Boylston Center	Boylston Public Library	3,769	3,553

* Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.			
Bradford	Public Library	3,914	21,664
Bridgewater	....do	9,929	23,808
Brimfield	Free Public Library	3,962	3,445
Brockton	Public Library	23,533	102,835
Brookfield	Merrick Public Library	13,417	25,417
Brookline	Public Library	43,768	88,633
Cambridge	....do	50,128	137,702
Canton	....do	8,450	17,101
Chelmsford	Adams Library	4,715	10,960
Chelsea	Fitz Public Library	14,789	70,423
Chicopee	City Library	16,000	46,144
Clinton	Bigelow Free Public Library	20,600	45,018
Cohasset	Free Public Library	5,505	8,692
Concord	....do	27,848	26,074
Cummington	Bryant Free Library	6,500	*13,000
Dalton	Free Public Library	6,145	15,833
Danvers	Peabody Institute	16,585	24,256
Dedham	Public Library	13,500	27,092
Deerfield	Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association Library	6,000	*12,000
Enfield	Enfield Library	3,000	4,320
Everett	Parlin Memorial Library	10,112	54,033
Fairhaven	Millicent Library	12,000	54,000
Fall River	Public Library	49,395	109,343
Falmouth	Free Public Library	3,040	8,086
Fitchburg	Public Library	30,000	57,095
Florence	Lilly Library	5,800	11,461
Foxboro	Boyden Public Library	4,300	15,758
Framingham	Town Library	18,101	42,564
Franklin	Public Library	6,000	10,000
Gardner	Levi Heywood Memorial Library	6,519	19,153
Georgetown	Peabody Library	8,744	7,843
Gloucester	Gloucester Lyceum and Sawyer Free Library	10,000	23,868
Grafton	Public Library	8,790	33,124
Great Barrington	Free Library	6,000	1,500
Greenfield	....do	9,550	36,537
Groton	Public Library	7,268	7,675
Hanover	Free Library	3,356	7,060
Harvard	Public Library	4,007	4,998
Harwich	Brooks Free Library	5,000	*10,000
Hatfield	Public Library	5,000	5,000
Haverhill	....do	58,000	80,392
Hingham Center	Hingham Public Library	10,000	13,155
Hinsdale	Public Library	3,500	5,000
Holbrook	....do	7,244	12,979
Holden	Gale Free Library	4,189	6,273
Holliston	Public Library	5,336	14,574
Holyoke	....do	18,000	46,692
Hopedale	....do	5,079	8,429
Hopkinton	....do	3,000	8,300
Hubbardston	....do	5,625	5,558
Hudson	....do	8,000	24,000
Hydepark	....do	14,250	33,578
Lancaster	Town Library	26,204	14,489
Lawrence	Free Public Library	44,713	103,444
Lee	Public Library	4,000	*8,000
Leicester	....do	8,217	8,954
Lenox	Lenox Library	11,000	7,286
Leominster	Public Library	16,781	40,312
Lexington	Cary Library	15,290	25,131
Lincoln	Lincoln Library	6,000	4,300
Littleton	Reuben Hoar Library	6,476	5,846
Lowell	City Library	53,825	128,800
Lunenburg	Public Library	3,770	5,636
Lynn	Free Public Library	51,991	119,549
Malden	Public Library	28,000	98,658
Manchester	....do	8,200	11,115
Marlboro	....do	12,000	46,120
Maynard	....do	4,160	40,000
Medfield	....do	4,050	9,648
Medford	....do	18,000	52,985
Melrose	....do	11,209	36,276
Mendon	Taft Public Library	3,408	4,246
Merrimac	Public Library	5,000	8,683
Methuen	Nevins Memorial Library	12,815	14,000
Middleboro	Public Library	6,892	23,761
Middleton	Flint Public Library	4,570	5,225

*Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.			
Milford	Town Library	9,772	28,756
Millbury	do	8,000	15,000
Milton	Public Library	11,000	13,378
Monson	Free Library	5,793	10,287
Montague	Town Library	4,345	7,870
Nahant	Public Library	9,800	8,741
Natick	Morse Institute	17,500	33,690
Needham	Free Public Library	4,100	13,508
New Bedford	do	70,000	103,128
Newburyport	Public Library	31,261	38,830
Newton	Free Library	49,775	164,341
North Abington	Public Library	3,768	9,094
North Adams	do	14,270	58,170
Northampton	Forbes Library	35,650	8,924
Do	Public Library	28,347	56,753
North Andover Depot	North Andover Public Library	8,000	19,000
North Attleboro	Richards Memorial Library	5,000	24,984
Northboro	Free Library	9,142	7,751
North Brookfield	Free Public Library and Reading Room	5,128	24,364
North Easton	Ames Free Library	13,974	14,216
Northfield	Public Library	4,013	4,378
North Reading	Flint Library	4,024	7,018
Norton	Public Library	4,000	5,619
Norwood	do	6,570	16,374
Orleans	The Snow Library	3,200	5,880
Oxford	Free Public Library	5,394	11,439
Palmer	Young Men's Library Association	4,290	12,273
Peabody	Peabody Institute Library	32,893	28,715
Pepperell	Public Library	7,000	9,766
Petersham	Memorial Library	8,000	5,000
Phillipston	Phillips Free Public Library	4,903	4,050
Pittsfield	Berkshire Athenæum	24,000	60,000
Plymouth	Public Library	11,300	30,280
Princeton	do	3,900	4,314
Provincetown	do	6,519	11,812
Quincy	Thomas Crane Public Library	18,500	70,075
Randolph	Turner Free Library	15,000	23,794
Reading	Public Library	7,704	21,165
Revere	do	4,900	23,490
Rockland	do	9,185	21,193
Salem	do	31,775	108,071
Saugus	Free Public Library	3,958	11,744
Sharon	Public Library	4,444	10,364
Shelburne Falls	Arms Library	7,955	*15,910
Sherborn	Town Library	4,900	*9,800
Shrewsbury	Free Public Library	3,950	7,210
Somerville	Public Library	30,981	68,231
Southboro	Fay Library	7,049	5,488
South Braintree	Thayer Public Library	10,877	20,983
Southbridge	Public Library	15,921	19,752
South Natick	Bacon Free Library	4,600	4,500
South Sudbury	Goodnow Library	12,000	14,000
Spencer	Richard Sugden Library	9,735	27,135
Springfield	City Library Association	93,374	119,000
Sterling	Free Public Library	6,000	5,962
Stockbridge	Library Association	7,000	7,700
Stoneham	Free Public Library	8,395	20,145
Stoughton	Public Library	6,041	26,835
Stow	Randall Library	3,500	11,250
Sturbridge	Public Library	4,500	5,343
Sutton	Free Library	3,491	6,422
Taunton	Public Library	40,540	73,009
Templeton	Boynton Public Library	4,851	13,825
Tewksbury	Public Library	4,617	6,191
Topsfield	Town Library	6,892	6,435
Turners Falls	Montague Public Library	4,345	14,548
Tyngsboro	Public Library	4,089	2,394
Upton	Town Library	3,210	7,901
Uxbridge	Public Library	8,040	12,708
Wakefield	Beebe Town Library	12,157	21,849
Walpole	Public Library	6,700	19,420
Waltham	do	23,000	50,000
Ware	Young Men's Library Association	10,882	24,714
Warren	Public Library	9,136	13,922
Warwick	Free Library	3,160	3,254
Watertown	Free Public Library	23,429	35,181
Wayland	do	12,374	5,706

*Circulation estimated.

TABLE 11.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
MASSACHUSETTS—continued.			
Webster	Public Library	3,950	19,739
Wellesley	Free Library	9,194	16,422
Westboro	Free Public Library	9,834	32,064
West Boylston	Public Library	4,779	6,978
West Brookfield	Merrian Public Library	6,769	6,961
Westford	Public Library	8,564	12,093
Westminster	Town Library	3,400	5,000
Weston	do	9,923	9,303
West Springfield	Public Library	5,000	*10,000
Weymouth	Tufts Library	17,126	64,771
Whitinsville	Social Library	5,602	12,579
Whitman	Public Library	9,500	36,111
Williamstown	do	3,754	8,314
Winchendon	do	5,935	22,472
Winchester	do	11,198	42,734
Winthrop	do	3,820	12,250
Woburn	do	35,092	54,704
Worcester	Free Public Library	105,000	178,129
Yarmouth Port	Yarmouth Library Association	4,401	3,975
MICHIGAN.			
Adrian	Public School Library	12,836	52,010
Alpena	Public Library	3,163	12,304
Ann Arbor	School District Library	5,112	13,235
Battlecreek	Public School Library	14,130	42,770
Bay City	Public Library	15,966	46,030
Calumet	do	3,800	*7,000
Coldwater	Clarke Public Library	13,585	18,408
Detroit	Public Library	139,360	348,409
Flint	do	7,000	18,000
Grand Haven	Public School Library	3,123	11,758
Grand Rapids	do	41,381	182,515
Jackson	Free Public Library	16,144	82,171
Kalamazoo	Public Library	22,360	52,000
Lansing	Public School Library	8,017	27,858
Lowell	School Library, District No. 1	3,000	14,000
Marquette	White Public Library	9,699	26,608
Menominee	City Library	3,864	20,000
Monroe	do	3,669	10,371
Muskegon	Hackley Public Library	21,412	60,817
Saginaw East Side	Hoyt Public Library	24,000	*48,000
Do	Public Library	11,163	40,868
Saginaw West Side	Public and Union School District Library	8,125	36,500
Sturgis	Township Library	5,500	*11,000
Three Rivers	Free Public Library	4,818	17,967
West Bay City	Sage Public Library	25,000	36,727
Wyandotte	Public Library	3,156	*6,312
MINNESOTA.			
Duluth	Public Library	20,842	122,845
Hastings	Public School Library	4,900	4,200
Minneapolis	Public Library	84,000	450,588
Moorhead	Public School Library	3,500	*7,000
Rochester	Public Library	3,469	16,542
St. Cloud	Public Library and Reading Room	3,639	16,202
St. Paul	Public Library	41,000	186,336
Sauk Centre	Bryant Library Association	3,088	10,874
Winona	Free Public Library	11,982	55,104
MISSOURI.			
Hannibal	Free Public Library	6,000	42,500
St. Joseph	do	14,000	108,000
St. Louis	Public Library	109,663	476,000
Sedalia	do	4,000	21,658
Trenton	Jewett Norris Library	5,000	16,894
MONTANA.			
Bozeman	Free Library	3,351	15,000
Butte	Free Public Library	19,423	64,842
Greatfalls	Valeria Public Library	3,500	20,220
Helena	Public Library	16,950	67,712

*Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
NEBRASKA.			
Crete	Public Library	2,970	17,597
David City	do	3,000	6,000
Grand Island	do	5,680	12,881
Lincoln	City Library	11,800	81,155
Omaha	Public Library	51,420	235,378
NEVADA.			
Virginia City	Miners' Union Library	10,587	5,232
NEW HAMPSHIRE.			
Charlestown	Silsby Free Public Library	3,826	*7,652
Claremont	Fiske Free Library	7,000	*14,000
Colebrook	Public Library	3,500	*7,000
Concord	do	18,157	87,122
Dover	do	20,500	67,183
Dublin	do	3,000	2,785
Durham	do	4,767	10,000
East Derry	Taylor Library	3,150	7,559
Exeter	Public Library	9,000	17,111
Fitzwilliam	Town Library	4,293	*8,586
Hancock	do	3,112	*6,224
Hillsboro	Fuller Public Library	3,365	*6,730
Hinsdale	Public Library	4,500	12,000
Hollis	Social Library	4,036	5,000
Keene	Public Library	10,000	29,137
Laconia	do	6,488	32,038
Lancaster	do	7,500	9,000
Lebanon	do	5,000	19,307
Littleton	do	5,446	13,716
Manchester	City Library	39,700	59,495
Marlboro	Frost Free Library	5,000	5,200
Milford	Free Library	5,575	20,594
Nashua	Public Library	14,000	38,000
New Hampton	Gordon-Nash Library	6,000	*12,000
Newport	Richards Free Library	4,812	9,962
Peterboro	Town Library	7,890	12,260
Portsmouth	Free Public Library	13,000	26,000
Rochester	Public Library	4,135	*8,270
Walpole	Bridge Memorial Library	5,697	5,754
Warner	Pillsbury Free Library	5,074	8,893
Wilton	Public Library	3,850	6,935
Winchester	do	6,000	*12,000
Windham	Nesmith Library	3,039	1,590
NEW JERSEY.			
Elizabeth	Public Library and Reading Room	8,000	27,381
Hoboken	Free Public Library	14,541	104,633
Jersey City	do	50,275	376,977
Montclair	do	5,036	31,347
Newark	do	55,002	332,078
New Brunswick	do	14,000	50,302
Orange	Free Library	7,989	34,871
Passaic	Free Public Library	5,432	29,926
Paterson	do	24,939	111,236
Plainfield	Public Library and Reading Room	13,735	30,473
Princeton	Ivy Hall Library	3,080	*6,160
South Orange	Free Public Library	4,883	*9,766
Woodbury	Deptford Institute Free Library	3,960	15,067
NEW YORK.			
Albany	Catholic Union Library	5,296	3,816
Amsterdam	Free Library	3,021	34,000
Attica	Stevens Memorial Library	6,950	11,061
Auburn	Seymour Library	12,302	8,660
Bath	Davenport Library	90,138	9,802
Bayridge	Free Library	3,776	13,086
Brooklyn	Fort Hamilton Free Library	3,400	9,000
Do	Free Lending Library of Union of Christian Workers.	33,862	172,812
Do	Pratt Institute Free Library	59,788	207,899
Buffalo	Grosvenor Library	39,000	.....
Canandaigua	Wood Library	5,000	2,600

* Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
NEW YORK—continued.			
Cazenovia	Public Library Association	3,200	8,696
Cohoes	City Library	3,717	15,534
Dryden	Southworth Library	5,708	*11,416
Elmira	Steele Memorial Library	5,000	*10,000
Flushing	Free Library	6,000	12,500
Fredonia	Darwin R. Barker Library	4,227	5,078
Fulton	Public Library	3,000	1,200
Glens Falls	Crandall Free Library	6,229	34,278
Gloversville	Free Library	13,668	62,368
Herkimer	do	4,309	4,971
Hornellsville	Hornell Free Library	10,000	30,000
Ilion	Free Public Library	8,733	40,915
Ithaca	Cornell Library Association	20,000	15,000
Jamaica	Public Library	3,000	10,000
Jamestown	James Prendergast Free Library	12,440	52,190
Lockport	Free Public Library	5,656	15,844
Long Island City	Public Library	5,000	.....
Mount Vernon	do	5,300	*10,600
Newburg	Free Library	20,663	67,700
New Rochelle	Public Library	3,121	15,658
New York	Aguilar Free Library	31,166	256,963
Do	Cathedral Free Circulating Library	20,762	59,169
Do	Cooper Union	33,569	.....
Do	Free Circulating Library	81,785	654,451
Do	Free Library of General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen.	108,000	247,906
Do	Maimonides Free Library	45,131	94,828
Do	Washington Heights Free Library	10,000	29,219
Do	Webster Free Library	5,775	22,998
Niagara Falls	Public Library	3,912	15,996
Nyack	Nyack Library	3,850	21,600
Ogdensburg	Public Library	5,981	14,081
Oneonta	do	4,600	22,000
Oswego City	City Library	13,000	.....
Owego	Free Library	7,000	17,000
Peekskill	Field Library	6,167	22,000
Port Henry	Sherman Free Library	4,945	9,347
Port Jervis	Free Library	7,201	18,862
Poughkeepsie	City Library	18,963	40,485
Rochester	Central Library	30,000	10,873
Do	Reynolds Library	32,896	15,107
Rome	Jervis Library	7,623	34,651
Salem	Bancroft Public Library	3,316	5,548
Sing Sing	Public Library	35,961	13,716
Syracuse	Central Library	30,000	78,503
Tarrytown	Young Men's Lyceum Free Library	3,000	5,000
Troy	Young Men's Association	33,400	53,192
Utica	Public Library	20,506	108,258
Watkins	do	3,500	1,566
Yonkers	do	11,021	31,192
NORTH CAROLINA.			
Ledger	Goodwill Free Library	6,000	1,634
OHIO.			
Akron	Public Library	15,433	68,000
Canton	Public Library Association	4,763	21,195
Chillicothe	Public Library	14,000	17,305
Cincinnati	do	188,409	312,810
Circleville	do	7,375	24,123
Columbus	Public Library and Reading Room	24,500	77,254
Dayton	Public Library	36,903	106,000
Fremont	Birchard Library	12,500	13,000
Germantown	Public Library	3,359	4,257
Hamilton	Lane Free Library	6,550	20,568
Hillsboro	Public Library	6,947	*13,894
Mansfield	Memorial Library Association	6,675	29,760
Mount Vernon	Public Library	4,650	18,953
Perrysburg	Way Library	4,800	9,848
Portsmouth	Public Library	9,616	*19,232
Springfield	Warder Public Library	17,034	83,641
Toledo	Public Library	35,650	111,758
Wellington	do	3,700	8,300
Youngstown	Library Association	10,870	39,800

* Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
PENNSYLVANIA.			
Allegheny	Carnegie Free Library	29,316	122,784
Allegheny	Public School and Citizens' Free Library	15,000	46,000
Braddock	Carnegie Free Library	11,659	51,952
Danville	Thomas Beaver Free Library	9,357	31,079
Germantown	People's Institute	3,300	1,500
Harleysville	Cassel's Library	8,000	*16,000
Haverford	Haverford College	32,255	*64,510
Johnstown	Cambria Free Library	8,190	63,067
Mauch Chunk	Dimmick Memorial Library	18,000	15,000
Mount Holly Springs	Givin Free Library	3,000	7,000
Philadelphia	Apprentices' Library	17,333	71,212
Do	Christian Hall Library	6,287	10,512
Do	Drexel Institute	18,433	36,866
Do	Free Library of Philadelphia	105,308	1,500,000
Do	Friends' Free Library and Reading Room	19,000	13,401
Do	Friends' Library	14,500	1,948
Do	Hebrew Education Society	3,000	1,500
Do	Keneseth Israel Public Library	3,364	19,759
Do	Library Association of Friends	8,000	2,290
Do	Lovell Memorial Free Library	9,434	15,492
Do	Moyomensing Literary Institute	7,125	6,448
Pittsburg	Carnegie Library	21,374	41,992
Scranton	Public Library	26,239	149,769
Shenandoah	Public School Library	3,700	15,000
South Hermitage	John McAlly Library	4,000	*8,000
Tidioute	Tidioute Library	3,000	*6,000
Warren	Public Library	8,374	48,144
Wilkesbarre	Osterhout Free Library	23,632	71,569
Williamsport	Public School Library	4,000	*8,000
RHODE ISLAND.			
Ashaway	Free Library	3,000	6,214
Barrington Center	Barrington Public Library	8,250	6,593
Bristol	Rogers Free Library	12,254	18,921
Central Falls	Free Public Library	6,700	15,632
Centerdale	Union Free Library	3,300	3,028
Crompton	Free Library	4,616	7,317
East Greenwich	Free Library Association	4,300	4,500
East Providence	Natchewoket Free Public Library	4,021	11,452
East Providence Center	East Providence Free Library	3,658	2,882
Hope Valley	Langworthy Public Library	3,780	5,178
Jamestown	Philomenian Library	3,805	4,378
Johnston	Olneyville Free Library	7,000	20,000
Kingston	Free Library	5,000	3,199
Lakewood	Old Warwick and Lakewood Free Library	3,155	4,481
Newport	People's Library	29,200	34,407
Pawtucket	Free Public Library	14,765	47,000
Peacedale	Narragansett Library Association	6,239	11,640
Phenix	Pawtuxet Valley Free Library Association	4,600	10,271
Providence	Public Library	75,559	115,743
Do	Union for Christian Work	4,759	13,133
Tiverton	Whitridge Hall Free Library	3,415	2,135
Warren	George Hale Free Library	5,000	12,600
Westerly	Public Library	8,015	26,905
Woonsocket	Harris Institute	14,086	30,442
TENNESSEE.			
Memphis	Cossitt Library	10,000	33,000
Do	I. O. O. F. Hall and Library Association	4,500	3,024
Nashville	Howard Library Company	9,000	.....
TEXAS.			
Galveston	Public Library	6,500	25,651
VERMONT.			
Bellows Falls	Rockingham Free Public Library	6,181	18,432
Brattleboro	Free Library	10,000	24,000
Burlington	Fletcher Free Public Library	30,000	48,762
Cavendish	do	3,136	5,000
Fairhaven	Public Library	3,100	15,348
Hartford	Hartford Library	3,000	4,400
Montpelier	Kellogg-Hubbard Library	5,800	*11,600

*Circulation estimated.

TABLE 14.—*Libraries in the United States entirely free to the public, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Name of library.	Volumes.	Volumes issued for home use during past year.
VERMONT—continued.			
Montpelier	Public Library	6,070	13,969
Pittsford	Maclure Library	3,500	6,192
Post Mill Village	Peabody Library	5,000	300
Rutland	Free Library	9,724	56,391
St. Johnsbury	St. Johnsbury Athenæum	14,296	27,513
Springfield	Town Library	6,900	*13,800
Strafford	Harris Library	4,000	1,300
Windsor	Library Association	7,800	7,924
Woodstock	Norman Williams Public Library	9,766	15,424
WASHINGTON.			
Seattle	Public Library	12,635	77,240
Tacoma	City Library	4,558	35,986
Do	Mason Library	5,186	3,194
WEST VIRGINIA.			
Wheeling	Public Library	14,347	58,345
WISCONSIN.			
Ashland	Vaughn Public Library	3,800	15,333
Beaver Dam	Williams Free Library	6,038	22,967
Chippewa Falls	Public Library	3,055	19,400
Eau Claire	do	6,300	38,287
Fond du Lac	Free Public Library	13,868	31,232
Franklin	Mission House Library	5,360	1,000
Greenbay	Public Library	4,800	38,714
Janesville	do	10,000	30,000
La Crosse	do	14,000	44,000
Madison	Free Public Library	14,561	55,509
Menomonee	Memorial Free Library	5,349	21,308
Merrill	T. B. Scott Free Library	3,813	14,351
Milwaukee	Public Library	85,094	324,463
Monroe	do	3,558	16,112
Sheboygan	do	6,210	7,142
Sparta	Free Library	3,342	7,196
West Superior	Superior Public Library	10,253	45,923
WYOMING.			
Laramie	Albany County Free Library	3,500	9,980

*Circulation estimated.

THE STATISTICS IN DETAIL.

The list of the 4,026 public and school libraries begins on page 370 of this report, and gives for each library all the information that could be obtained. The information called for covered some 25 items. Most of the larger libraries in which records are carefully kept made reports which are full and satisfactory, but a large proportion of the small libraries did little more than report the number of volumes. For example, only 2,851 of the 4,026 libraries reported the number of volumes added during the past year, and only 1,852 reported the number of books issued for home use in the same time.

The list includes only the libraries reporting to this office. In cases where no reports could be obtained, after a third request, from libraries which appeared in the 1891 list, a special letter of inquiry was addressed to the postmaster. Wherever the library was reported as still in existence a fourth request for information was sent. These facts are recited to show that all reasonable efforts were made to secure returns from all libraries having 1,000 or more volumes.

THE REPORTS SUMMARIZED.

The number of volumes in the 4,026 public and school libraries in 1896 was 33,051,872, as shown in Table 1. This was an increase of 7,074,229 over the number of volumes reported by the 3,503 libraries of the same kind in 1891. Here is an increase of over 27 per cent in the number of volumes, while the increase in the number of libraries was scarcely 15 per cent. Unfavorable business conditions since 1891 have operated to prevent the establishment of many libraries, yet the cheapness of books has been favorable to the growth of existing libraries with fixed incomes. More than half the increase in the number of volumes was made by the libraries in the North Atlantic Division, which shows an increase of more than 28 per cent in the five years. The North Central Division also shows an increase of about 28 per cent in the number of volumes, while the Western Division increased its number of volumes nearly 40 per cent. The increase in the South Atlantic Division was 18 per cent and in the South Central 21 per cent. The number of libraries, the number of volumes, and the increase for each State can be seen in Table 1. It is also shown that the 4,026 libraries have 5,444,788 unbound pamphlets.

Table 2 shows at a glance the effective work of the libraries during the year ended April 1, 1896. The number of libraries reporting their reading rooms supplied with periodicals was 2,166, and the number of periodical publications thus furnished to the public was 116,248. Only 2,851 libraries reported additions made during the year, the number of volumes added being 1,591,861. The additions to the number of unbound pamphlets aggregated 439,412, made by 1,303 libraries.

The records kept in 1,852 libraries show that 35,075,055 books were issued to borrowers for home use. Only 594 libraries kept records of books issued for use in the library reading rooms. The number of volumes thus issued was 7,706,830. All these items are given by States and divisions in Table 2.

Table 3 shows that 765 libraries occupy their own buildings, and 548 occupy rented buildings. Of the 2,713 libraries not reported as owning or renting a large proportion are school libraries which do not pay rent and yet can not be said to own the rooms they occupy in college or school buildings.

This table also shows that 1,147 libraries are supported by taxation, 2,346 by corporations, and 14 derive their support from both these sources. The remaining 519 did not state how they are supported.

There were 1,558 libraries reported as free, 635 free for reference only, and 772 free to subscribers. The remaining 1,061 not reporting this item are in large part corporation libraries free to members.

The number of strictly circulating libraries was 342, the number of reference libraries 705, and the number classed as both circulating and reference 2,600.

Table 4 divides the 4,026 libraries into 19 classes, as follows: General, 1,560; school, 940; college, 626; college society, 54; law, 127; theological, 97; medical, 44; Gov-

ernment, 23; State, 26; asylum and reformatory, 87; Young Men's Christian Association, 84; Masonic, 14; Independent Order of Odd Fellows, 17; social, 57; scientific, 78; historical, 60; garrison, 14; mercantile, 10, and society, 108.

Table 5 shows the classification of libraries according to size. There are 2 libraries of more than 500,000 volumes each, 4 more having over 300,000 volumes, 28 additional having over 100,000, 69 more with over 50,000, 155 additional of over 25,000, 411 more having over 10,000, and 630 more with over 5,000. The remaining 2,727 libraries have less than 5,000 volumes each, but over 1,000.

Table 14 includes the names of the 627 public libraries having 3,000 volumes and over. These libraries are entirely free to the public. They have in the aggregate 9,062,363 volumes, as shown in Table 13.

EQUIPMENT AND INCOME.

Table 6 is a financial exhibit of largely more than half the libraries in the United States given by States and divisions. The total amount reported as received directly from taxation by 600 libraries was $1,679,210, and the amount appropriated to 773 libraries by States, counties, and cities was $1,513,352 for the year. The amount received from endowment funds by 594 libraries was $1,035,052; 833 libraries received $386,441 from membership fees; 303 libraries received $38,684 from book rents; 625 libraries received $529,350 from donations, while 1,017 received $729,547 from sources not stated. The total income reported by 2,437 libraries was $5,911,636 for the year ending April 1, 1896.

The permanent endowment funds of 605 libraries aggregate $17,570,673. The aggregate value of the buildings owned by 567 libraries is $33,291,259. The value of the books added during the year by 2,333 libaries was $1,574,410.

The reader will find it interesting and instructive to examine in detail the statistics for each State as given in Table 6. This is the first attempt made by this Bureau to present a condensed financial exhibit of public and school libraries. Great care has been taken to give the number reporting each item so that in finding averages the libraries not reporting will not be included in the divisor.

THE GROWTH OF FIVE YEARS.

Tables 7 and 8 are arranged for comparison, the latter exhibiting certain statistics for 1891 and the latter for 1896. According to Table 7 there was in 1891 an average population of 17,877 to a library while, in 1896, as shown in Table 8, the population to a library was 17,376. The same tables show that in 1891 there were 41 books to each 100 of population, while in 1896 the number had increased to 47 volumes to each 100 of population. An increase is shown in each of the five grand divisions, but in certain States the increase in the number and size of the libraries did not keep pace with the increase in population. It is estimated that the increase in population from 1890 to 1895 was 7,331,750, or nearly 12 per cent. As already shown in Table 1, there was an increase in the number of libraries of about 15 per cent and in the number of volumes of more than 27 per cent.

The chart following Table 8 shows the relative number of volumes to each 100 of population in the United States in 1896.

THE GROWTH OF TWENTY YEARS.

Table 9 shows the number of libraries and the number of volumes in each State in 1875. There were in the United States 3,648 libraries of 300 volumes and over, having an aggregate of 12,329,526 volumes. Of the total number 2,039 had 1,000 or more volumes each, aggregating 11,487,778, while the remaining 1,609 libraries of less than 1,000 each had a total of 841,748 volumes.

Table 10 is a summary of similar statistics for 1884–85. There were 5,388 libraries, with a grand total of 20,722,393 volumes. In the list having 1,000 or more volumes there were 2,988 libraries, with 19,401,199 volumes; and in the list having less than 1,000 volumes, but more than 300, were 2,350 libraries, with 1,321,194 volumes.

Table 11 exhibits the statistics of the 3,158 libraries which in 1896 reported 300 or

more volumes, but less than 1,000. The total number of volumes was 1,544,386. Combining these numbers with those given in Table 1, it is shown that the total number of libraries reporting to this office in 1896 having 300 and more volumes was 7,192, and the aggregate number of volumes was 34,596,258.

By comparing Tables 9 and 10 it will be found that the per cent of increase in the number of libraries from 1875 to 1885 was 46, and in the number of volumes the per cent of increase was 68. A comparison between Tables 10 and 12 shows that the per cent of increase in the number of libraries between 1885 and 1896 was 35, and in the number of volumes the per cent of increase was 67.

THE SMALL LIBRARIES.

The statistics of the 3,158 libraries having less than 1,000 but 300 or more volumes are summarized in Table 11. The list of these libraries is not published in this report. As no special effort was made to secure reports from libraries having less than 1,000 volumes, it is believed that the number having between 300 and 1,000 volumes is largely in excess of the number given in Table 11. It is not improbable that there are in the United States 4,000 public and school libraries having less than 1,000 volumes, but having 300 or more.

Among the 3,158 libraries, the statistics of which are summarized in Table 11, there were 2,455 school libraries, 155 college libraries, 289 general libraries, and 259 of all other classes.

It will be observed that 1,043 libraries, with 510,154 volumes, are in the North Central Division, and 785 libraries, with 337,455 volumes, are in the Western Division. California alone has 699 of these libraries, with 294,644 volumes. This is explained by the fact that the State provides for district school libraries. There are hundreds of such libraries of less than 300 volumes each, and doubtless many larger ones, not reporting to this office. The report of the State superintendent of public instruction for California for 1894 showed that the district school libraries of that State contained 711,161 volumes, and that these libraries were valued at $689,652. The amount expended for books for these libraries in 1894 was $55,722, and there remained a balance to the credit of the library fund of $55,007.

New York stands next, with 213 school libraries, in this list. Ohio has 127, Pennsylvania 123, and several other States have over 100 each.

Since the statistics in the following pages were tabulated and summarized returns have been received from the following libraries having 1,000 volumes and over:

McLean Seminary Library, Simsbury, Conn., 1,200 volumes; Library of Danvers Historical Society, Danvers, Mass., 1,200 volumes; Library of New England Society, Orange, N. J., 1,500 volumes; Philadelphia Seminary Library, Philadelphia, Pa., 1,027 volumes; Pittsfield Public Library, Pittsfield, Ill., 2,000 volumes; Public Library, Charles City, Iowa; 2,500 volumes; Western Normal College Library, Shenandoah, Iowa, 1,230 volumes; Free Library, Puyallup, Wash., 1,000 volumes; Carroll College Library, Waukesha, Wis., 1,000 volumes; Colorado Scientific Societies Library, Denver, Colo., 1,761 volumes; Iowa Industrial School Library, Eldora, Iowa, 1,950 volumes; Holton High School Library, Holton, Kans., 3,847 volumes; General Reference Library, Farmington, Me., 3,000 volumes; Smyth Public Library, Candia, N. H., 1,050 volumes; Whipple Free Library, New Boston, N. H., 1,750 volumes; Library of the New England Society, Orange, N. J., 1,500 volumes; The Arthur W. Tams Musical Library, New York City, 150,000 volumes; Southampton Union School Library, Southampton, N. Y., 1,001 volumes; Utica Catholic Academy Library, Utica, N. Y., 1,735 volumes; Diocesan Library, Philadelphia, Pa., 7,000 volumes; Phrenakosmian Literary Society Library, Newberry, S. C., 1,168 volumes.

An additional list of libraries having 1,000 volumes and over will be printed in the next annual report of this Bureau.

The work of collecting and compiling the statistics of public and school libraries in 1896, as printed in this chapter, was done by the following clerks in the statistical division of the Bureau of Education under the direction of the statistician: Mr. Lewis A. Kalbach, Mrs. Frances A. Reigart, Mrs. Pearl Woolverton, Miss Nathalie Leveque, and Miss Bertha Y. Hebb.

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	ALABAMA.							
1	Auburn	Alabama Polytechnic Institute	1872	Col		C.	S.	B.
2	Bailey Springs	Bailey Springs University	1893	Col		C.		B.
3	Birmingham	Public Library	1888	Gen		C.	S.	B.
4	do	Zelosophian Academy		Sch		C.		R.
5	Cullman	St. Bernard Benedictine Society	1892	So		C.	F.	R.
6	Demopolis	Marengo Female Institute		Col	R.		S.	B.
7	East Lake	Howard College	1841	Col		C.		B.
8	Eufaula	Union Female College	1893	Col			*Fr.	B.
9	Florence	State Normal School	1856	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
10	Gadsden	Jones College for Young Ladies	1850	Col			Fr.	B.
11	Greensboro	Southern University	1859	Col		C.	S.	B.
12	Huntsville	Central Alabama Academy	1870	Gen		C.		C.
13	Marion	Judson Institute	1840	Gen		C.		B.
14	Mobile	Academy of the Visitation	1833	Sch		C.	S.	R.
15	do	Mobile Library	1874	Gen	R.		S.	B.
16	Montgomery	State and Supreme Court Library	1828	Gen		T.	F.	R.
17	do	State Board of Health	1879	Scien		C.	F.	B.
18	Normal	State Normal and Industrial School.	1878	Sch		C.	F.	B.
19	Spring Hill	Spring Hill College	1830	Col		C.		R.
20	do	Students' Library	1868	Col		C.	F.	C.
21	Talladega	Talladega College		Col		C.		B.
22	do	Theological Library		Theo		C.	F.	R.
23	Troy	State Normal College	1888	Col		T.	Fr.	B.
24	Tuscaloosa	Pierson Library (Alabama Insane Hospital).		A. & R.				C.
25	do	Stillman Institute	1877	Gen		C.		R.
26	Tuskegee	Alabama Conference Female College.		Col		C.		
27	do	Normal and Industrial Institute	1881	Sch		C.		R.
28	University	University of Alabama	1831	Col		C.	F.	R.
	ARIZONA.							
29	Phœnix	Territorial Library	1864	Law	R.	T.	F.	R.
30	Tucson	Free Public Library	1886	Gen		T.	F.	B.
31	do	University of Arizona	1891	Col		C.		B.
32	Yuma	Prison Library	1888	A. & R.				C.
	ARKANSAS.							
33	Arkadelphia	Arkadelphia Methodist College	1890	Col		C.	Fr.	R.
34	do	Ouachita College	1886	Col		C.	S.	R.
35	Batesville	Arkansas College		Col		C.	S.	B.
36	Clarksville	Arkansas Cumberland College	1891	Col		C.		R.
37	Conway	Hendrix College	1887	Col		C.	S.	B.
38	Fayetteville	Arkansas Industrial University	1871	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
39	Helena	Women's Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
40	Little Rock	Arkansas Female College	1878	Col		C.		R.
41	do	Arkansas State Library	1840	State		T.	F.	R.
42	do	Little Rock University	1874	Col		C.	F.	B.
43	do	Marquand Library		Y.M.C.A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
44	do	Supreme Court Library	1836	Law			S.	R.
45	Marianna	Male and Female Institute	1889	Sch			Fr.	R.
46	Mountain Home	Mountain Home Baptist College	1894	Col		C.	Fr.	R.
47	Pine Bluff	Branch Normal College	1873	Col		C.	F.	B.
48	Rogers	Rogers Academy	1884	Sch		C.	F.	B.
49	Southland	Southland College and Normal Institute.		Sch		C.	F.	R.
	CALIFORNIA.							
50	Alameda	Public Library	1879	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
51	Anaheim	Public School Library		Sch				
52	Belmont	Belmont School		Sch		C.		
53	Berkeley	Boone's University School		Sch		C.		

*Fr., free for reference.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
9,051	15,500	407	500				$1,821		Chas. C. Thach	1
1,000	50	50			55				A. B. Ellis	2
5,000	1,800	150	300	4,188			362			3
1,000										4
1,300	500	25	30						P. Theodose	5
1,500	1,000	15	75	200			15			6
1,000	100									7
2,000									T. J. Simmons, president.	8
2,000	300	150	100				200		C. A. Beasley	9
4,689	1,836	36	93						A. B. Jones, president	10
12,000	4,000	207	600	1,400			330		D. P. Christenberry	11
1,500	500								A. W. McKinney	12
1,208		20					50		Anne Kirtley	13
3,000	2,500		5						M. Stanislaus Campbell	14
6,000									A. C. Moses	15
20,000		941				$1,500	1,500		J. M. Riggs	16
5,190		433							Jerome Cochran, health officer.	17
2,630	1,000	1,500	100				6		Miss F. M. Holston	18
6,800										19
1,500		162			800				Jno. H. Mock	20
4,000									W. E. Hutchison	21
2,250									G. W. Andrews	22
1,500	800	500	400	1,000	4,500		315		E. R. Eldridge, president.	23
1,000	200								J. T. Searcy, superintendent.	24
1,200		25							A. L. Phillips, superintendent.	25
2,000										26
7,049	35	121	7	2,009					T. L. Hunt	27
10,000	5,095	197	70		706				Amelia Gorgas	28
10,030										29
2,980		90	20				450		Mrs. H. S. Batte, acting	30
1,711		100					398		Howard J. Hall	31
2,781	250	40	75				85		H. W. McKean, secretary	32
1,000		50							G. C. Jones, president	33
2,000	500								J. W. Conger, president	34
4,000	1,000	25	100				40		Jno. I. Cleland, president	35
1,400							50		Lizzie E. Miller	36
3,500	2,000	200	500	2,000			200		A. C. Millar, president	37
7,000	12,000	456	738				500		J. A. Garside	38
2,363	1,000	354	150	2,464			2,797			39
1,500									Myra C. Warner, principal.	40
35,000	10,000	8,250	500	4,000			1,100		J. B. Armistead	41
3,000	1,200	100	300						W. T. Lewis	42
2,500		100		1,954			320	$4,200	Thomas Johnson, secretary.	43
15,000	4,000	500	1,000				1,450		W. P. Campbell	44
3,000	1,000	25	100				150		T. A. Futrall	45
1,000	4,000	100	1,000				100		W. S. Johnson, president	46
2,777	862	152	38		500		500		J. C. Corbin	47
1,360				983			411		J. W. Scroggs	48
1,200									Wm. Russell	49
20,342		2,235		114,784	12,510	8,194	8,194		J. W. Harbourne	50
1,300										51
1,200										52
1,500										53

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	CALIFORNIA—cont'd.							
54	Berkeley	Head's (Miss) School	1888	Sch	R.		F.	B.
55	do	Institution for the Deaf and Blind	1886	Sch		C.		R.
56	do	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
57	do	University of California	1869	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
58	Chico	Chico Library and Free Reading Room.	1879	Gen	R.	B.	S.	B.
59	College Park	University of the Pacific		Col		C.		
60	Colusa	Public School Library		Sch		T.	S.	B.
61	Gilroy	do	1895	Sch		T.	F.	B.
62	Golden Gate	do		Sch				
63	Grass Valley	High School	1856	Sch		T.	S.	B.
64	Healdsburg	Healdsburg College		Sch		C.		
65	do	Public School Library	1860	Sch		T.		B.
66	Hueneme	Public and School Library		Gen		T.	F.	B.
67	Irvington	Washington Female Seminary		Sch		C.		
68	Los Angeles	Historical Society of Southern California.	1883	Hist	R.	C.	S.	R.
69	do	Law Library of Los Angeles County.	1891	Law		C.	S.	R.
70	do	Los Angeles Academy	1887	Sch		C.		B.
71	do	Public Library	1872	Gen		T.	F.	B.
72	do	St. Vincent's College	1866	Col		C.	F.	R.
73	do	State Normal School	1883	Sch		T.	Fr.	B.
74	do	University of Southern California	1880	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
75	Marysville	City Library	1859	Gen		T.	F.	B.
76	do	College of Notre Dame		Sch		C.		
77	Mills College	Mills College (Sage Library)		Col	O.	C.	F.	R.
78	Modesto	Public School Library		Sch				
79	Monrovia	Public Library	1893	Gen		T.	F.	B.
80	Mount Hamilton	Lick Observatory	1875	Scien		C.	F.	R.
81	Murphys	Public School Library		Sch				
82	Napa	Free Public Library	1885	Gen		T.	F.	B.
83	Nevada City	I. O. O. F. Library		Gen		C.	F.	B.
84	Oakland	California College	1874	Col		C.		B.
85	do	Convent of Our Lady of the Sacred Heart.	1868	Sch		C.	S.	B.
86	do	Field Seminary		Sch		C.		
87	do	Free Public Library	1868	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
88	do	Pacific Theological Seminary	1869	Theo		C.	F.	R.
89	do	Public School Library		Sch				
90	do	St. Mary's College		Col		C.		
91	Ontario	Public School Library		Sch				
92	Orange	Free Public Library	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
93	Oroville	Public School Library		Sch				
94	Pasadena	Public Library	1883	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
95	do	Throop Polytechnic Institute	1891	Col		C.		B.
96	Petaluma	Public Library	1867	Gen		T.	F.	B.
97	Placerville	Neptune Library	1858	Gen		C.	S.	B.
98	Pomona	Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	T.	S.	B.
99	Riverside	Free Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
100	do	Riverside County Law Library	1895	Law		C.	S.	R.
101	Sacramento	California State Library		Gen			F.	R.
102	do	Free Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
103	St. Helena	do	1892	Gen		T.	F.	B.
104	Salinas	District School Library		Sch				
105	San Anselmo	San Francisco Theological Seminary.	1871	Theo	O.	C.	F.	R.
106	San Diego	Free Public Library	1880	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
107	do	San Diego School District Library		Sch	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
108	San Francisco	Astronomical Society of the Pacific.	1889	Scien	R.	C.	S.	B.
109	do	Bancroft Library		Hist	O.	C.	F.	R.
110	do	Bar Association of San Francisco	1884	Law	R.	C.	S.	R.
111	do	Bibliothèque de la Ligue Nationale Française.	1876	Social	R.	C.	S.	B.
112	do	B'nai Brith Library	1870	Gen		C.		B.
113	do	Bohemian Club Library	1872	Gen	R.	C.	S.	R.
114	do	California Academy of Sciences	1853	Scien		C.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,300	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna Head	54
2,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	$40	.....	W. A. Caldwell	55
3,000	500	1,614	100	6,746	.....	$3,200	3,200	.....	D. R. Moore, secretary	56
62,323	.....	4,684	3,868	.....	.....	.....	7,931	$50,000	J. C. Rowell	57
1,780	.....	45	.....	1,116	.....	.....	246	.....	Mary P. Hendricks, superintendent.	58
9,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	59
1,200	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	50	50	.....	Jno. E. Hayman	60
1,300	350	100	150	2,000	1,000	.....	130	.....	W. W. Pettit	61
1,083	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	62
1,656	701	485	302	2,705	806	.....	150	.....	Allyn C. Taylor	63
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	64
1,200	300	100	50	.....	.....	.....	125	.....	H. R. Bull	65
1,950	1,500	150	50	650	.....	.....	148	.....	R. B. Haydock	66
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	67
1,100	3,850	90	280	.....	.....	.....	120	.....	J. M. Guinn, curator	68
5,770	25,000	300	5,000	.....	.....	1,833	3,833	.....	F. H. Howard	69
1,000	500	40	40	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	C. A. Wheat, principal	70
43,238	.....	3,289	.....	371,638	169,819	21,595	23,076	.....	.....	71
4,000	700	50	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. J. Healy	72
4,582	100	742	20	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	73
5,000	200	200	50	.....	.....	.....	400	10,000	L. J. Stabler, registrar	74
5,940	.....	150	.....	4,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. J. A. Saul	75
12,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	76
4,900	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	30	500	E. W. Bushnell	77
1,205	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	78
2,183	50	700	.....	.....	.....	351	377	.....	Mrs. O. A. Wheeler	79
4,000	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. S. Holden, director	80
1,123	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	81
5,092	.....	43	.....	15,842	.....	1,200	1,200	.....	Mary F. Boggs	82
2,200	.....	.....	76	965	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. C. Rich	83
5,000	2,000	1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	S. B. Morse, president	84
1,400	108	8	36	.....	.....	.....	80	.....	Mother Elizabeth superior.	85
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	86
25,000	5,000	3,007	.....	118,605	.....	16,000	16,537	.....	Henry F. Peterson	87
7,025	2,000	684	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	2,500	George Mooar	88
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	89
10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	90
1,404	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	91
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna C. Field	92
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	93
10,000	800	1,500	160	75,710	19,530	7,109	7,462	.....	Mrs. S. E. Merritt	94
2,400	1,000	400	200	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	Chas. H. Keyes, president.	95
6,835	.....	460	160	10,475	.....	1,100	1,230	.....	Mrs. J. C. Lackie	96
4,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. F. Barss	97
4,845	322	402	.....	12,684	3,699	1,600	1,600	.....	E. P. Bartlett	98
7,337	.....	739	.....	55,506	.....	2,784	3,014	.....	Mary M. Smith	99
1,000	100	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	James Mills, secretary	100
100,032	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	101
25,575	.....	1,239	.....	69,220	.....	7,800	7,977	.....	Caroline G. Hancock	102
1,190	100	184	.....	3,417	.....	452	466	.....	Louisa Thompson	103
1,042	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	104
16,000	2,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Thos. F. Day	105
13,000	.....	600	150	64,545	7,912	6,257	6,747	.....	Mary E. Walker	106
2,300	.....	110	.....	.....	.....	100	100	.....	C. G. Tyler, assistant clerk.	107
1,200	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	1,600	F. R. Zeil, secretary	108
60,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	109
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	750	.....	R. M. Price	110
15,653	1,523	268	20	16,088	.....	.....	1,354	.....	A. Masson, secretary	111
10,700	.....	200	.....	27,683	1,000	.....	1,750	.....	A. Wilner	112
8,000	1,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Willis E. Davis, chairman.	113
8,495	6,000	722	2,506	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. H. Vaslit, assistant secretary.	114

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	CALIFORNIA—cont'd.							
115	San Francisco	California State Mining Bureau	1880	Scien	R	T.	F	R.
116	do	Chamber of Commerce	1851	Mer	R	C.		R.
117	do	De la Salle College	1876	Col		C.	S.	B.
118	do	Free Public Library	1879	Gen		T.	F.	B.
119	do	Geographical Society of the Pacific.	1881	Scien	R	C.	S.	R.
120	do	Grand Lodge, F. & A. M		Masonic		C.		
121	do	Heald's Business College		Sch		C.		R.
122	do	I. O. O. F. Library Association	1854	I. O. O. F.		C.	S.	B.
123	do	Irving Institute	1876	Sch	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
124	do	Knights of Pythias Library	1874	Soc	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
125	do	Ladies' Sodality Library	1870	Social		C.	S.	B.
126	do	Lake's (Miss) School for Girls	1887	Sch		C.		R.
127	do	Law Library, Southern Pacific Co.		Law	R.	C.		R.
128	do	Lowell High School		Sch				
129	do	Mechanics' Library		Gen		C.	S.	B.
130	do	New Jerusalem Church Library	1853	Gen		C.	F.	B.
131	do	Notre Dame College		Sch		C.		B.
132	San Francisco (Presidio).	Post Library		Gar				B.
133	San Francisco	Presentation Convent	1854	Sch		C.		R.
134	do	Sacred Heart Academy	1887	Gen		C.	S.	B.
135	San Francisco (Eddy and Larkin streets).	Sacred Heart College		Sch		C.		
136	San Francisco (1623 Broadway).	St. Bridget's Convent		Sch		C.		
137	San Francisco	St. Ignatius College	1855	Col. Soc		C.	S.	R.
138	do	St. Vincent's School	1856	Sch		C.	S.	B.
139	do	San Francisco Law Library	1866	Law		C.	S.	B.
140	do	San Francisco Microscopical Library.	1872	Scien	R.	C.	S.	R.
141	do	San Francisco Verein Library	1852	Soc		C.		B.
142	do	Society of California Pioneers	1853	Soc		C.	Fr.	B.
143	do	Supreme Court Library	1868	Law	R.			R.
144	do	Sutro Library		Scien			F.	R.
145	do	Y. M. C. A. Library		Y. M. C. A.		C.	S.	B.
146	do	Ziska Institute		Sch				R.
147	San Jose	College of Notre Dame	1851	Col		C.	S.	B.
148	do	District School Library		Sch				
149	do	Free Public Library	1880	Gen		T.	F.	B.
150	do	High School	1866	Sch		T.	F.	B.
151	do	St. Joseph's College	1886	Col		C.	F.	R.
152	do	San Jose Law Library	1876	Law		T.	S.	B.
153	do	State Normal School	1862	Sch		C.		B.
154	San Luis Obispo	San Luis Obispo Library	1894	Gen		C.	S.	B.
155	San Mateo	Church Divinity School of the Pacific.		Theo		C.		R.
156	do	Public School Library		Sch				
157	do	St. Matthews School		Sch		C.		
158	San Quentin	State Prison Library		A. & R		C.		B.
159	San Rafael	Free Library	1887	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
160	do	Mount Tamalpais Military Academy.		Sch		C.		
161	Santa Ana	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
162	do	Public School Library		Sch		T.		B.
163	Santa Barbara	Free Public Library	1882	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
164	do	High School	1892	Sch		T.		B.
165	do	Society of Natural History	1876	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
166	Santa Clara	Santa Clara College	1851	Col		C.		R.
167	Santa Cruz	Free Library	1870	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
168	Santa Monica	Public Library	1886	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
169	Santa Rosa	Free Public Library		Gen		T.	F.	B.
170	do	Pacific Methodist College		Col		C.		
171	do	Public School Library		Sch				
172	Sierra Madre	Public Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
173	Soldiers Home	Soldiers' Home Library	1889	Social		C.	F.	C.
174	Sonoma	Sonoma Valley Union High School	1895	Sch			S.	B.
175	Stanford University	Leland Stanford Junior University.	1891	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
5,000	500	.....	200	.....	2,500	.....	.....	.....	R. L. Ogden	115
4,266	2,000	130	68	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. L. Merry, secretary	116
5,000	100	30	.....	1,500	500	.....	$30	.....	B. Albertian	117
85,000	.....	5,697	975	244,483	176,972	$40,200	40,855	.....	Geo. T. Clark	118
4,334	7,722	89	232	.....	834	.....	.....	.....	T. F. Trenor, assistant secretary.	119
1,982	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. J. Johnson	120
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. T. Smith	121
44,459	.....	.....	.....	22,387	.....	.....	3,475	$1,826	A. J. Cleary	122
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. B. Church, principal	123
5,052	.....	21	.....	4,778	.....	.....	896	.....	D. Allison	124
1,750	114	25	76	434	84	.....	.....	.....	M. Marasihi, director	125
2,500	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	126
8,535	.....	282	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. F. Herrin, chief counsel.	127
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	128
71,120	3,423	3,475	900	185,875	.....	.....	25,496	.....	A. M. Jellison	129
1,250	100	25	.....	400	.....	.....	80	1,500	A. W. Manning	130
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	131
2,200	.....	15	.....	1,950	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. A. Adams	132
2,500	100	20	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	133
2,000	650	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	292	.....	M. Gorman, superior	134
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	135
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	136
14,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. M. Coltelli	137
1,500	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	138
35,000	.....	1,101	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,700	.....	J. H. Deering	139
1,500	.....	120	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. E. Loy, recording secretary.	140
4,690	.....	.....	.....	2,001	.....	.....	.....	.....	Theo. Angelis	141
3,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. I. Spear, secretary	142
13,000	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Benj. Edson	143
200,000	15,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. Moss	144
3,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. J. McCoy, secretary	145
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mme. B. Ziska	146
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	450	.....	Anna Raphael, secretary	147
2,582	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	148
13,118	200	223	25	100,555	6,000	3,087	3,348	.....	Agnes Barry	149
1,000	.....	50	.....	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. E. Shumate, principal	150
8,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. A. Barchi	151
1,500	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	711	1,261	.....	Gertrude H. Baker	152
6,000	.....	593	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Ruth Royce	153
1,805	58	91	.....	1,120	.....	.....	410	.....	R. W. Summers	154
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	155
1,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	156
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	157
4,000	.....	1,300	2,255	25,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. Drahms, chaplain	158
3,061	.....	400	.....	11,460	7,584	1,190	1,197	.....	A. N. Boyen, secretary	159
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	160
2,500	250	750	.....	24,000	.....	1,200	1,602	.....	R. L. Bisby, secretary	161
1,840	50	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	548	.....	F. E. Perham, superintendent.	162
10,770	.....	418	.....	36,778	.....	3,500	3,535	.....	Mrs. M. C. Rust	163
2,600	450	350	50	4,500	.....	.....	250	.....	C. Y. Roop	164
2,025	2,350	40	325	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. F. C. Lord	165
17,000	1,000	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. W. Riordan	166
9,596	2,000	900	200	39,004	.....	2,300	2,500	.....	Minerva Waterman	167
2,734	200	365	.....	19,340	.....	1,593	1,610	.....	Elfie A. Mosse	168
7,005	280	400	.....	.....	.....	2,693	2,703	.....	E. J. Jackman	169
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	170
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	171
1,000	15	80	.....	1,336	725	.....	137	.....	J. G. Blumer, president	172
1,900	200	600	40	10,656	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. C. Putnam	173
1,200	50	70	6	250	.....	.....	51	.....	Benj. Weed, principal	174
35,000	10,000	12,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. J. Teggart	175

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	CALIFORNIA—cont'd.							
176	Stockton	Free Public and Hazelton Library	1880	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
177	do	Public School Library	----	Sch	----	T.	----	B.
178	Temescal	do	----	Sch	----	----	----	----
179	Tulare City	Free Public Library	1878	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
180	Vallejo	Public Library	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
181	Ventura	Free Public Library	1874	Gen	----	T.	F.	C.
182	Watsonville	I. O. O. F. Library	1876	I. O. O. F.	R.	C.	S.	B.
183	Whittier	Whittier State School	----	A. & R.	----	T.	----	----
184	Woodbridge	San Joaquin Valley College	1879	Col	----	C.	----	B.
	COLORADO.							
185	Aspen	High School	1889	Sch	----	T.	S.	B.
186	do	Miners' Athletic Club	1894	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
187	Boulder	University of Colorado, Buckingham Library.	1877	Col	----	C.	Fr.	B.
188	Canyon City	Ladies' Library Association	1886	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
189	do	Penitentiary Library	----	A. & R.	----	----	----	C.
190	Central City	Public School Library	----	Gen	----	T.	S.	B.
191	Colorado Springs	Colorado College	1894	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
192	do	Free Library and Reading Room	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
193	Del Norte	Presbyterian College of the Southwest.	1883	Col	----	C.	F.	B.
194	Denver	City Library	1886	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
195	do	College of the Sacred Heart	1888	Col	----	C.	Fr.	R.
196	do	Diocesan Library, Matthews Hall	1870	Theo	----	C.	Fr.	B.
197	do	Ernest and Cranmer Law Library	1891	Law	----	----	----	R.
198	do	Jarvis Hall Military Academy	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
199	do	Public Library	1889	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
200	do	State Library	1861	State	----	T.	F.	R.
201	do	Supreme Court Law Library	1862	Law	----	----	F.	R.
202	do	Symes Law Library	1883	Law	----	C.	S.	B.
203	do	Wolcott Equitable Library	----	Law	R.	----	----	R.
204	do	Wolfe Hall	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
205	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	----	Y. M. C. A	----	C.	Fr.	B.
206	do	Y. M. C. A. Library, D. &. R. G. R. R. Dept.	1891	Y. M. C. A	R.	C.	S.	B.
207	Fort Collins	State Agricultural College	1879	Col	----	C.	Fr.	B.
208	Golden	State School of Mines	----	Col	----	T.	F.	B.
209	Greeley	Public Library	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
210	do	State Normal School	1889	Sch	----	----	S.	B.
211	La Junta	Young Folks' Library	1888	Gen	O.	----	F.	B.
212	Pueblo	Central Block Law Library	1890	Law	----	C.	S.	R.
213	do	McClelland Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
214	do	Opera House Library	1892	Law	----	C.	----	R.
215	do	School District No. 1 Library	----	Sch	----	T.	Fr	R.
216	Trinidad	Free Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	----	F.	B.
217	do	Tillotson Academy	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
218	University Park	University of Denver	1880	Col	----	C.	S.	B.
	CONNECTICUT.							
219	Abington	Social Library	1793	Gen	----	C.	S.	B.
220	Andover	Public Library	1895	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
221	Ansonia	Ansonia Memorial Library	1892	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
222	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1886	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
223	Berlin	Free Library	----	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
224	Bethlehem	Library Association	1857	Gen	----	C.	S.	C.
225	Branford	Blackstone Memorial Library	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
226	Bridgeport	Fairfield County Historical Society.	1878	Hist	----	C.	S.	R.
227	do	High School	----	Sch	----	----	----	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
26,000	2,015	5,000	200	68,753	45,912	$5,822	$15,081	$2,487	W. F. Clowdsley	176
6,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	150	1,000	.....	J. A. Barr, superintendent.	177
1,069	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	178
2,403	.....	234	.....	8,299	.....	925	1,275	.....	Simeon Housman	179
2,524	.....	130	.....	15,311	.....	1,056	1,116	.....	W. Dudley, jr., secretary.	180
2,560	.....	200	.....	8,285	.....	782	782	.....	.....	181
3,000	1,500	.....	1,500	3,500	5,000	.....	155	.....	Belle M. Jenkins	182
1,039	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	183
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. J. Ham	184
1,200	100	300	50	4,500	200	250	280	.....	F. H. Clark	185
1,300	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. L. Ogden, treasurer	186
12,180	.....	1,733	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. E. Whitaker	187
2,476	600	147	.....	5,500	.....	.....	1,030	200	Mrs. S. F. Megrue	188
3,043	.....	324	.....	24,960	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. J. Hall, chaplain	189
1,000	50	60	25	304	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	190
15,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	7,500	H. G. A. Braner	191
2,500	.....	.....	.....	12,057	.....	.....	900	.....	Susan T. Dunbar	192
1,540	828	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Enos P. Baker, president.	193
29,005	5,500	2,101	500	147,076	27,647	.....	9,815	.....	Chas. R. Dudley	194
5,000	.....	60	.....	550	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. A. Schiffini	195
8,000	5,000	50	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	John F. Spalding, bishop	196
9,000	150	250	300	.....	300	.....	1,413	.....	Garrett Owens	197
1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	198
32,243	2,000	7,282	150	219,562	.....	21,621	22,898	.....	J. C. Dana	199
99,986	.....	602	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Helen M. Nixson, assistant.	200
11,000	.....	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James A. Miller	201
7,000	.....	200	500	6,000	.....	.....	1,050	.....	Nellie D. Oswald	202
8,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. H. Cowherd	203
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	204
1,500	.....	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Howard E. Warner, secretary.	205
1,010	.....	20	.....	600	150	.....	1,952	.....	Le Roy Burdick	206
5,781	.....	954	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Marguerite E. Stratton	207
3,650	850	225	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Regis Chauvenet, president.	208
2,500	500	105	80	.....	.....	.....	515	.....	Fred. E. Smith	209
4,000	500	1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,800	.....	Joseph F. Daniels	210
7,777	100	380	16	7,803	.....	.....	1,300	.....	Mrs. Laura Leib	211
2,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	180	.....	A. M. Reed	212
6,589	.....	1,289	.....	46,578	1,488	.....	3,000	.....	J. W. Chapman	213
1,750	500	50	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	214
1,000	140	82	12	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. S. McClung, superintendent.	215
7,060	.....	299	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thomas Winsor	216
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	217
3,000	500	300	100	.....	.....	.....	650	1,500	W. F. McDowell, chancellor.	218
1,111	518	.....	.....	119	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jessie E. L. Dennis	219
1,800	100	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	E. M. Yeomans, secretary.	220
1,600	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	1,500	1,600	.....	Wm. C. De Forest	221
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	23	25	Chas. D. Evans, secretary.	222
1,575	.....	118	.....	3,996	.....	.....	129	166	Emily Brandegee	223
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	Mrs. N. L. Bloss	224
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,000	150,000	A. Van Name, trustee	225
4,500	6,500	208	277	.....	.....	.....	350	.....	Edward Deacon, curator.	226
1,000	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. D. Simonds, principal.	227

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	CONNECTICUT—cont'd.							
228	Bridgeport	Park Avenue Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
229	.....do	Public Library and Reading Room.	1882	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
230	Bristol	Free Public Library	1892	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
231	Brooklyn	Town Library	1890	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
232	Canaan	Douglas Library	1821	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
233	Cheshire	Episcopal Academy	1794	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
234	Chester	Public Library	1875	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
235	Clinton	Morgan School	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
236	Colchester	Library Association	1856	Gen	R.	.....	S.	B.
237	Columbia	Free Library	.....	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
238	Cornwall	Library Association	1869	Gen	....	B.	S.	B.
239	Cromwell	Belden Library Association	1888	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
240	Danbury	Danbury Library	1869	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
241	Danielson	Free Public Library	1892	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
242	Deep River	Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
243	Derby	Allis' Circulating Library	1856	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
244	Durham	Coginchang High School	1891	Gen	....	C.	....	R.
245	Durham Center	Durham Public Library	1894	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
246	East Hartford	Public Library	1896	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
247	.....do	Raymond Library	1889	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
248	East River	East River Library Company	1874	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
249	Fairfield	Memorial Library	1876	Gen	....	.....	S.	B.
250	Falls Village	David M. Hunt Library	1889	Gen	O.	.....	S.	B.
251	Farmington	Miss Porter and Mrs. Dow's School.	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
252	.....do	Village Library	1890	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
253	Granby	Public Library	1887	Gen	....	.....	F.	B.
254	Greenwich	Greenwich School	1894	Sch	....	.....	Fr.	B.
255	.....do	Reading Room and Library Association.	1877	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
256	Griswold	Coit Library Association	1879	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
257	Groton	Bill Memorial Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
258	Guilford	Circulating Library	1871	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
259	Hampton	Free Public Library	1895	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
260	Hartford	American School for the Deaf	1817	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
261	.....do	Case Memorial Library of Hartford Theological Seminary.	1834	Theo	O.	C.	F.	B.
262	.....do	Connecticut Historical Society	1825	Hist	....	C.	F.	R.
263	.....do	Good Will Club for Boys	1880	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
264	.....do	Hartford Bar Library	.....	Law	....	.....	F.	R.
265	.....do	Hartford Hospital Library	.....	Gen	....	C.	....	B
266	.....do	Hartford Medical Society	1875	Med	....	C.	F.	R.
267	.....do	Hartford Retreat for the Insane	1824	A. & R	....	C.	....	B.
268	.....do	High School	1638	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
269	.....do	Public Library	1892	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
270	.....do	State Board of Education	.....	Ped	....	.....	F.	R.
271	.....do	Trinity College	1823	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
272	.....do	Watkinson Library	1858	Gen	....	C.	F.	R.
273	.....do	Woodside Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
274	Jewett City	Slater Library	1884	Gen	O.	.....	F	B.
275	Lebanon	Buckingham Pastoral Library	1865	Theo	O.	.....	....	R.
276	Ledyard	Bill Library	1867	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
277	Litchfield	Circulating Library	1870	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
278	.....do	Wolcott Library	1865	Gen	....	.....	S.	B.
279	Lyme	Old Lyme Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
280	Meriden	Connecticut School for Boys	.....	A. & R	....	C.	Fr.	B.
281	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
282	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1866	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
283	Middlefield	Coe Library Association	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
284	Middletown	Berkeley Divinity School	1854	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
285	.....do	Connecticut Industrial School for Girls.	.....	A. & R	....	T.	.....	.....
286	.....do	Russell Free Library	1876	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1890—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,000										228
26,092	2,014	2,169	196	124,175	16,506	$14,126	$14,126		Agnes Hill	229
5,854	175	504	34	32,316		2,500	3,150	$10,000	C. L. Wooding	230
1,332		53		2,158			35		Fannie L. Palmer, assistant librarian.	231
2,500	500	400	75	15,500		100	200	1,300		232
1,000		300		300	150		200		James Stoddard, principal.	233
1,647		250				100	450		S. W. Turner, chairman	234
2,600										235
2,880	500	150		6,784			207		Ida Wagner	236
3,300		100	100	2,000			85	1,500	A. H. Fox	237
2,400	250	174	30			45	120	2,000	Mary Whitney	238
1,050	150	30		1,318			27		Sarah M. Savage	239
12,801		200		70,641	871		5,500	100,000	Mrs. C. H. Sanford	240
3,600		324		17,672		669	781		F. T. Preston, president.	241
1,050	50	175					240		F. N. Hanchett	242
4,000									Geo. C. Allis	243
2,000									E. A. Markham	244
1,000		408		5,953		200	300		Mary J. Camp	245
1,000							500			246
2,500		100		3,409			550	10,000		247
1,340		35		923			335	3,500	Carrie E. Leete	248
2,149				500			25			249
1,675	50	120		2,046			1,100	20,000	C. Belle Maltbie	250
2,000										251
3,193	150	124	25	6,595	200		293	2,970	Mrs. T. H. Root	252
1,400	50	60	15	2,042			65		Mrs. A. E. Edwards	253
1,056							150		N. B. Hobart, principal	254
4,654				2,247			466		Mary M. Miller	255
1,600		75	2	800			157	3,000	Geo. R. Lathrop, secretary.	256
2,939	38	117	2	8,257			532	10,000	Abbie M. Clarke	257
1,323	200	200		600			477			258
1,550		150		6,500			200		Kate A. Thompson	259
2,500										260
67,000	35,000	4,968	3,953	2,500			6,218		Alfred T. Perry	261
22,000	25,000	335	385		17,500		2,655	14,275	Albert C. Bates	262
1,350		75		75					Miss H. M. Bundy	263
6,000							1,300		J. W. Wolven	264
2,000									Leander Hall, superintendent.	265
2,000		50							Edward Root	266
2,000							350	5,000	H. P. Stearns, superintendent.	267
4,650		50				600	600		Edward H. Smiley, principal.	268
50,000		6,000		207,685			15,100	50,000	Caroline M. Hewins	269
2,500		50							C. D. Hine, secretary	270
36,000	23,500	500	700	1,300			1,200	28,000	Samuel Hart, acting	271
46,834		1,035	187				5,666	100,000	Frank B. Gay	272
1,100		50							Sara J. Smith	273
3,355				8,666			606		A. A. Young, jr., secretary.	274
2,000		30					44	1,125	Wm. S. Palmer	275
3,030		113					5		Harriet J. Gray	276
4,000		150		4,500			250		Mrs. Mary J. Buell	277
1,000	200	75	25	125			110	2,500	do	278
3,600							125		Jeb Perkins	279
1,800							150			280
2,500										281
8,000	1,700	502	300	8,872	2,000		989		Asa H. Wilcox	282
1,670	90	182	90	3,275			210		L. A. Rockwell	283
22,000	10,000	100		1,000					John H. Barbour	284
1,500										285
10,783		493		20,976			3,475	60,000	L. F. Philbrook	286

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	CONNECTICUT—cont'd.							
287	Middletown	Wesleyan University	1833	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
288	Milford	Taylor Library	1894	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
289	Moodus	East Haddam Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
290	Mystic	Mystic and Noank Library	1893	Gen	O.		S.	B.
291	Naugatuck	Howard Whittemore Memorial Library.	1894	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
292	New Britain	New Britain Institute	1853	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
293	do	New Britain Normal School		Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
294	New Canaan	Circulating Library	1877	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
295	New Haven	American Oriental Society	1842	Soc		C.	Fr.	B.
296	do	Free Public Library	1886	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
297	do	Hillhouse High School	1859	Sch		T.		B.
298	do	New Haven Colony Historical Society.	1863	Hist	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
299	do	New Haven Orphan Asylum		A & R				B.
300	do	State Board of Health	1880	Scien		C.	F.	B.
301	do	State Normal Training School	1893	Sch		T.	Fr.	B.
302	do	Yale University	1700	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
303	do	Historical Library of Foreign Missions.	1891	Hist			Fr.	B.
304	do	Trowbridge Reference Library	1870	Theo	O.	C.		R.
305	do	Young Men's Institute	1826	Mer	O.	C.	S.	B.
306	New London	New London County Historical Society.		Hist		C.	S.	R.
307	do	Public Library	1891	Gen	O.		F.	B.
308	New Milford	Library Association	1886	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
309	Newtown	Newtown Library	1876	Gen	R.		S.	B.
310	Norfolk	Norfolk Library	1889	Gen	O.		F.	B.
311	Northfield	Gilbert Library	1892	Gen		C.	F.	C.
312	North Granby	Cossitt Library		Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
313	North Haven	Memorial Library	1884	Gen		C.	F.	C.
314	Norwalk	Public Library	1865	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
315	do	Young Ladies' Institute (Baird's)	1871	Sch		C.		B.
316	Norwich	Norwich Circulating Library	1871	Gen	R.		S.	C.
317	do	Otis Library	1850	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
318	do	Peck Library of Norwich Free Academy.	1858	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
319	Oakdale	Raymond Library	1884	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
320	Oxford	Oxford Library	1883	Gen	R.		F.	B.
321	Plainville	Free Public Library	1894	Gen		T.	F.	C.
322	Plymouth	Library Association	1871	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
323	Pomfret	Pomfret Library	1882	Gen		T.	S.	B.
324	Portland	Buck Library	1895	Gen	O.	C.	F.	C.
325	Putnam	Public Library	1886	Gen		T.	F.	B.
326	Ridgefield	Library Corporation	1871	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
327	Rockville	Public Library	1896	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
328	Rocky Hill	Library Association	1794	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
329	Salisbury	Scoville Memorial Library	1895	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
330	Saybrook	Acton Library	1874	Gen	O.		S.	B.
331	Seymour	Public Library	1893	Gen		T.	F.	B.
332	Sharon	Hotchkiss Library	1893	Gen	O.		S.	B.
333	Shelton	Plumb Memorial Library	1892	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
334	Simsbury	Free Library	1874	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
335	South Coventry	Circulating Library	1880	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
336	do	Hale Donation Library	1804	Theo		C.	F.	B.
337	South Manchester	Free Library	1871	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
338	South Norwalk	Public Library and Reading Room	1885	Gen		T.	F.	B.
339	do	Roth and Goldschmidt Free Library.	1887	Gen		C.		B.
340	Southport	Mill Plain Circulating Library	1871	Gen			S.	C.
341	do	Pequot Library	1894	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
342	Stafford Springs	High School	1882	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
343	do	Stafford Public Library	1874	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
344	Stamford	Ferguson Library	1880	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
345	Stonington	Free Library	1884	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
346	Storrs	Storrs Agricultural College	1884	Col		C.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
45,000	.....	.....	.....	8,215	.....	.....	$2,285	$19,625	Wm. J. James	287
7,000	100	5,000	20	31,300	500	.....	1,113	.....	W. S. Chase	288
3,900	350	275	35	5,857	.....	.....	625	.....	Nellie E. Chaffee	289
4,300	.....	142	.....	7,162	.....	.....	180	.....	Miss A. A. Murphy	290
4,047	10	625	3	17,256	.....	.....	2,539	40,000	E. Spencer	291
15,905	483	2,657	70	26,713	2,812	.....	9,629	165,000	Anna G. Rockwell	292
10,520	698	425	15	.....	.....	.....	900	.....	Mary E. Goodrich	293
1,000	.....	175	.....	3,914	.....	$200	320	.....	Martha Silliman	294
5,430	3,550	75	160	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. Van Name	295
31,500	.....	3,381	.....	232,014	.....	.....	16,650	61,000	W. K. Stetson	296
5,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Isaac Thomas	297
5,000	.....	171	440	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dwight E. Bowers	298
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. G. W. Curtis, president.	299
1,200	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. A. Lindsley	300
4,427	1,188	1,189	264	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	301
210,000	75,000	8,090	7,200	.....	.....	.....	28,815	111,000	A. Van Name	302
3,696	739	1,260	210	1,789	71	.....	600	.....	Geo. E. Day	303
3,500	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	330	5,500	Frank C. Porter	304
19,617	.....	784	.....	42,687	.....	.....	3,933	9,000	.....	305
1,150	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. M. Stark	306
15,570	1,510	1,429	150	70,735	2,646	.....	.....	.....	Mary A. Richardson	307
2,800	.....	100	.....	4,765	.....	.....	313	.....	Elizabeth H. Noble	308
3,079	500	110	108	2,206	1,000	.....	310	200	Abbie L. Peck	309
7,175	.....	700	.....	13,795	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	310
2,138	.....	1,466	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	5,000	Levi S. Wooster	311
2,500	.....	217	19	3,388	.....	.....	351	5,000	Kate E. Dewey, assistant.	312
2,000	.....	100	.....	5,824	.....	.....	348	2,000	Harriett D. Andrews	313
3,300	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lawrence P. Mott	314
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	315
8,000	2,000	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James H. Myers	316
20,559	400	1,344	150	97,562	.....	.....	6,928	60,000	Jonathan Trumbull	317
10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	750	12,000	Henry W. Kent	318
2,387	.....	190	.....	950	.....	.....	335	7,000	Lucy R. Parish	319
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. W. Hughes	320
1,343	.....	417	.....	9,484	.....	.....	273	.....	Grace Matthews	321
1,750	.....	115	.....	3,000	.....	.....	272	3,300	A. S. Beardsley, president.	322
2,400	300	100	30	1,600	.....	.....	175	.....	.....	323
1,030	.....	280	.....	10,400	.....	.....	4,200	.....	R. S. Mitchell	324
1,900	.....	200	.....	12,000	.....	.....	600	.....	E. H. Johnson, secretary.	325
3,000	.....	118	.....	.....	.....	.....	290	.....	Mrs. W. S. Todel	326
2,500	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,000	Geraldine Keating	327
1,251	.....	54	3	1,550	.....	.....	135	750	Adelaide W. Wright	328
3,300	30	3,300	30	11,631	.....	.....	600	.....	Della E. Parsons	329
4,500	300	75	25	.....	.....	.....	225	.....	.....	330
1,328	800	320	100	5,115	.....	300	465	.....	Iva E. Sharpe	331
2,900	.....	80	.....	5,598	.....	.....	695	.....	Mrs. F. A. Ryan	332
3,400	.....	1,000	.....	16,764	.....	1,100	1,200	.....	J. Thomlinson, secretary	333
4,000	.....	.....	.....	5,000	.....	.....	900	10,000	E. J. McRoy	334
2,246	.....	110	.....	2,225	.....	.....	135	.....	Sadie C. Wood	335
1,374	.....	19	4	26	50	.....	39	750	B. F. Perkins	336
4,396	17	255	2	14,002	.....	.....	39	.....	Alice B. Cheney	337
2,970	.....	313	.....	18,470	.....	1,107	1,300	.....	Angeline Scott	338
1,323	.....	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	339
1,283	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	26	.....	Mrs. Burr Perry	340
8,000	200	3,574	75	12,699	.....	.....	2,538	.....	Josephine S. Heydrick	341
1,300	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. A. Jacobs, principal	342
2,000	700	60	100	8,157	300	.....	236	.....	Alvarado Howard, treasurer.	343
10,000	.....	.....	.....	8,948	.....	.....	2,381	45,000	E. Van Hoevenberg	344
3,700	200	.....	.....	11,804	.....	30	110	.....	K. Hahn	345
3,138	2,000	818	400	.....	453	.....	121	.....	Miss A. Loomis	346

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	CONNECTICUT—cont'd.							
347	Stratford	Stratford Library	1885	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
348	Suffield	Connecticut Literary Institution	1833	Sch		C.		B.
349	do	Free Public Library	1884	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
350	Talcottville	Talcott Free Library	1882	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
351	Terryville	Free Public Library	1895	Gen		T.	F.	B.
352	Thomaston	Laura Andrews Free Public Library.		Gen			F.	B.
353	Thompsonville	Enfield High School		Sch				
354	Torrington	Library Association	1865	Gen		C.	S.	B.
355	Wallingford	Public Library		Gen		C.	S.	B.
356	Warrenville	Babcock Library	1865	Gen	R.		F.	C.
357	Washington	Reading Room and Circulating Library.	1880	Gen		C.	S.	B.
358	Waterbury	Convent of Notre Dame		Sch		C.		
359	do	Silas Bronson Library	1870	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
360	Watertown	Library Association	1865	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
361	Wauregan	Village Library Association	1861	Gen		C.	S.	B.
362	West Hartford	Free Library	1883	Gen		C.	F.	B.
363	Westport	Staples High School	1884	Sch			S.	B.
364	West Winsted	Beardsley Library	1874	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
365	Wethersfield	Connecticut State Prison		A. & R.		T.		C.
366	do	Public Library	1894	Gen		T.	F.	C.
367	Willimantic	Dunham Hall Library	1878	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
368	do	Public Library		Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
369	Windsor	Library Association	1889	Gen		C.	F.	B.
370	Winsted	Gilbert School	1895	Sch	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
371	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1887	Y. M. C. A		C.	Fr.	B.
372	Woodstock	Woodstock Library	1880	Gen			S.	B.
	DELAWARE.							
373	Dover	Delaware State Library	1830	Law	O.	T.	F.	R.
374	do	Scott Library of Wilmington Conference Academy.	1876	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
375	Lewes	Union School		Sch				
376	Milford	Milford Library	1881	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
377	Newark	Delaware College		Col		C.		
378	do	Delta Phi Literary Society	1835	Col. Soc		C.		C.
379	Newcastle	Library Company	1812	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
380	Odessa	Corbit Library	1847	Gen			F.	C.
381	Wilmington	Brownson Library Association	1886	Social	O.	C.	S.	C.
382	do	German Library Association	1873	Social	O.	C.	S.	C.
383	do	Historical Society of Delaware	1864	Hist	R.	C.	F.	R.
384	do	Law Library Association of Newcastle County.	1873	Law		C.	S.	R.
385	do	Manning Association	1883	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
386	do	Wilmington Institute Free Library.	1787	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.							
387	Washington	Academy of the Holy Cross	1876	Sch		C.	F.	R.
388	do	Bar Association of the District of Columbia.		Law		C.	S.	R.
389	do	Carroll Institute	1873	Soc		C.	S.	B.
390	do	Catholic University of America		Col		C.		R.
391	do	Central High School	1882	Sch				B.
392	do	Colored High School		Sch				R.
393	do	Columbian University		Col		C.		
394	do	Eastern High School	1890	Sch		C.		B.
395	do	Executive Mansion Library		Govt				
396	do	Gallaudet College	1866	Col		C.	Fr.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
4,500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$43,000	$8,000	Joel S. Nes, president	347
2,000	.....	26	.....	150	200	.....	75	.....	W. Scott, principal	348
2,580	15	250	6	8,448	.....	.....	501	.....	Mrs. Calvin C. Spencer, director.	349
1,700	.....	25	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	David Ferguson	350
1,162	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Gertrude E. Ells	351
2,366	60	.....	.....	10,000	.....	.....	418	.....	Hattie Norton	352
1,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	353
4,473	.....	204	.....	16,562	.....	.....	522	.....	.....	354
3,600	.....	.....	.....	6,619	.....	.....	628	.....	Emma Lewis	355
3,247	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	120	3,000	Peter Platt	356
2,400	50	100	.....	1,811	.....	.....	156	.....	Wm. G. Brinsmade	357
1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	358
51,954	13,000	1,098	254	71,065	3,764	.....	12,554	207,991	H. F. Bassett	359
7,412	.....	395	.....	11,733	.....	.....	1,065	20,000	.....	360
1,044	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. A. Atwood, agent	361
2,166	.....	96	.....	4,000	.....	.....	72	1,200	Elizabeth S. Elmer	362
2,070	.....	300	2	.....	.....	.....	114	.....	Carrie S. Bradley	363
7,240	.....	245	26	8,896	.....	.....	989	6,000	Louise M. Carrington	364
2,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	J. L. Woodbridge, warden.	365
1,949	.....	217	.....	6,457	.....	.....	350	1,250	Elizabeth P. Andrews, director.	366
4,500	.....	120	52	8,685	.....	.....	20	.....	Jennie A. Ford	367
4,200	600	254	200	12,671	100	$500	500	.....	A. Dell Carpenter	368
1,044	.....	31	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Grace M. Blake	369
2,500	100	2,500	100	790	.....	.....	5,000	.....	J. E. Clarke	370
1,200	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. B. Phillips, secretary	371
1,600	200	100	25	1,000	.....	.....	75	.....	L. B. Flynn	372
26,000	4,000	900	100	.....	.....	.....	10,375	.....	Peter C. Gruwell	373
1,200	100	20	20	150	.....	.....	75	.....	W. L. Gooding, principal.	374
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	375
1,650	500	80	50	.....	.....	.....	110	.....	Miss Georgia Arnold	376
6,736	5,714	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	377
1,938	185	90	.....	386	.....	.....	.....	.....	Everett C. Johnson	378
5,000	800	30	100	2,600	.....	.....	425	5,500	R. A. Challenger	379
3,132	500	150	100	1,040	.....	30	107	1,150	Joseph L. Gibson, clerk	380
1,184	500	200	156	5,380	740	.....	1,700	.....	Jas. J. Kerrigan, assistant.	381
4,521	700	50	35	1,930	.....	.....	435	.....	Fritz von Bomdon	382
1,000	2,000	125	200	.....	5	.....	750	1,500	Henry C. Conrad	383
3,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	700	.....	W. H. Porter, president	384
1,300	265	50	100	300	800	.....	1,400	.....	Thomas Bakey	385
25,702	.....	1,892	897	137,215	.....	.....	17,164	.....	Willis F. Sewall	386
1,000	1,000	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	387
7,500	.....	350	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. Kennon Peter	388
4,600	324	186	34	911	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. H. Lepley	389
16,600	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	390
5,000	1,000	25	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. R. Lane, director	391
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. L. Cardoza, principal	392
9,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	393
1,800	2,175	590	1,500	3,070	7,890	.....	.....	.....	C. M. Lacey Sites, principal.	394
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. Loeffler	395
1,673	.....	11	.....	324	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. M. Gallaudet, president.	396

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—cont'd.							
397	Washington	Georgetown College (Riggs Memorial Library).	1789	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
398	do	Senior Students' Library		Col		C.	S.	B.
399	do	Gonzaga College		Col		C.		
400	do	Government Hospital for the Insane.	1855	Gen		C.		B.
401	do	Grand Lodge F. A. A. M		Masonic	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
402	do	House of Representatives U. S. Library.		Govt				
403	do	Howard University	1870	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
404	do	I. O. O. F. Library		I. O. O. F.		C.	Fr.	B.
405	do	Library of Congress	1800	Govt	O.	T.	F.	R.
406	do	Light Battery C, Third Artillery	1870	Gar			Fr.	R.
407	do	Mount Vernon Seminary	1875	Sch		C.		R.
408	do	Norwood Institute		Sch		C.		R.
409	do	Olney Institute		Sch		C.		
410	do	Peabody Library, Curtis School	1876	Gen		C.	F.	B.
411	do	St. Johns College		Col		C.		B.
412	do	School of Notre Dame	1873	Sch		C.		R.
413	do	Supreme Council A. & A. S. Rite	1880	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
414	do	United States Department of Agriculture.	1869	Govt		T.	Fr.	B.
415	do	United States Department of Justice.		Govt		T.		R.
416	do	United States Department of State.	1789	Gen		T.		B.
417	do	United States Department of the Interior.	1859	Gen		T.	Fr.	B.
418	do	Bureau of Education	1868	Ped		T.	Fr.	B.
419	do	General Land Office		Law		T.	Fr.	R.
420	do	Geological Survey	1882	Govt		T.	Fr.	B.
421	do	Scientific Library of Patent Office.	1836	Scien		T.	Fr.	R.
422	do	United States Fish Commission	1871	Govt		T.	F.	R.
423	do	United States National Museum		Govt				
424	do	United States Navy Department		Govt		T.	Fr.	B.
425	do	Hydrographic Office		Govt		T.	F.	R.
426	do	Nautical Almanac Office	1850	Scien				R.
427	do	Naval Museum of Hygiene	1882	Govt		T.	F.	B.
428	do	Naval Observatory	1845	Scien		T.	F.	R.
429	do	United States Post-Office Department.	1862	Govt			Fr.	B.
430	do	United States Senate	1863	Law		T.		R.
431	do	United States Soldiers' Home		Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
432	do	United States Treasury Department.		Govt		T.		B.
433	do	Bureau of Statistics		Govt			F.	R.
434	do	Light-House Board	1852	Tech		T.	F.	R.
435	do	Marine Hospital Bureau	1872	Med		T.		R.
436	do	Office of Solicitor of the Treasury.	1830	Law		T.	F.	R.
437	do	Coast and Geodetic Survey	1832	Govt			Fr.	B.
438	do	United States War Department		Govt			Fr.	B.
439	do	Surgeon-General's Office	1863	Med	O.	T.	F.	R.
440	do	Washington City Free Library	1995	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
441	do	Wayland Seminary		Sch	O.	C.		B.

a About 175,000 volumes, embracing 344,000 titles, are deposited in the Library of Congress.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
71,450	44,473	711	210	4,500	3,600	.....	$3,843	.....	Henry J. Shandelle	397
4,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John W. Corbett, director.	398
9,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	399
3,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	I. W. Blackburn.....	400
2,941	.....	122	.....	874	.....	.....	50	.....	W. R. Singleton	401
100,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N.S.Gallieher, assistant.	402
10,619	10,750	172	502	3,000	.....	.....	306	.....	Irene C. Tyler.....	403
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. H. Pearson	404
740,000	250,000	13,745	2,000	.....	.....	.....	63,720	.....	A. R. Spofford	405
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,400	.....	.....	.....	A. Petersen, first sergeant.	406
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	407
2,000	200	55	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary V E. Cabell	408
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	409
9,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Walte C. English, assistant	410
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brother Fabrician.....	411
3,500	200	20	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary Euphrosia, superintendent.	412
40,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frederick Webber	413
53,047	.....	4,493	.....	.....	110,000	.....	6,000	.....	W. P. Cutter	414
25,000	.....	877	93	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James A. Finch	415
60,000	1,500	666	821	1,500	.....	.....	2,000	.....	Andrew H. Allen.....	416
13,000	.....	50	.....	33,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary Fuller, acting....	417
68,000	120,000	2,500	10,000	2,500	5,000	.....	2,251	.....	Henderson Presnell, acting.	418
2,572	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. W. Gray, receiving clerk.	419
40,000	65,000	2,000	10,000	.....	12,000	.....	2,000	.....	Chas. C. Darwin.....	420
67,881	.....	1,442	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	Howard L. Prince.....	421
5,000	2,500	547	498	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ebenezer Ellis	422
a25,000	10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. P. Langley, secretray.	423
29,000	.....	781	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	Richard Rush.....	424
1,000	2,000	10	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. H. Mahan, acting hydrographer.	425
1,800	.....	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Eben J. Loomis, assistant.	426
11,000	8,000	100	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. L. Bates, medical director.	427
18,760	3,286	550	18	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. L. Phythian, superintendent.	428
11,000	500	300	25	7,000	3,500	.....	.....	.....	L. A. Henley	429
82,000	.....	4,584	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alonzo W. Church	430
7,042	123	24	16	5,025	1,076	.....	.....	.....	Eugene Sigrist.....	431
30,000	10,000	.....	.....	2,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	H. Y. Hiener	432
5,000	6,500	123	470	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	433
3,000	500	50	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. B. Johnson, chief clerk.	434
1,400	1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Fairfax Irwin, surgeon.	435
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Hiram Michaels.....	436
14,000	.....	277	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. W. Duffield, superintendent.	437
32,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	438
17,263	190,000	2,200	10,000	.....	.....	.....	8,000	.....	D. L. Huntington.....	439
4,762	.....	4,762	.....	14,170	2,600	.....	2,315	.....	Malina A. Gilkey	440
2,500	.....	70	.....	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Simpson	441

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	FLORIDA.							
442	De Funiak Springs	Ladies Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
443	De Land	John B. Stetson University	1888	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
444	Jacksonville	Cookman Institute		Sch		C.		B.
445	do	Library Association	1882	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
446	Jasper	Jasper Normal Institute		Sch		C.		
447	Lake City	State Agricultural College	1884	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
448	Leesburg	Florida Conference College	1892	Col		C.	S.	B.
449	Milton	Santa Rosa Academy, Public Library.	1874	Gen			F.	R.
450	St. Augustine	Free Public Library	1874	Gen	O.		F.	B.
451	St. Leo	St. Leo Military College	1890	Col		C.	F.	R.
452	Tallahassee	Supreme Court Library	1845	Law		T.		R.
453	do	University Library Association		Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
454	Winter Park	Rollins College		Col		C.		
	GEORGIA.							
455	Americus	Library Association	1878	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
456	Athens	City School Library	1887	Sch		C.		C.
457	do	Lucy Cobb Institute		Col		C.		
458	do	University of Georgia	1785	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
459	Atlanta	Atlanta Baptist Seminary	1879	Col		C.		B.
460	do	Atlanta University (Graves Library).		Col		C.	Fr.	B.
461	do	Girls' High School		Sch				
462	do	Morris Brown College	1885	Col		C.	F.	R.
463	do	Spelman Seminary (Quarles Library).		Sch		C.		B.
464	do	State Library	1847	Law			F.	R.
465	do	Young Men's Library Association	1867	Soc	O.	C.	F.	B.
466	Augusta	Medical College of Georgia	1835	Med	O.	C.		B.
467	do	Young Men's Library Association	1848	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
468	Cavespring	Georgia Institution for the Deaf		A. & R.				
469	Columbus	Public Library	1880	Gen	O.		S.	B.
470	Dahlonega	North Georgia Agricultural College.	1878	Col		C.		B.
471	do	Decora Palaestra Society	1876	Col. soc		C.	S.	B.
472	Decatur	Agnes Scott Institute	1891	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
473	Hawkinsville	Library and Literary Society	1879	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
474	Lagrange	Lagrange Female College	1846	Col		C.		R.
475	Macon	Ballard School	1888	Sch	O.	C.		B.
476	do	Mercer University	1837	Col	O.	C.		R.
477	do	Ciceronian Society	1834	Col. soc		C.	S.	B.
478	do	Phi Delta Society	1834	Col. soc	O.	C.	S.	R.
479	do	Public Library and Historical Association.	1874	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
480	do	St. Stanislaus College		Gen	O.	C.		B.
481	do	Wesleyan Female College	1838	Col		C.		R.
482	Marietta	Sarah F. Clarke Library	1893	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
483	Milledgeville	Georgia Normal and Industrial College.		Col		C.		
484	do	Middle Georgia Military and Agricultural College.	1880	Col		C.		B.
485	do	State Asylum	1887	A. & R.			F.	B.
486	Oxford	Emory College		Col		C.	S.	B.
487	do	Few Literary Society	1839	Col. soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
488	do	Phi Gamma Society		Col. soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
489	Rome	Shorter College	1892	Col		C.		B.
490	do	Young Men's Library Association	1887	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
491	Savannah	Georgia Historical Society	1839	Hist	O.	C.	S.	B.
492	South Atlanta	Clark University	1877	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
493	do	Gammon Theological Seminary	1883	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
494	Washington	Mary Willis Library	1889	Gen	O.		F.	B.
495	do	St. Joseph's Academy		Sch		C.		

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,287	400	100	100	1,764	785	.....	$347	.....	Mrs. Anna M. Everett	442
5,800	.....	439	.....	2,000	.....	.....	1,005	$20,000	Julia A. Dickerson	443
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	444
2,500	3,000	100	300	.....	.....	.....	325	.....	Chas. H. Smith	445
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	446
2,000	.....	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. W. Flournoy	447
4,500	.....	500	.....	.....	685	.....	60	.....	V. H. Knight	448
4,000	.....	350	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jno. Carloritz	449
4,500	300	125	50	1,000	.....	.....	487	2,800	John C. Wilson, president.	450
1,800	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	104	.....	Father Benedict	451
7,119	.....	301	.....	.....	.....	.....	800	.....	J. B. Whitfield	452
5,000	1,000	100	200	1,300	.....	.....	415	5,000	W. H. Carter, president.	453
3,000	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	454
2,540	.....	3	.....	4,470	.....	.....	273	.....	Mary C. Granberry	455
3,000	.....	200	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank M. Harper, assistant superintendent.	456
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	457
20,000	.....	.....	.....	2,314	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sarah Frierson	458
3,000	100	20	20	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	George Sale	459
9,142	530	906	60	.....	.....	.....	300	6,000	E. Jean Stenabaugh	460
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	461
1,000	200	14	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. St. Geo. Richardson, president.	462
3,000	.....	200	.....	850	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lucy H. Upton, associate principal.	463
60,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	Jno. Milledge	464
17,000	.....	600	.....	20,000	.....	.....	3,565	12,250	Hooper Alexander, chairman.	465
3,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Eugene Foster, dean	466
7,508	.....	.....	.....	4,099	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	467
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	468
6,000	.....	40	.....	8,500	.....	.....	1,200	.....	Mrs. Nina Holstead	469
5,000	2,000	100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	I. W. Waddell, president.	470
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	107	.....	R. C. Nix	471
1,000	.....	94	.....	403	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	472
1,771	.....	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	190	.....	Myra Coney	473
1,200	.....	200	.....	.....	650	.....	200	.....	Leon P. Smith, acting secretary.	474
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. C. Burrage, principal.	475
9,065	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Gambrell	476
5,168	.....	34	.....	1,897	.....	.....	50	.....	W. E. Jenkins	477
2,800	.....	67	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	E. W. Childs	478
10,504	.....	356	.....	10,872	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Mrs. Nora L. Barbrey	479
6,000	300	40	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. A. Nacready	480
2,000	630	.....	144	.....	366	.....	.....	.....	E. F. Andrews	481
4,000	200	200	.....	2,880	.....	.....	500	.....	Kate S. Winn	482
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	483
1,500	100	200	50	.....	.....	.....	85	.....	J. C. Woodward	484
3,878	3,339	189	20	2,560	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robt. A. Trippe	485
18,000	3,000	8,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. H. Stone	486
1,500	.....	4	.....	1,000	.....	.....	403	.....	A. D. Kean	487
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. H. Stone	488
1,500	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	160	.....	Eleanor C. Gibbs, teacher	489
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Miss L. P. Hargrove	490
21,065	3,363	393	344	12,472	.....	.....	5,406	.....	Wm. Harden	491
1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. H. Crogman	492
11,200	3,000	1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. P. Thirkield, president.	493
5,000	2,000	.....	.....	8,439	.....	.....	900	10,000	Frank W. Barnett, president.	494
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	495

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	IDAHO.							
496	Boise	Free Reading Room and Circulating Library.	1894	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
497	.....do	State Law Library	1871	Law	....	.....	F.	R.
498	Caldwell	College of Idaho	1892	Sch	O.	C.	F.	B.
499	Hailey	High School	1887	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
500	Moscow	University of Idaho	1889	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
	ILLINOIS.							
501	Abingdon	Hedding College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
502	Addison	Seminary Library	1864	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
503	Alton	Jennie D. Hayner Library Association.	1852	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
504	Atlanta	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
505	Aurora	Jennings Seminary	.....	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
506	.....do	Public Library	1882	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
507	Barry	.....do	1876	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
508	Batavia	.....do	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
509	Belleville	.....do	1883	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
510	Belvidere	Ida Public Library	1885	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
511	Bloomington	Chicago and Alton Library Association.	1879	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
512	.....do	Illinois Weselyan University	1854	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
513	.....do	Withers Public Library	1856	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
514	Bourbonnais	St. Viateur's College	1879	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
515	Braidwood	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
516	Bunker Hill	Bunker Hill Military Academy	1882	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
517	.....do	Library Association	1868	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
518	Cairo	Public Library	1882	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
519	Cambridge	.....do	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
520	Canton	Parlin Library	1893	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
521	Carbondale	Library Association	1876	Gen	R.	C.	S.	R.
522	.....do	Southern Illinois Normal University.	1874	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
523	Carlinville	Blackburn University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
524	.....do	Carlinville Library	.....	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
525	Carrollton	Public Library	1873	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
526	Carthage	Carthage College	1871	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
527	.....do	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
528	Centralia	Public Library	1873	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
529	Champaign	.....do	1876	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
530	Chicago	Academy of the Sacred Heart	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
531	.....do	Acolythical Library	1860	Soc	....	C.	S.	C.
532	.....do	Armour Institute of Technology.	1893	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
533	.....do	Art Institute of Chicago	1879	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
534	.....do	Aurora Turn Verein	1872	Gen	R.	C.	....	B.
535	.....do	Bibliothek des Germania Männerchor.	1891	Hist	....	C.	....	B.
536	.....do	Chicago Academy of Sciences	1857	Scien	O.	C.	F.	R.
537	.....do	Chicago Athenaeum	1871	Col	....	C.	....	B.
538	Chicago (465 State street).	Chicago College of Pharmacy	1859	Col	R.	C.	....	R.
539	Chicago (142 Dearborn avenue).	Chicago Historical Society	1856	Hist	O.	C.	F.	R.
540	Chicago (81 Ashland boulevard).	Chicago Theological Seminary (Hammond Library.)	1856	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
541	Chicago (Station O).	Chicago Training School	1869	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
542	Chicago (Wabash avenue and Thirty-fifth street).	De La Salle Institute	1891	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
543	Chicago (Station O).	Englewood High School	1872	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
544	Chicago	Field Columbian Museum	1894	Scien	....	C.	F.	R.
545	Chicago (481 Dearborn avenue).	Girls' Collegiate School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
546	Chicago	Grant Collegiate Institute	.....	Sch	R.	C.	....	B.
547	.....do	Hahnemann Medical College Hospital.	.....	Med	....	C.	....	....

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,154	30	300	30	540	800	.....	$403	.....	Fanny L. Cobb, secretary	496
6,000	.....	340	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,150	.....	Mrs. Mary S. Wood	497
1,000	100	75	25	1,000	5,000	.....	200	.....	W. F. Boone	498
1,369	600	100	150	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	N. I. Garrison	499
3,500	9,500	1,100	3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. E. Bonebright	500
2,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	501
2,860	1,580	60	80	.....	180	.....	90	.....	F. Lindemann	502
10,000	300	290	.....	11,161	.....	.....	903	$5,000	Florence Dolbee	503
1,000	.....	70	.....	1,444	.....	$100	103	.....	Alta Chenoweth	504
1,000	100	.....	24	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. R. Cronce	505
14,350	.....	614	.....	90,117	.....	4,000	4,225	.....	James Shaw	506
2,075	.....	.....	.....	1,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	507
5,450	.....	423	.....	18,127	.....	1,452	1,503	.....	.....	508
14,511	7,350	957	766	20,529	16,408	3,000	3,054	.....	F. J. Stanfenbiel	509
9,362	.....	156	.....	23,950	.....	.....	771	.....	.....	510
2,540	200	75	21	2,372	1,200	.....	660	.....	F. W. Bridges, secretary.	511
6,250	2,000	199	250	.....	.....	.....	207	475	M. Luella Denman	512
16,068	625	.....	323	79,562	6,869	3,500	4,471	.....	Evva L. Moore	513
5,125	500	75	100	.....	4,800	.....	125	.....	J. Leclair	514
1,900	.....	107	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Elizabeth Moore	515
1,001	.....	30	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. L. Stuer, superintendent.	516
2,341	.....	.....	.....	1,728	.....	.....	195	.....	.....	517
7,100	2,500	476	500	17,565	2,500	2,485	2,572	.....	Lizzie L. Powell	518
4,650	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	550	560	.....	M. E. York	519
3,000	70	517	35	26,791	2,453	1,700	2,700	.....	Mrs. Josephine H. Resor	520
1,700	1,500	50	100	800	.....	.....	77	.....	Mary E. Hull	521
13,354	.....	1,442	.....	3,672	.....	.....	1,052	.....	Minnie Fryar	522
2,500	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	523
3,000	500	100	175	3,600	.....	.....	133	.....	Elfie M. Keas	524
2,385	295	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	525
4,000	2,000	200	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. W. Troup, vice president.	526
2,154	.....	125	25	10,389	.....	.....	300	.....	Elizabeth E. Pennock	527
3,500	.....	278	.....	.....	.....	700	700	.....	Nellie Surles	528
5,838	870	372	60	15,171	2,144	2,000	2,600	10,000	Annie L. Le Crone	529
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	530
1,257	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. J. Riley	531
12,122	.....	996	.....	7,280	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary L. Bennett	532
1,576	.....	103	.....	942	.....	.....	664	.....	Miss J. L. Forrester	533
1,300	250	.....	50	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. Tonn	534
1,200	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Haakon Nyhuus	535
2,000	5,000	395	606	.....	.....	.....	8,500	.....	Frank C. Baker, curator	536
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	537
1,500	300	15	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. B. Day	538
20,000	50,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,000	75,000	Edward G. Mason, president.	539
15,500	5,000	520	500	.....	.....	.....	3,895	35,500	Herbert W. Gates	540
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary M. Weaver	541
3,500	1,100	530	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brother Abban	542
2,500	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. E. Armstrong, principal.	543
6,448	6,820	628	1,008	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	Edward L. Burchard	544
2,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rebecca S. Rice	545
1,000	.....	20	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary A. Mineah, principal.	546
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	547

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	ILLINOIS—continued.							
548	Chicago	Hyde Park High School	1874	Sch				B.
549	do	John Crerar Library	1894	Scien	R.	C.	F.	R.
550	Chicago (40 Scott street).	Kirkland School	1875	Sch	R.	C.		R.
551	Chicago (Station X)	Lake View High School	1873	Sch		T.	Fr.	B.
552	Chicago (Tribune building).	Loyal Legion Library		Soc	R.	C.		R.
553	Chicago	McCormick Theological Seminary (Virginia Library.)	1825	Theo	O.	C.		B.
554	do	Married Ladies' Sodality Library	1889	Soc		C.	F.	B.
555	do	Newberry Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
556	do	Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
557	Chicago (Pullman)	Pullman Public Library	1883	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
558	Chicago (Station X)	Ravenswood Historical Society	1884	Gen	O.	C.	F.	C.
559	Chicago	St. Francis Xavier's Academy		Sch		C.		
560	Chicago (Station H)	St. Ignatius College	1870	Gen		C.	F.	R.
561	Chicago	Students' Library		Col		C.	S.	B.
562	Chicago (135 S. Desplaines street).	St. Patrick's Academy	1863	Sch		C.	S.	B.
563	Chicago	Theological Seminary of the Evangelical Lutheran Church.		Theo		C.		
564	Chicago (94 Dearborn street).	Union Catholic Library Association.	1868	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
565	Chicago	Union League Club Library	1879	Gen	O.	C.		R.
566	do	University of Chicago	1891	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
567	do	Western New Church Union Library.	1886	Theo	R.	C.	F.	B.
568	do	Western Society of Engineers		Scien	R.	C.	F.	R.
569	do	Western Theological Seminary	1885	Theo		C.		B.
570	Chicago (Eleventh and May streets).	Young Ladies' Sodality Library		Soc	O.	C.	S.	C.
571	Chicago (153 La Salle street).	Y. M. C. A. Library (central department).		Y.M.C.A.		C.	S.	R.
572	Chicago	Y. P. S. C. E. of Third Presbyterian Church.	1880	Soc		C.	S.	C.
573	Cobden	Library Association	1877	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
574	Cordova	Public Library	1878	Gen		T.	F.	B.
575	Danville	do	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
576	do	Public School Library		Sch				
577	Decatur	Free Public Library	1875	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
578	do	High School	1865	Sch		T.	F.	R.
579	Desplaines	St. Mary's Training School	1882	Sch		C.		B.
580	Dixon	Dixon Hose Company	1872	Soc		C.	S.	B.
581	do	Public Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
582	Dundee	do	1879	Gen		T.	F.	B.
583	Duquoin	Public School Library	1896	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
584	Earlville	Public Library	1865	Gen		T.	F.	B.
585	Edwardsville	do	1879	Gen		C.	S.	B.
586	Effingham	Austin College		Col		C.		
587	Elgin	Gail Borden Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
588	do	Illinois Northern Hospital for Insane.	1872	Gen		T.		B.
589	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1885	Y.M.C.A.	R.	C.	S.	C.
590	Elmhurst	Mensch Society of Evangelical Proseminary.	1877	Col. Soc		C.	S.	B.
591	Eureka	Eureka College	1857	Col		C.	F.	B.
592	Evanston	Free Public Library	1870	Gen		T.	F.	B.
593	do	Garrett Biblical Institute	1854	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
594	do	Northwestern University	1855	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
595	Ewing	Ewing College		Col		C.	S.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,000	500	200	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. W. French, principal.	548
1,216	53	1,216	53	.....	.....	.....	$96,204	$1,937,708	Clement W. Andrews ..	549
1,200	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emma S. Adams, principal.	550
2,200	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James H. Norton, principal.	551
1,113	.....	163	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Roswell H. Mason, recorder.	552
20,000	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles Evans	553
5,000	100	250	50	6,000	100	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. B. Palmer.....	554
135,244	35,654	10,863	5,098	.....	398,486	.....	.....	.....	.....	555
217,065	42,000	18,485	1,236	1,147,862	1,337,190	$494,850	501,396	12,000	Fred H. Hild	556
8,500	.....	.....	.....	23,884	.....	.....	797	.....	Mrs. Charles B. Smith..	557
1,000	.....	.....	.....	6,000	.....	.....	600	.....	Chas. E. Sinclair, trustee	558
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	559
19,000	.....	.....	.....	400	8,000	.....	.....	.....	L. M. Kenny.....	560
2,500	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. F. Robison	561
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	225	.....	Brother Baldwin	562
3,000	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	563
2,500	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alice Coffey.....	564
3,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. E. Noyes, assistant secretary.	565
305,000	180,000	10,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Zella A. Dixon	566
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	550	.....	.....	567
2,300	1,500	265	275	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Nelson L. Litten, secretary.	568
4,000	2,000	50	.....	300	.....	.....	100	.....	Francis J. Hall	569
3,500	.....	150	.....	500	.....	.....	150	.....	Miss K. Dooner	570
1,125	800	20	300	.....	12,050	.....	125	.....	W. M. Wood, director ..	571
2,300	.....	5	.....	1,750	.....	.....	150	.....	O. N. Caldwell.....	572
2,900	100	25	20	600	.....	.....	49	.....	Mary S. Peebles, secretary.	573
1,439	100	75	12	2,391	200	225	230	.....	N. R. Freek, secretary pro tem.	574
8,000	200	500	25	30,000	.....	2,250	2,250	.....	Josephine E. Durham..	575
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	576
14,766	.....	725	.....	86,774	34,500	4,800	5,004	.....	Alice G. Evans.....	577
1,090	.....	46	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. A. Gastman.....	578
1,200	200	50	40	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	Bro. Alcimian, secretary.	579
1,780	40	.....	.....	976	100	.....	27	.....	Henry S. Dey	580
1,661	.....	.....	.....	3,112	.....	1,991	2,056	.....	Orris B. Dodge, president.	581
1,749	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	360	360	.....	H. J. Baumann.....	582
1,250	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	750	.....	J. E. Wooters, superintendent.	583
2,451	20	73	1	3,484	.....	185	196	.....	Daisy Pool.....	584
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sarah Coventry	585
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	586
17,000	1,090	1,189	.....	121,911	3,963	7,740	7,740	.....	.....	587
1,250	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Arthur Loewy, superintendent.	588
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	589
1,000	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	120	.....	D. Irion.....	590
2,864	1,950	122	50	2,086	.....	.....	197	.....	H. N. Herrick	591
15,515	100	1,964	.....	55,271	7,852	6,622	6,872	.....	Mary B. Lindsay.....	592
7,890	.....	328	.....	872	325	.....	591	.....	Wm. W. Bishop, assistant.	593
31,234	19,500	1,173	500	4,434	4,364	.....	.....	125,000	Lodilla Ambrose, assistant.	594
4,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. A. Leavitt, president.	595

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	ILLINOIS—continued.							
596	Flora	Public School Library	1894	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
597	Freeport	Public Library	1889	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
598	Fulton	Northern Illinois College	1866	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
599	Galena	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
600	.....do	Public Library and Reading Room.	1894	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
601	Galesburg	Knox College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
602	.....do	Lombard University	1852	Col	....	C.	....	B.
603	.....do	Public Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
604	Geneseo	.....do	1881	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
605	Geneva	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
606	Gilman	Library Association	1870	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
607	Glenwood	Illinois School of Agriculture and Manual Training for Boys.	.....	A. & R.	....	.....	.....	....
608	Godfrey	Post Memorial Library	1890	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
609	Greenville	Greenville College	1892	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
610	Griggsville	Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
611	Hoopeston	Greer College	1892	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
612	Jacksonville	Illinois Central Hospital for the Insane.	.....	A. & R.	....	T.	....	C.
613	.....do	Illinois College	1829	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
614	.....do	Phi Alpha Literary Society	1845	Col. Soc	....	C.	....	B.
615	.....do	Sigma Pi Literary Society	1843	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
616	.....do	Illinois Female College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
617	.....do	Illinois Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb.	1860	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
618	.....do	Illinois Institution for Educacation of the Blind.	1847	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
619	.....do	Jacksonville Female Academy	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
620	.....do	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
621	Joliet	.....do	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
622	.....do	Russell's Business College	1866	Sch	R.	C.	S.	R.
623	.....do	State Penitentiary Library	.....	Gen	O.	T.	....	B.
624	Kankakee	High School	1877	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
625	.....do	Ladies' Library	1872	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
626	.....do	Public Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
627	Kewanee	.....do	1875	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
628	Knoxville	.....do	.....	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
629	.....do	St. Mary's School	1868	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
630	Lake Forest	Lake Forest University	1857	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
631	Lebanon	McKendree College	1834	Col	O.	C.	....	B.
632	.....do	Philosophian Society	1837	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
633	.....do	Platonian Literary Society	1850	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
634	Lincoln	Public Library	1895	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
635	.....do	Lincoln University	.....	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
636	Litchfield	Free Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
637	Lombard	Free Library	1882	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
638	Macomb	Free Public Library	1882	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
639	Mattoon	High School	1886	Sch	.....	T.	....	B.
640	.....do	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
641	Maywood	.....do	1887	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
642	Menard	Southern Illinois Penitentiary	.....	A. & R.	....	T.	....	C.
643	Mendota	Graves Public Library	1894	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
644	Moline	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
645	.....do	Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
646	Monmouth	Monmouth College	1854	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
647	.....do	Warren County Library and Reading Room.	1868	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
648	Morgan Park	George C. Walker Library	1889	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
649	Morris	Library Association	1872	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
650	Morrison	Literary and Scientific Association.	1877	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
651	Mount Morris	Mount Morris College (Cassel Library).	1880	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
652	Mount Vernon	Supreme Court Law Library	1854	Law	....	T.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,200	1,250	200	150	600	1,000	.....	.....	.....	J. L. Hughes, superintendent.	596
9,375	.....	.....	.....	41,688	.....	$3,191	$3,191	.....	Smith D. Atkins, president.	597
1,000	200	26	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. A. Morley, president.	598
1,300	10	40	40	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	I. C. Baker, superintendent.	599
2,827	.....	.....	.....	26,441	.....	815	969	.....	Anna E. Felt, secretary.	600
8,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	601
7,000	.....	.....	.....	700	.....	.....	150	$100	John C. Lee	602
18,469	900	1,092	136	53,782	14,066	.....	5,208	.....	Elizabeth Phillips	603
6,000	.....	200	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emma M. Chapin	604
1,245	.....	290	.....	10,247	.....	1,100	1,121	.....	Helen L. Plato	605
2,425	75	123	.....	3,144	.....	.....	109	.....	Mrs. Fanny E. Patter..	606
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	607
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	608
1,252	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Wilson T. Hogg	609
2,077	.....	225	.....	3,339	.....	350	350	.....	Lizzie E. Stone	610
1,400	300	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	E. C. Warfel	611
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	E. M. Reyland	612
12,000	1,500	60	24	55	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. W. Milligan	613
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	Elmer D. Read	614
2,200	55	200	.....	300	.....	.....	180	.....	.....	615
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	616
11,581	2,500	450	70	5,013	1,200	.....	500	.....	John H. Woods, acting.	617
4,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,050	.....	W. F. Short, superintendent.	618
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	619
7,500	1,700	1,100	200	30,616	.....	3,770	3,855	.....	C. W. Alexander	620
12,325	344	92	35	59,954	.....	.....	3,300	.....	Sarah C. McIntosh	621
12,000	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. Russell	622
15,500	.....	200	.....	78,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	John D. Roth	623
1,000	.....	39	.....	200	1,503	.....	31	.....	Nora Vanderwater, assistant.	624
3,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,230	.....	.....	625
1,400	200	1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,150	.....	Andrew S. Cutler, president.	626
7,400	.....	448	.....	20,142	.....	1,800	1,856	.....	Miss S. E. Gray	627
3,341	.....	162	.....	7,523	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ella V. Lightner	628
2,500	.....	129	.....	1,790	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. W. Leffingwell, rector	629
12,882	.....	496	.....	.....	.....	.....	860	.....	H. M. Stanley	630
5,000	3,000	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. G. Jepson	631
1,506	28	75	.....	150	.....	.....	25	.....	E. C. Chamberlin	632
7,500	500	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	633
4,178	.....	482	.....	23,443	.....	.....	566	.....	Ida Webster	634
3,000	500	20	30	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	A. E. Turner, president	635
2,990	.....	128	.....	3,385	.....	500	650	.....	.....	636
2,037	100	77	.....	3,008	.....	.....	25	.....	Josiah T. Reade, secretary.	637
6,882	.....	512	.....	23,316	.....	.....	848	.....	Mahala Phelps	638
1,350	70	150	25	1,000	.....	.....	101	.....	Dwight F. Morton	639
1,543	.....	477	.....	22,308	.....	.....	1,102	.....	Alice F. Jennings	640
1,700	.....	280	.....	6,480	.....	310	325	.....	.....	641
3,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	642
4,150	.....	350	.....	17,909	.....	669	822	.....	W. R. Foster	643
1,107	323	73	36	.....	.....	.....	289	.....	Francis Butler	644
8,956	320	440	8	19,554	.....	3,359	3,626	.....	H. S. Hanson, secretary.	645
6,000	200	100	25	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	J. N. Swan	646
17,000	4,000	554	85	22,001	30,072	.....	3,630	41,950	.....	647
4,000	150	350	10	3,500	.....	.....	650	.....	Sarah E. Mills	648
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	52	.....	J. C. Carr, trustee	649
3,800	.....	.....	.....	2,367	.....	.....	264	7,000	Robert Wallace	650
21,000	1,500	50	150	.....	.....	.....	225	3,500	J. G. Royer, president	651
8,000	.....	275	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Frank W. Havill	652

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	ILLINOIS—continued.							
653	Naperville	Northwestern College	1871	Col		C.	F.	B.
654	Normal	Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home	1869	State	O.	T.		B.
655	do	Illinois State Normal University	1857	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
656	Oak Park	Scoville Institute	1883	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
657	Olney	Public Library	1886	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
658	Onarga	Grand Prairie Seminary	1863	Col		C.	F.	R.
659	do	Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
660	Oregon	do	1873	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
661	Ottawa	High School	1879	Sch		T.		B.
662	do	Illinois Law School		Law		T.	F.	R.
663	do	I. O. O. F. Library	1870	I. O. O. F.		C.	Fr.	B.
664	do	Reddick's Public Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
665	Pekin	Public Library	1896	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
666	Peoria	Peoria Law Library	1879	Law		C.	S.	B.
667	do	Public Library	1880	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
668	Peru	St. Bede College		Col		C.		B.
669	Polo	Buffalo Public Library	1871	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
670	Pontiac	Illinois State Reformatory	1875	A. & R.	O.	T.	Fr.	B.
671	Princeton	Matson Public Library	1885	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
672	do	Princeton Township High School	1867	Sch		T.	Fr.	B.
673	Quincy	Chaddock College		Col		C.		B.
674	do	Free Public Library and Reading Room.	1887	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
675	do	St. Francis Solanus College	1860	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
676	River Forest	River Forest Institute	1879	Sch		C.		R.
677	Rochelle	Flagg Township Public Library	1891	Gen		T.	F.	B.
678	Rockford	High School	1880	Sch		T.		R.
679	do	Public Library	1872	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
680	do	Rockford College	1849	Col		C.		B.
681	Rock Island	Augustana College		Col		C.		
682	do	Public Library	1872	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
683	Rockton	Talcott Free Library	1888	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
684	Rushville	Library Association	1878	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
685	St. Charles	Library Association	1888	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
686	Sparta	High School	1878	Sch			Fr.	B.
687	Springfield	Bettie Stuart Institute	1886	Sch		C.		B.
688	do	Concordia College		Theo		C.		
689	do	Illinois State Historical Library	1889	Hist		T.	F.	R.
690	do	Illinois State Library	1818	State		T.	F.	R.
691	do	Illinois State Museum of Natural History.	1858	Scien		T.	F.	R.
692	do	Public Library	1886	Gen		T.	F.	B.
693	do	St. Joseph's Ursuline Academy	1857	Gen		C.		R.
694	Sterling	Public Library		Gen		T.	F.	B.
695	Streator	High School		Sch		T.		B.
696	do	Ladies' Library Association	1876	Gen		C.	S.	C.
697	Sycamore	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
698	Teutopolis	St. Joseph's Diocesan College		Col		C.		
699	Upper Alton	Shurtleff College	1827	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
700	do	Alpha Zeta Society	1847	Col. Soc		C.	S.	B.
701	do	Sigma Phi Society	1853	Col. Soc		C.	S.	B.
702	Urbana	Free Library	1872	Gen		T.	F.	B.
703	do	High School		Sch				
704	do	State Laboratory of Natural History.		Scien		T.	F.	R.
705	do	University of Illinois	1867	Col		T.	F.	B.
706	Warsaw	Free Public Library		Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
707	Waukegan	High School	1890	Sch		C.	S.	B.
708	Westfield	Westfield College	1865	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
709	Wheaton	Adams Memorial Library	1891	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
710	do	Wheaton College		Col		C.		
711	Winnetka	Public Library		Gen		T.	F.	B.
712	Woodstock	do		Gen		T.	F.	B.
713	do	Todd Seminary	1848	Sch		C.		B.
714	Yates City	School and Public Library	1878	Gen		C.	S.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,600	1,200	300	50	.....	.....	.....	$238	.....	H. F. Kletzing.....	653
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	300	.....	C. E. Bassett, superintendent.	654
10,000	2,000	1,002	629	25,131	.....	.....	1,700	.....	Ange V. Milner.....	655
9,662	.....	739	.....	48,240	1,902	.....	4,869	$25,000	Martha E. Buhre.....	656
3,383	.....	.....	.....	11,979	.....	$800	800	.....	Mrs. Hattie Kitchell....	657
1,000	200	30	20	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	S. Van Pelt, president..	658
3,700	30	125	.....	11,253	.....	300	308	.....	.....	659
2,000	.....	60	.....	.....	.....	200	200	.....	W. H. Guilford, president.	660
1,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. O. Leslie.....	661
8,000	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	A. H. Taylor.....	662
1,200	.....	20	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. A. Williams, secretary.	663
8,000	.....	725	.....	28,077	.....	.....	3,300	60,000	.....	664
2,418	.....	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Mrs. Kate Skelly.....	665
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. H. Tichenor, secretary.	666
57,604	2,600	3,153	216	131,691	4,392	14,154	14,817	.....	E. S. Willcox.....	667
1,900	2,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Leopold Probst.....	668
3,187	2,000	225	64	5,747	.....	631	631	.....	E. Frances Barber.....	669
1,100	30	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	I. Mallory.....	670
7,000	.....	600	.....	21,000	1,800	.....	1,726	14,964	Eugene C. Bates, secretary.	671
1,814	100	300	20	.....	.....	.....	350	.....	R. A. Metcalf, principal.	672
2,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. W. Baker, president..	673
19,400	.....	2,404	.....	71,058	3,550	4,889	5,122	.....	John G. Moulton.....	674
4,500	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	675
1,200	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Webster Hakes, principal.	676
1,906	.....	.....	.....	46,000	.....	1,300	1,323	.....	Mrs. Henry Loomis	677
1,120	100	25	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. D. Parker, principal .	678
28,000	.....	1,740	403	93,809	9,156	8,000	8,201	.....	W. L. Rowland.....	679
5,850	250	274	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	680
10,000	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	681
12,634	.....	705	.....	36,523	8,000	3,783	3,847	.....	Ellen Gale.....	682
3,075	.....	400	.....	7,500	.....	700	775	.....	E. S. Waite.....	683
2,000	.....	25	.....	1,000	.....	.....	77	.....	Lewis D. Erwin.....	684
1,330	150	.....	.....	2,000	.....	.....	1,370	.....	Genivie Lewis.....	685
1,000	300	15	10	1,500	.....	.....	40	.....	J. M. Nickles, principal.	686
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. A. M. Brooks, principal.	687
4,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	688
4,000	2,000	478	250	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Josephine P. Cleveland.	689
40,000	.....	3,758	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	.....	690
1,200	2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. F. E. Gurley, curator.	691
28,639	.....	2,422	78	72,960	68,280	3,400	3,610	.....	James P. Bryce.....	692
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mother Ursula.....	693
7,526	21	500	.....	21,476	.....	1,300	1,300	.....	.....	694
1,153	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. C. Tisdel, president..	695
5,221	.....	151	.....	7,909	.....	.....	598	.....	Mrs. M. L. Wright.....	696
2,484	.....	.....	.....	13,872	.....	.....	452	.....	Flora J. Dow.....	697
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	698
9,000	3,000	80	300	.....	.....	.....	350	.....	Georgia T. First.....	699
1,000	200	10	.....	50	.....	.....	50	.....	.....do.....	700
1,500	263	16	.....	75	.....	.....	50	.....	.....do.....	701
7,500	.....	500	.....	19,960	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ida B. Hanes.....	702
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	703
2,606	11,776	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	H. C. Forbes.....	704
29,110	5,950	1,520	150	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	P. F. Bicknell.....	705
3,733	1,000	420	.....	8,717	.....	.....	650	5,000	Mrs. L. I. Baldwin.....	706
1,100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. M. Coon.....	707
2,000	1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. E. Bigelow, treasurer	708
2,959	.....	56	.....	7,518	631	.....	1,200	25,000	.....	709
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	710
2,153	.....	200	.....	5,000	.....	594	600	.....	Grace E. Sloate.....	711
1,806	1,306	.....	.....	6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	712
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Noble Hill, principal...	713
1,900	100	35	11	1,786	.....	.....	62	.....	W. F. Boyes, principal..	714

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	INDIANA.							
715	Anderson	Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
716	Attica	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
717	Aurora	Public Library	1882	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
718	Bloomington	City High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
719	.....do	Indiana University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
720	Bluffton	City Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
721	Borden	Borden Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
722	Brazil	Public Library	1880	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
723	Cambridge City	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	R.
724	Columbia City	.....do	1892	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
725	Crawfordsville	Wabash College	1850	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
726	Crown Point	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
727	Danville	Central Normal College	1876	Col	O.	C.	....	R.
728	Decatur	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
729	Dublin	Public Library	1886	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
730	Elkhart	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
731	Elwood	.....do	1891	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
732	Evansville	Evansville Law Library	1892	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
733	.....do	Vanderburg County Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
734	.....do	Willard Library	1884	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
735	Fort Wayne	Concordia College	1839	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
736	.....do	Public Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
737	.....do	Public School Library	1866	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
738	.....do	Westminster Seminary	1883	Sch	R.	C.	....	B.
739	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library (city department).	1888	Y. M. C. A.	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
740	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library (railroad department).	1884	Y. M. C. A.	O.	C.	S.	B.
741	Frankfort	High School	1875	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
742	.....do	Public Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
743	Franklin	Franklin College	1834	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
744	Goshen	Public School Library	1885	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
745	Greencastle	De Pauw University	1837	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
746	.....do	School of Theology	1883	Theo	....	C.	....	R.
747	.....do	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
748	Hammond	Public School Library	1887	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
749	Hanover	Hanover College	1827	Col	O.	C.	....	B.
750	.....do	Philalathean Society	1833	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
751	.....do	Union Literary Society	1830	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
752	Hartsville	Hartsville College	.....	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
753	Huntington	Public School Library	1874	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
754	Indianapolis	Central Indiana Hospital for Insane.	.....	A. and R.	....	T.	....	C.
755	.....do	College of Physicians and Surgeons (Clark Library).	1880	Med	....	C.	....	R.
756	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
757	.....do	Indiana Historical Society	1831	Hist	....	C.	F.	R.
758	.....do	Indiana Institution for the Blind	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
759	.....do	Indianapolis Bar Association	1878	Law	....	C.	S.	B.
760	.....do	Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
761	.....do	Marion County Library	1831	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
762	.....do	Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
763	.....do	State Law Library	1868	Law	....	T.	....	R.
764	.....do	State Library	1825	Gen	....	T.	F.	R.
765	.....do	William Hacker Library (Scottish Rite Masons).	1883	Hist	....	C.	F.	R.
766	Irvington	Butler College	.....	Coll	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
767	Jeffersonville	Indiana State Prison South	1862	A. and R.	....	.....	....	B.
768	.....do	Township Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,000	.....	1,500	.....	31,573	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna B. Myers	715
1,200	300	100	.....	3,600	.....	.....	$100	.....	Wm. A. Millis, superintendent.	716
4,000	100	122	.....	3,250	.....	.....	190	.....	Jno. A. Conwell, treasurer.	717
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	718
20,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	719
1,365	.....	.....	.....	3,402	5,000	$512	512	.....	S. E. Hitchcock	720
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	721
1,700	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	150	150	.....	C. W. Crawford, president.	722
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank O. Beck	723
2,774	914	308	207	1,068	4,347	.....	.....	.....	I. Lillian Clark	724
32,500	.....	985	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,274	$21,392	H. S. Wedding	725
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. J. Allison, superintendent	726
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. A. Joseph, president.	727
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	300	.....	A. D. Moffett, superintendent.	728
1,347	1,040	160	172	2,438	1,000	103	107	.....	Tamar H. Elliott	729
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	730
1,500	100	400	40	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	T. F. Fitzgibbon, superintendent.	731
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	James T. Walker	732
3,500	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	Harry Stinson	733
21,743	400	1,150	100	45,919	3,259	.....	7,095	200,000	O. F. Jacobi, treasurer	734
6,000	1,000	32	10	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	A. Crull	735
6,206	.....	2,485	.....	38,196	.....	5,272	5,525	.....	Mrs. Susan C. Hoffman	736
6,326	.....	150	.....	22,007	18,000	.....	.....	.....	Mary Irwin	737
1,500	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. D. B. Wells, principal.	738
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. F. McCaughey, secretary.	739
1,500	200	50	40	2,500	1,500	.....	.....	.....	J. W. Burns, secretary	740
2,000	500	50	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John A. Wood, principal.	741
1,600	.....	200	11	18,000	6,000	350	385	.....	Miss Hubbard	742
9,935	.....	450	.....	846	.....	.....	472	649	R. I. Thompson	743
1,720	.....	.....	.....	5,486	.....	270	270	.....	W. H. Sims, superintendent.	744
23,200	1,500	375	200	.....	.....	.....	923	1,850	Edwin Post	745
4,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	John Poucher	746
4,597	120	200	.....	15,038	.....	751	1,251	.....	Belle S. Hanna	747
1,200	.....	75	.....	1,808	.....	100	169	.....	W. C. Belman, superintendent.	748
10,000	5,000	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	749
1,354	.....	.....	.....	100	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	750
1,200	.....	60	.....	1,560	43	.....	50	.....	R. Applewhite, jr	751
1,390	600	25	50	250	100	.....	15	.....	Hazen Kimball	752
8,400	1,400	994	335	17,119	.....	1,298	1,298	.....	Maggie Daily	753
1,428	.....	.....	.....	970	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. Killian	754
1,000	5,000	100	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. E. Earl, secretary	755
4,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	700	.....	Geo. W. Hufford	756
1,800	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	2,000	.....	757
1,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	W. H. Glascock, superindent.	758
3,500	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	.....	759
3,208	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Richard O. Johnson, superintendent.	760
5,000	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	.....	84	2,000	L. Blaich	761
62,270	5,000	.....	.....	233,776	53,023	42,000	42,891	.....	Eliza G. Browning	762
25,000	.....	1,600	.....	.....	85,000	.....	8,500	.....	John C. McNutt	763
26,644	127	350	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. L. Davidson	764
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. R. Ruckle, chairman.	765
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	766
3,057	76	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	C. W. Woods	767
1,500	.....	223	.....	.....	25	500	500	.....	Alta Williams	768

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	INDIANA—continued.							
769	Kendallville	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
770	Kokomo	Public Library	1885	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
771	Lafayette	.....do	1882	Gen	....	T	F.	B.
772	.....do	Purdue University	1874	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
773	Laporte	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
774	.....do	Library and Natural History Association.	1863	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
775	Madison	Public Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
776	Marion	Marion Normal College	1890	Col	O.	C.	F.	R.
777	.....do	Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
778	Merom	Union Christian College	1868	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
779	Michigan City	Northern Indiana Prison	.....	A. and R.	O.	.....	....	C.
780	Mishawaka	Public School Library	1883	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
781	Mitchell	Southern Indiana Normal College.	1881	Col	....	C.	....	R.
782	Moores Hill	Moores Hill College	1856	Col	....	C.	....	B.
783	Mount Vernon	Alexander Library	1894	Gen	....	.....	F.	B.
784	Muncie	Public Library	1875	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
785	New Albany	De Pauw College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	R.
786	.....do	Public Library	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
787	New Harmony	Workingmen's Institute	1838	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
788	Notre Dame	Catholic Reference Library of America.	1876	Hist	....	.....	F.	R.
789	.....do	University of Notre Dame (Lemonnier Library).	.....	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
790	.....do	St. Mary's Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
791	Oldenburg	Library of the Sisters of St. Francis.	1870	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
792	Plymouth	City Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
793	Rensselaer	Public School Library	1880	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
794	Richmond	Earlham College	1854	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
795	.....do	Ionian Society	1871	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
796	.....do	Phœnix Society	1878	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	R.
797	.....do	Morrison-Reeves Library	1864	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
798	.....do	Wayne County Law Library	.....	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
799	Ridgeville	Ridgeville College	1867	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
800	Rockport	Ohio Township Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
801	St. Marys	St. Mary's Academic Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
802	St. Meinrad	St. Meinrad's College and Abbey Library.	1854	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
803	South Bend	High School	1880	Sch	....	.....	Fr.	B.
804	.....do	Public Library	1888	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
805	.....do	St. Joseph County Teacher's Library.	1884	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
806	Spiceland	Spiceland Academy	1870	Gen	....	C.	S.	R.
807	Terre Haute	Coates College	1891	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
808	.....do	Law Library Association	1895	Law	....	C.	S.	B.
809	.....do	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
810	.....do	Rose Polytechnic Institute	1874	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
811	.....do	State Normal School	1889	Col	O.	T.	S.	B.
812	Union City	Stone Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
813	Upland	Taylor University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
814	Valparaiso	Northern Indiana Normal School.	1873	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
815	Vincennes	Public Library	1889	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
816	.....do	St. Francis Xavier's Cathedral Library.	1834	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
817	.....do	Vincennes University	1806	Col	....	C.	....	B.
818	Wabash	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
819	.....do	Woman's Library	1889	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
820	Winchester	Public School Library	1886	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
821	.....do	Randolph County Law Library	1884	Law	....	C.	S.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,100	.....	70	.....	1,000	2,000	$30	$90	.....	D. A. Lambright	769
5,028	490	1,230	80	22,645	.....	1,500	1,500	.....	J. C. Leach	770
14,280	800	400	200	59,277	.....	3,000	3,200	.....	Mrs. Virginia Stein	771
6,865	2,700	.....	.....	2,300	2,700	.....	1,000	.....	Elizabeth D. Swan	772
3,000	.....	5	.....	.....	.....	.....	10	.....	H. J. Leggett	773
6,000	4,000	228	300	4,751	2,000	.....	397	$4,200	Jennie B. Jessup	774
7,000	.....	100	.....	13,676	.....	.....	400	.....	Nellie G. Harper	775
1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. Jones	776
3,500	.....	.....	.....	21,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Welford D. Weaver, superintendent schools	777
3,100	500	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. C. Phillips	778
3,000	900	.....	.....	.....	20,000	.....	.....	.....	A. H. Currie, chaplain	779
1,240	500	30	52	400	650	40	90	.....	B. J. Bogue	780
1,500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jno. C. Willis, president	781
3,000	200	100	25	100	.....	.....	50	.....	B. W. Aldrich	782
1,000	.....	250	.....	300	.....	.....	335	500	Wilson Blackburn	783
9,784	.....	369	.....	18,181	1,594	.....	353	.....	R. A. Wilson	784
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Adelaide L. Packard, principal	785
8,665	.....	.....	.....	42,256	480	2,261	2,261	.....	Jas. H. Ashabranner	786
12,000	2,400	2,000	725	15,000	.....	.....	2,400	1,500	Arthur Dransfield, secretary	787
14,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. F. Edwards, director	788
55,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	850	.....	.....do	789
5,781	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	790
2,000	.....	100	.....	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	Sister M. Patricia	791
4,912	750	1,700	.....	4,115	.....	245	245	.....	R. A. Chase	792
1,300	100	60	50	1,000	.....	.....	50	.....	W. H. Sanders	793
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	794
4,000	.....	30	.....	407	.....	.....	.....	2,000	Harlon Lindley	795
1,000	.....	.....	.....	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	Maude Taylor	796
20,314	.....	1,200	.....	62,389	16,000	6,000	1,300	5,000	Mrs. Sarah A. Wrigley	797
3,200	3,200	32	300	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	C. C. Binkley, treasurer	798
2,000	500	100	50	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Geo. Hindley, president	799
1,050	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John Burkhart, trustee	800
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	801
13,000	.....	200	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Bede Maler	802
1,642	.....	35	.....	686	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thekla Sack	803
6,000	.....	.....	.....	24,069	.....	4,000	4,000	.....	J. Du Shane, secretary	804
1,020	200	108	65	450	.....	.....	131	.....	John H. Bair, county superintendent	805
1,400	.....	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	Bertha Charles	806
1,075	70	9	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,229	.....	Jane B. Creighton, chairman	807
1,075	.....	.....	.....	1,200	1,200	.....	300	.....	Thos. N. Allen	808
12,000	.....	400	.....	35,361	4,684	3,826	3,826	.....	Leatha M. Paddock	809
7,867	.....	202	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. Arnold Tschudy	810
10,775	500	.....	75	35,057	105,171	.....	8,772	.....	Arthur Cunningham	811
1,093	370	50	36	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Susan G. Patterson, superintendent	812
1,300	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	813
7,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	O. P. Kinsey, vice-president	814
4,227	.....	451	.....	22,909	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Mary W. Scott	815
7,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	816
4,000	500	200	50	500	.....	.....	125	.....	E. P. Cubberly, president	817
1,200	200	100	20	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	M. W. Harrison, superintendent	818
1,500	.....	190	.....	3,469	.....	.....	121	.....	Mrs. H. B. Shively	819
1,394	100	35	25	857	.....	.....	15	.....	Victor Hedgepeth	820
1,300	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	Jesse Camerley	821

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	INDIAN TERRITORY.							
822	Muskogee	Henry Kendall College	.....	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
823	Tahlequah	National Library	.....	Gen	....	.....	F.	R.
	IOWA.							
824	Afton	Afton Normal and Business College.	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
825	Ames	Iowa Agricultural College	1874	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
826	Anamosa	Prison Library	1872	Gen	....	C.	....	C.
827	Atlantic	High School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
828	.....do	Powers Memorial Library	1889	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
829	Boone	Public Library	1885	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
830	.....do	Public School Library	1883	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
831	Burlington	Public Library	1868	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
832	Cedar Falls	.....do	1879	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
833	.....do	State Normal School	1876	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
834	Cedar Rapids	Coe College	1881	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
835	.....do	Iowa Masonic Library	1844	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
836	.....do	Washington High School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
837	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	.....	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
838	Charles City	Charles City College	.....	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
839	Cherokee	Ladies' Library Association	1886	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
840	Clinton	Public School Library	1887	Sch	....	T.	S.	B.
841	.....do	Wartburg College	1868	Col	....	C.	....	R.
842	College Springs	Amity College	1855	Col	....	C.	....	R.
843	Council Bluffs	Iowa School for the Deaf	1878	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
844	.....do	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
845	Davenport	Davenport Academy of Natural Sciences.	1867	Scien	O.	C.	F.	R.
846	.....do	Davenport Turngemeinde	1856	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
847	.....do	Grant Law Library	.....	Law	....	C.	S.	R
848	.....do	Immaculate Conception Academy.	1859	Gen	....	C.	S.	R.
849	.....do	Library Association	1852	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
850	.....do	St. Ambrose College	1885	Col	O.	C.	S.	R.
851	.....do	Soldiers' Orphans' Home	1866	Sch	O.	T.	Fr.	C.
852	Decorah	Norwegian Luther College	1861	Coll	....	C.	....	B.
853	Denison	Public School Library	1874	Sch	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
854	Des Moines	Des Moines College	.....	Coll	....	C.	S.	B.
855	.....do	Drake University	1881	Coll	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
856	.....do	Highland Park College	1889	Coll	....	C.	Fr.	B.
857	.....do	Iowa State Library	1839	State	....	T.	F.	R.
858	.....do	Public Library	1866	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
859	.....do	State Historical Library	1892	Hist	....	T.	F.	R.
860	.....do	State Horticultural Library	1880	Hort	....	T.	F.	B.
861	Dubuque	German Theological Seminary of the Northwest.	.....	Theo	....	C.	F.	R.
862	.....do	St. Joseph's College	.....	Coll	....	C.	.....	.....
863	.....do	Wartburg Seminary	.....	Theo	....	C.	.....	.....
864	.....do	Young Men's Library Association.	1856	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B. S.
865	East Des Moines	High School	1871	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
866	Eldora	Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
867	Emmetsburg	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
868	Epworth	Epworth Seminary	1883	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
869	Estherville	Public Library and Reading Room	.....	Gen	R.	.....	F.	B.
870	Fairfield	Jefferson County Library Association.	1853	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
871	.... do	Parsons College	1875	Coll	....	C.	F.	B.
872	Fayette	Upper Iowa University	1857	Coll	....	C.	....	B.
873	Fort Dodge	Free public Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
874	Fort Madison	Cattermole Memorial Library	1894	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,000	100	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	$60	.....	W. A. Caldwell, president.	822
1,205	608	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John L. Adair, secretary.	823
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	824
12,000	300	2,000	75	.....	.....	.....	1,850	.....	Flora Wilson	825
3,300	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	614	.....	J. M. Crocker, chaplain.	826
1,133	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	827
1,943	1,500	130	111	500	.....	.....	25	.....	W. B. Martin	828
3,105	.....	308	.....	10,160	.....	$1,000	1,198	.....	Bertha Skliba	829
2,000	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	.....	300	.....	Geo. J. Miller	830
14,928	2,000	646	150	44,436	.....	8,000	14,100	.....	.....	831
4,100	300	225	15	5,860	.....	700	720	.....	Geo. Flachenecker	832
7,202	1,030	1,051	750	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	H. H. Seerley, president.	833
2,470	1,000	100	100	.....	.....	.....	35	.....	Marian H. Kilbourne	834
15,000	3,000	450	600	350	1,200	.....	2,218	.....	N. R. Parvin, D. G. S.	835
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	836
2,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank Mathes, assistant secretary.	837
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. L. Wellemeyer, assistant.	838
1,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Mrs. M. Wakefield, secretary.	839
4,876	753	423	.....	10,180	.....	1,000	1,054	.....	.....	840
1,720	.....	76	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	H. Kuhlmann	841
2,500	.....	50	.....	600	.....	.....	50	.....	J. M. Littlejohn, president.	842
2,500	.....	210	.....	800	1,200	.....	200	.....	Henry W. Rothert, superintendent.	843
19,886	500	1,200	.....	62,970	.....	6,444	6,444	.....	Elizabeth Peterson	844
31,763	.....	66	1,245	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. H. Barris, curator	845
26,168	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Adolph Petersen, secretary.	846
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Flora B. Haddix, custodian.	847
2,596	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sister Mary Gonzaga	848
5,600	.....	.....	.....	5,542	.....	.....	3,710	.....	S. A. Billen	849
4,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. F. Brennan	850
1,717	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Etta Peaslee	851
7,755	.....	365	.....	4,000	.....	.....	380	.....	Chr. A. Naeseth	852
1,400	500	36	75	285	400	150	150	.....	Mrs. Georgia McClellan	853
3,300	300	165	.....	1,100	.....	.....	250	.....	Mrs. F. T. Stephenson, acting.	854
5,169	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jennie Carpenter	855
5,000	500	300	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Minnie Dennis	856
50,608	.....	2,563	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,000	.....	Mrs. Laura C. Creighton	857
19,158	.....	5,617	.....	98,292	9,228	15,000	15,200	.....	Ella M. McLoney	858
4,694	2,236	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,000	.....	Charles Aldrich	859
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,600	.....	Geo. H. Van Houten	860
4,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. C. Kroesche	861
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	862
3,600	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	863
16,893	.....	754	.....	30,586	.....	.....	3,115	$6,685	C. Wilder	864
1,600	200	150	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. H. White	865
2,500	.....	250	50	4,021	.....	438	521	.....	Clara Estabrook	866
1,050	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dight G. McCarty	867
1,325	.....	56	.....	1,083	.....	.....	3	.....	Helen I. Hanna	868
1,000	.....	20	.....	2,252	.....	.....	383	.....	Inez L. Westcott	869
16,000	15,000	1,411	600	9,592	30,091	.....	1,265	1,750	T. L. Hoffman, assistant	870
2,500	1,000	100	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. A. Wirtz	871
5,000	1,000	300	100	550	.....	.....	200	.....	L. A. Stout	872
7,380	1,200	695	100	17,160	.....	1,115	1,128	.....	J. M. Carpenter	873
2,500	.....	1,000	.....	30,000	.....	1,700	2,200	.....	F. S. Kretsinger, president.	874

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	IOWA—continued.							
875	Fort Madison	State Penitentiary Library	1866	A. and R.	O.	C.	....	C.
876	Glenwood	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	B.
877	Grinnell	Iowa College	1848	Coll	O.	C.	....	B.
878	Hampton	Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
879	Hopkinton	Lenox College	1861	Coll	O.	C.	S.	B.
880	Independence	Free Public Library	1873	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
881	Indianola	Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
882	.....do	Simpson College	1867	Coll	....	C.	Fr.	B.
883	Iowa City	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
884	.....do	State Historical Society	1857	Hist	R.	T.	F.	R.
885	.....do	State University of Iowa	1855	Coll	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
886	.....do	Law Library	1868	Law	....	C.	F.	R.
887	Iowa Falls	Ellsworth College	1890	Coll	O.	C.	....	R.
888	Keokuk	I. O. O. F. Library	1868	I. O. O. F.	O.	C.	....	B.
889	.....do	Keokuk Bar Association Library	1883	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
890	.....do	Public Library	1863	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
891	Keosauqua	I. O. O. F. Library	1848	I. O. O. F.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
892	Knoxville	High School	1888	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
893	Lemars	Public Library	1885	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
894	Lyons	German Association Library	1860	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
895	.....do	Young Men's Association Library.	1863	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
896	Manchester	Free Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
897	Maquoketa	Boardman Library Institute	1885	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
898	Marengo	Public School Library	1894	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
899	Marshalltown	Marshall County Library	1892	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
900	.....do	Public School Library	1891	Sch	....	T.	F.	C.
901	Mason City	Public Library	1888	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
902	Mount Pleasant	Iowa Hospital for the Insane	1860	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
903	.....do	Iowa Wesleyan University	1870	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
904	.....do	Ladies' Library	1875	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
905	Mount Vernon	Cornell College	1857	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
906	Nevada	American Archæological and Asiatic Association.	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
907	.....do	Public Library	1876	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
908	Newton	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
909	Orange City	Northwestern Classical Academy	1890	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
910	Osage	Cedar Valley Seminary	1877	Sch	....	C.	F.	R.
911	.....do	Sage Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
912	Oskaloosa	City School Library	1872	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
913	.....do	Oskaloosa College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
914	.....do	Penn College	1872	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
915	.....do	Public Library	1895	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
916	Ottumwa	High School	1875	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
917	Pella	Central University of Iowa	1853	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
918	Redoak	High School (Society Library)	1886	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
919	Sigourney	Keokuk County Educational Library.	.....	Ped	....	C.	S.	B.
920	Sioux City	Morningside College	.....	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
921	.....do	Public Library	1877	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
922	Soldiers' Home	Soldiers' Home Library	1887	Gen	....	T.	Fr.	B.
923	Spencer	Public Library	1882	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
924	Storm Lake	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
925	Tabor	Tabor College	.....	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
926	Toledo	Western College	1857	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
927	Traer	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
928	Trenton	Henry County Institute of Science	1869	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
929	Vinton	Iowa College for the Blind	.....	A. and R.	....	.....	.....	.....
930	.....do	Tilford Collegiate Academy	1872	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
931	Washington	Free Public Library	1876	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
932	Waterloo	Library Association	1867	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
933	Waverly	Public Library	1881	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
8,000	.....	.....	100	12,000	.....	.....	$3,000	.....	W. C. Gunn, chaplain	875
1,000	100	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. L. Laird	876
21,000	1,400	1,100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. M. Chamberlain	877
1,600	200	250	100	.....	4,000	$100	410	.....	L. B. Raymond, president.	878
2,500	1,800	100	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. G. Wilson	879
4,000	250	284	100	10,800	.....	900	1,452	.....	D. S. Deering, secretary	880
2,400	.....	.....	.....	3,320	.....	530	651	.....	Hannah M. Babb	881
3,000	3,000	50	584	850	.....	.....	18	.....	P. W. Jenkins	882
1,200	100	20	12	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	W. F. Cramer, superintendent.	883
10,000	5,000	40	50	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	H. W. Lathrop	884
30,000	.....	1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,950	.....	J. W. Rich	885
8,500	.....	220	.....	.....	.....	.....	750	.....	J. G. Marner	886
1,200	300	500	200	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	C. W. Lyon	887
2,000	.....	.....	.....	4,162	.....	.....	.....	.....	John Eisenhuth	888
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	889
12,203	.....	727	158	52,333	.....	.....	2,711	.....	Sarah Welch	890
1,600	.....	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	15	.....	W. B. Maltbie	891
1,450	100	150	.....	1,500	.....	.....	200	.....	S. J. Finley	892
3,000	.....	200	.....	15,502	.....	1,000	1,040	.....	W. A. Simkins	893
1,100	.....	60	.....	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. C. Nehlsen	894
5,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	355	.....	P. C. Walraven, president.	895
3,025	.....	140	.....	9,987	.....	997	1,017	.....	Jennie Jones	896
2,976	.....	111	52	4,957	.....	.....	505	$5,000	Ida M. Simpson	897
1,000	200	150	50	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. H. Carson	898
3,066	200	239	108	5,523	1,839	.....	.....	.....	.....	899
4,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	256	.....	.....	900
1,460	400	70	100	3,546	.....	750	915	.....	Mary A. Hurlburt	901
4,000	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. A. Gilman, superintendent.	902
5,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edwin Johnson, jr	903
5,382	.....	230	69	.....	.....	.....	197	900	Emma L. Schwenker, chairman.	904
13,833	.....	719	.....	12,600	.....	.....	505	3,000	May L. Fairbanks	905
12,346	2,019	84	108	.....	.....	.....	2,180	.....	G. W. Bailey	906
3,271	500	269	100	8,507	500	400	636	.....	Mrs. Lillian Monk	907
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	908
3,000	500	200	200	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Ph. Soulen	909
2,000	1,000	100	50	1,000	.....	.....	75	250	Alonzo Abernethy, principal	910
3,000	.....	121	.....	8,235	.....	200	845	.....	Alonzo Abernethy, chairman.	911
1,794	340	200	60	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	O. C. Scott, superintendent.	912
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	913
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Rosa E. Lewis	914
1,029	300	.....	.....	1,426	300	.....	572	.....	E. W. Hearne	915
1,090	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	A. W. Stuart, superintendent.	916
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	Martha Firth	917
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	Ira S. Condit, principal	918
1,000	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. A. Potts	919
1,080	21	86	21	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	O. A. Schotts	920
9,600	140	632	45	39,133	.....	3,844	4,026	.....	Mrs. R. Oberholtzer	921
3,000	50	.....	8	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. L. Lunt	922
1,500	400	300	100	.....	.....	300	370	.....	Mrs. M. A. Steele	923
1,101	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	37	120	.....	Edith McGee	924
7,300	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. E. Barry	925
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. D. Zilm	926
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	927
1 520	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	.....	928
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	929
1,000	300	25	20	.....	500	.....	12	.....	T. F. Tobin	930
4,000	.....	250	.....	13,000	.....	500	500	.....	Miss N. J. Springer	931
2,200	1,500	50	250	3,000	.....	.....	85	.....	Mrs. J. M. Brainard	932
1,600	.....	187	.....	1,444	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna Mills	933

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	IOWA—continued.							
934	Waverly	Public School Library	1880	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
935	Wilton Junction	German English College	1894	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
936	Winterset	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
	KANSAS.							
937	Atchison	Firth I. O. O. F. Library	1875	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
938	.....do	Midland College	1887	Col	....	C.	....	B.
939	.....do	Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
940	.....do	St. Benedict's College	1858	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
941	Baldwin	Baker University	1858	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
942	Blue Rapids	Ladies' Library	1873	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
943	Burlingame	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
944	Burlington	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
945	Cawker City	Public Library	1883	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
946	Clay Center	High School	1885	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
947	Columbus	Public School Library	1880	Sch	....	.....	F.	B.
948	Emporia	College of Emporia (Anderson Library).	1885	Col	....	C.	....	B.
949	.....do	Free Library	1884	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
950	.....do	State Normal School	1889	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
951	Enterprise	Central College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
952	Eureka	Southern Kansas Academy	1887	Sch	....	C.	F.	R.
953	Fort Leavenworth	Post Library	1883	Gar	....	T.	F.	B.
954	.....do	U. S. Infantry and Cavalry School.	1881	Govt	....	T.	Fr.	B.
955	Fort Scott	Kansas Normal College	1878	Col	....	C.	....	R.
956	Great Bend	Central Normal College	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
957	Highland	Highland University	1840	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
958	Holton	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
959	Independence	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
960	Irving	.....do	1877	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
961	Junction City	Ladies' Reading Club	1875	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
962	.....do	Trott's Select Library	1870	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
963	Lansing	Kansas State Penitentiary	1868	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
964	Lawrence	City Library	1868	Gen	R.	T.	S.	B.
965	.....do	University of Kansas (Spooner Library).	1865	Col	O.	T.	F.	B.
966	Leavenworth	High School	1892	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
967	.....do	Public Library Association	1896	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
968	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	.....	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
969	Lindsborg	Bethany College	1886	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
970	McPherson	McPherson College and Industrial Institute.	1890	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
971	Manhattan	State Agricultural College	1860	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
972	Marysville	Modern Normal College	1892	Col	....	C.	....	R.
973	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
974	Newton	Free Library	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
975	Olathe	Kansas Institution for Deaf and Dumb.	1885	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
976	.....do	Library Association	1874	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
977	Osage City	School Library	1889	Sch	....	T.	F.	C.
978	Oswego	Oswego College	1888	Col	....	C.	....	B.
979	Ottawa	Ottawa Library	1872	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
980	.....do	Ottawa University	1870	Col	....	C.	....	B.
981	Paola	Free City Library	1880	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
982	Peabody	Public Library	1875	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
983	St. Marys	St. Marys College	1869	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
984	.....do	Senior Students' Library	1869	Col	....	C.	S	B.
985	St. Paul	St. Francis Monastery	.....	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
986	Salina	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr	B.
987	.....do	Wesleyan University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	B.
988	Topeka	College of the Sisters of Bethany	.....	Col	....	C.	....	B.
989	.....do	Free Public Library	1871	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,600	100	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	$50	.....	S. H. Sheakly, superintendent.	934
1,500	200	200	.....	300	100	.....	.....	.....	C. J. Hoebeke	935
2,000	1,000	500	200	3,308	.....	$500	690	.....	Mary Cassidy	936
3,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. Bindewald	937
5,000	1,000	1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	225	.....	G. H. Meixell	938
5,215	.....	215	.....	9,316	.....	.....	.....	$10,000	Mrs. Leontine Scofield	939
11,054	1,389	932	95	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Eugene Phelan	940
5,435	.....	309	.....	4,500	.....	.....	600	1,000	E. M. Wood	941
2,549	.....	45	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Cora M. Butler	942
1,500	.....	150	.....	4,100	2,000	75	175	.....	.....	943
1,902	.....	106	.....	.....	.....	400	450	.....	.....	944
1,500	700	84	120	3,000	25	.....	112	.....	.....	945
1,089	120	125	.....	1,540	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. F. Merten	946
1,000	300	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jno. Curran	947
5,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. R. McCabe	948
4,000	.....	175	.....	18,197	.....	1,100	1,183	.....	Mrs. A. J. Wicks	949
11,274	300	1,592	50	5,000	.....	.....	4,052	.....	A. R. Taylor	950
2,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	951
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. C. Wooster, principal	952
1,775	.....	16	.....	5,248	.....	.....	75	.....	Benj. Alvord	953
7,060	420	.....	52	2,600	4,000	.....	.....	.....	C. W. Penrose, secretary.	954
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	D. E. Sanders, president.	955
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	956
4,000	1,000	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. A. Read	957
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	958
1,600	600	100	75	717	.....	.....	229	.....	Mrs. H. D. Grant	959
1,050	36	50	.....	400	.....	.....	12	.....	.....	960
1,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	115	.....	Annie B. White	961
1,300	.....	40	.....	340	.....	.....	41	.....	C. H. Trott	962
5,128	.....	78	.....	12,000	.....	.....	270	.....	John Moorhead, chaplain.	963
5,000	500	450	.....	20,000	5,000	.....	1,050	.....	.....	964
24,280	.....	2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,000	.....	Carrie M. Watson	965
1,200	.....	250	.....	.....	7,385	.....	240	.....	W. A. Evans, principal	966
1,000	.....	1,000	.....	2,255	46	.....	460	.....	Syrena McKee, secretary.	967
1,500	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	100	.....	S. W. Moore, secretary	968
3,490	1,500	100	80	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. A. Swallander	969
1,500	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	.....	970
16,200	5,300	1,123	.....	11,000	.....	.....	2,085	.....	Julia R. Pearce	971
2,000	200	100	100	.....	.....	.....	60	.....	J. G. Ellenbecker	972
2,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	973
3,897	900	302	114	12,932	917	1,083	1,133	.....	L. McAlpine	974
2,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	M. W. Games	975
2,000	500	.....	.....	200	300	.....	35	.....	S. B. S. Wilson, president.	976
1,100	.....	.....	.....	450	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	977
2,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lillian Bossler, principal.	978
4,000	1,000	.....	210	7,011	.....	.....	700	.....	Julia M. Walsh	979
2,000	1,000	59	100	.....	.....	.....	40	.....	H. C. Merrill	980
4,400	500	150	25	10,000	.....	500	505	.....	E. Heiskell	981
5,000	.....	.....	.....	39,729	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emma F. Christ	982
7,300	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. F. Kelly	983
2,500	400	50	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thos. F. Wallace	984
2,000	1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. Noonan	985
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. Ludlum, superintendent.	986
4,000	500	50	200	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	A. Gridley	987
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Annie J. Hooley, principal.	988
13,500	.....	750	135	80,742	5,688	4,700	5,180	8,000	Mrs. E. S. Lewis	989

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	KANSAS—continued.							
990	Topeka	Kansas Academy of Science	1880	Scien	....	C.	F.	B.
991	.....do	Kansas State Library	1857	Gen	....	T.	F.	R.
992	.....do	Masonic Library	1856	Masonic	R.	C.	F.	R.
993	.....do	State Board of Agriculture	1872	Agrl	....	T.	F.	R.
994	.....do	State Historical Society	1875	Gen	....	T.	F.	R.
995	.....do	Washburn College	1865	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
996	Troy	S. L. K. Association	1880	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
997	Wichita	Public School Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
998	Winfield	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
999	.....do	Southwest Kansas College	1886	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
	KENTUCKY.							
1000	Berea	Berea College	1865	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
1001	Bowling Green	Ogden College	1883	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1002	.....do	Potter College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1003	.....do	Southern Normal College	1875	Sch	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
1004	Cecilian	Cecilian College	1860	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
1005	Cynthiana	High School	1872	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1006	Danville	Centre College of Kentucky	1819	Col	O	C.	F.	B.
1007	.....do	Danville Theological Seminary	1855	Theo	O.	C.	....	R.
1008	.....do	Kentucky School for the Deaf	1850	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1009	Frankfort	Kentucky Geological Survey	.....	Scien	....	.....	F.	R.
1010	.....do	Kentucky Penitentiary Library	.....	A. & R	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1011	.....do	Kentucky State Library	.....	State	....	T.	F.	R.
1012	Georgetown	Georgetown College	1837	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
1013	.....do	Ciceronian Society	1839	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1014	.....do	Tau Theta Kappa Society	1839	Col. Soc	....	C.	F.	B.
1015	.....do	Scott County Library and Lecture Association.	.....	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1016	Hopkinsville	Public School Library	1882	Sch	....	T.	S.	B.
1017	.....do	South Kentucky College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
1018	Jackson	Jackson Collegiate Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1019	Lexington	Hamilton Female College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
1020	.....do	Kentucky State College	1885	Col	....	C.	....	R.
1021	.....do	Kentucky University	1783	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
1022	.....do	Philathean Society	1868	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1023	.....do	Lexington Library	1795	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1024	Louisville	Girls' High School	1873	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
1025	.....do	Grand Lodge of Kentucky, F. & A. M.	.....	Masonic	R.	C.	F.	B.
1026	.....do	Hampton College	1878	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1027	.....do	Kentucky Institution for Education of Blind.	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
1028	.....do	Medical Department, University of Louisville.	1837	Med	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
1029	.....do	Polytechnic Society of Kentucky	1878	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
1030	.....do	Southern Baptist Theological Seminary.	1859	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1031	.....do	Woman's School of Pharmacy	1884	Col	R.	C.	F.	R.
1032	Maysville	Maysville and Mason County Library, Historical and Scientific Association.	1878	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1033	.....do	Odd Fellows' Library	1850	I. O. O. F	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1034	Midway	Kentucky Female Orphan School.	1848	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1035	Millersburg	Millersburg Female College	1877	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1036	Nazareth	Nazareth Literary and Benevolent Institution.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1037	Newport	Bellevue School	....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1038	Princeton	Princeton Collegiate Institute	1880	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
1039	Richmond	Central University and Landis libraries.	1874	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1040	Russellville	Bethel College	1892	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,250	4,500	175	1,100	56	550	.....	$300	.....	B. B. Smyth	990
38,000	500	1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	4,600	$5,000	J. L. King	991
1,487	4,000	500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	992
1,000	500	120	200	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	F. D. Coburn, secretary	993
33,551	50,079	2,268	1,462	.....	2,500	.....	7,838	.....	F. G. Adams, secretary	994
7,000	3,000	677	300	1,198	.....	.....	200	1,000	L. D. Whittemore	995
1,500	800	100	300	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	Chloe L. Brown	996
3,894	75	1,260	8	.....	.....	$1,500	2,226	.....	Dula Pease	997
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	998
2,800	200	100	25	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	C. A. Place, president	999
8,000	.....	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	A. E. Todd	1000
2,775	880	175	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. H. Schroader	1001
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. F. Cabell, president	1002
1,000	200	100	50	.....	.....	.....	20	.....	T. C. Cherry	1003
2,000	.....	832	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. N. Rong	1004
1,787	325	87	20	212	30	.....	100	.....	C. A. Leonard, principal	1005
8,187	.....	820	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	J. C. Fales	1006
5,000	500	430	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. K. Crawford	1007
1,650	.....	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	120	2,000	.....	1008
1,050	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. J. Norwood, curator	1009
2,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	112	.....	.....	1010
95,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Mrs. M. B. R. Day	1011
10,000	500	600	50	.....	.....	.....	420	.....	J. K. Nunnelley, assistant.	1012
1,800	300	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. F. Ashcraft	1013
1,300	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	120	.....	W. T. Ford	1014
1,629	.....	12	4	.....	.....	.....	85	.....	Bessie Sinclair	1015
1,634	.....	412	.....	.....	.....	.....	208	.....	L. McCartney, superintendent.	1016
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1017
1,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1018
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1019
2,662	176	153	98	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jas. G. White, business agent.	1020
14,672	1,114	166	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. Louis Loos, president.	1021
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	V. Williams	1022
15,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,000	Katherin B. Akers	1023
1,600	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	200	400	.....	H. Bartholomew	1024
4,000	1,000	50	250	.....	.....	.....	103	.....	H. B. Grant	1025
6,000	1,000	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. D. H. Cowling	1026
1,000	1,000	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. B. Huntoon, superintendent.	1027
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. M. Bodine, dean	1028
50,000	.....	706	.....	23,410	54,691	.....	18,628	.....	Miss A. V. Pollard	1029
21,000	10,000	1,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	1,000	20,000	John R. Sampey	1030
1,260	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. P. Burnum	1031
2,700	300	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,000	W. D. Hixson	1032
2,200	109	90	25	560	90	.....	.....	.....	John W. Thompson	1033
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	Miss Corbin, principal	1034
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Cadesman Pope, president.	1035
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1036
1,105	235	89	.....	962	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. M. N. Downes, superintendent.	1037
1,500	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	John M. Richmond, president.	1038
6,000	1,000	200	150	.....	300	.....	800	.....	L. H. Blanton, chancellor.	1039
10,000	1,000	150	50	2,000	200	.....	360	1,000	H. L. Trimble	1040

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	KENTUCKY—cont'd.							
1041	Russellville	Logan Female College	1846	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1042	St. Mary	St. Mary's College	1821	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
1043	Shelbyville	Science Hill School	1825	Sch	O.	C.	....	R.
1044	Springfield	Academy of St. Catherine of Sienna.	1850	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
1045	Waddy	Central Normal College	1886	Col	O.	C.	F.	R.
1046	Winchester	Kentucky Wesleyan College	1866	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
	LOUISIANA.							
1047	Baldwin	Gilbert Academy and Industrial School.	.....	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1048	Baton Rouge	Louisiana State University	1877	Col	....	C.	F.	C.
1049	Clinton	Silliman Female Collegiate Institute.	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
1050	Convent	Jefferson College	1860	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1051	Grand Coteau	St. Charles College	1836	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
1052	Jackson	Centenary College	1825	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
1053	Keatchie	Keatchie College	1856	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
1054	Mansfield	Mansfield Female College	1856	Col	O.	C.	F.	R.
1055	Natchitoches	State Normal School	1885	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1056	New Orleans	Charity Hospital Medical Library	1881	Med	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1057	.....do	College of the Immaculate Conception.	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
1058	.....do	Fisk Free and Public Library	.....	Gen	....	....	F.	B.
1059	.....do	Grand Lodge, F. & A. M.	1858	Masonic	....	C.	F.	R.
1060	.....do	Howard Memorial Library	1889	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1061	.....do	Jewish Widows and Orphans' Home.	1887	A. & R.	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1062	.....do	Leland University	1870	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
1063	.....do	McDonogh High School No. 1	1890	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
1064	.....do	New Orleans Law Association	1856	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
1065	.....do	New Orleans University	1873	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1066	.....do	St. Alphonsus' Circulating Library.	1860	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
1067	.....do	St. Joseph's Convent	1868	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
1068	.....do	Soulé College	1856	Col	....	C.	....	R.
1069	.....do	Southern Academic Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1070	.....do	State Library of Louisiana	1838	State	....	T.	F.	R.
1071	.....do	Straight University	.....	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1072	.....do	Tulane University	1884	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
1073	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1852	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
	MAINE.							
1074	Alfred	Alfred Reading Club	1875	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1075	.....do	York County Bar Library	1815	Law	....	....	....	R.
1076	Auburn	Androscoggin County Law Library.	1855	Law	....	....	F.	R.
1077	.....do	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1078	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1867	Y. M. C. A.	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1079	Augusta	Kennebec Historical Society	1891	Hist	....	C.	F.	R.
1080	.....do	Kennebec Law Library	.....	Law	....	C.	....	R.
1081	.....do	Lithgow Library and Reading Room.	1881	Gen	O.	B.	F.	B.
1082	.....do	Maine Board of Agriculture	.....	Agri	....	T.	F.	R.
1083	.....do	Maine Insane Hospital (Black Library).	1850	A & R	....	C.	....	C.
1084	.....do	Maine State Library	1820	State	....	T.	F.	B.
1085	Bangor	Bangor Theological Seminary	1814	Theo	O.	C.	F.	B.
1086	.....do	Penobscot Bar Library Association.	1849	Law	....	C.	....	R.
1087	.....do	Public Library	1883	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1088	Bar Harbor	Bar Harbor Library	1876	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,500	150	80	48	.....	.....	.....	$82	.....	A. G. Murphey, president.	1041
4,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John Fehrenbach, vice-president.	1042
2,000	.....	150	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. T. Poynter	1043
1,500	450	25	20	.....	.....	.....	45	.....	.....	1044
1,000	1,500	26	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robert A. Burton, jr	1045
2,500	1,000	300	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. H. Pearce, president	1046
1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. E. P. Albert	1047
20,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	W. H. Goodale	1048
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1049
15,000	3,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. A. Wright	1050
9,500	4,500	200	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. M. Widman	1051
5,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thomas Carter	1052
1,000	300	40	18	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. H. Thigpen	1053
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. S. Sligh, president	1054
2,800	1,649	100	.....	1,296	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. L. Westbrook, secretary.	1055
4,977	2,017	43	41	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lawrence Justin	1056
15,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1057
33,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. C. Culbertson	1058
4,000	.....	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	Richard Lambert, secretary.	1059
25,952	6,760	1,456	1,964	.....	23,441	.....	8,500	$200,000	William Beer	1060
1,000	100	12	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Michel Heymann, superintendent.	1061
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	10	.....	Edward C. Mitchell, president.	1062
1,500	.....	150	.....	600	.....	.....	100	.....	J. V. Calhoun, principal	1063
8,000	.....	300	1,000	.....	.....	.....	700	.....	P. G. Labarre	1064
5,000	500	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. G. Adkinson, president.	1065
1,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	82	.....	Everline A. Waldo	1066
1,500	500	40	25	.....	.....	.....	30	.....	Sister M. Augustin	1067
2,380	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. Soulé	1068
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1069
28,619	21,905	1,325	848	.....	.....	.....	470	.....	M. C. Taylor	1070
3,800	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emily W. Nichols	1071
15,000	2,000	2,120	200	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	E. Villavaso, acting	1072
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James Sherrard, secretary.	1073
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30	.....	I. M. Akers, assistant	1074
2,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	620	.....	James E. Hewey	1075
2,200	.....	192	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	I. W. Hanson	1076
5,414	.....	163	.....	32,760	.....	.....	1,345	1,000	Annie Prescott	1077
2,000	.....	10	.....	300	500	.....	.....	.....	C. M. Bursley, secretary	1078
1,000	500	50	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles E. Nash	1079
1,875	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. A. Small	1080
7,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,100	20,000	Julia M. Clapp	1081
1,500	5,000	100	725	13	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	1082
4,000	.....	100	.....	.....	3,000	.....	200	4,000	Bigelow T. Sanborn, superintendent.	1083
43,000	8,752	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,000	.....	C. D. Carver	1084
19,489	2,000	272	50	.....	.....	.....	615	12,300	C. J. H. Ropes	1085
2,660	.....	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	Albert W. Paine	1086
39,168	2,445	1,562	426	7,801	32,593	.....	5,820	112,000	Mrs. Mary H. Curran	1087
5,200	.....	300	.....	49,044	500	.....	944	150	S. A. Wasgatt Kavanagh	1088

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MAINE—continued.							
1089	Bath	Patten Free Library	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1090	Belfast	Free Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1091	Biddeford	Public Library	1862	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1092	Brunswick	Bowdoin College	1794	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1093	do	Public Library	1883	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1094	Bucksport	Buck Memorial Library	1807	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1095	do	East Maine Conference Seminary	1855	Sch		C.	F.	B.
1096	Calais	Free Library	1892	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1097	Castine	Town Library	1801	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1098	Charleston	Higgins Classical Institute (Tibbetts Library).	1891	Sch		C.	F.	R.
1099	Cherryfield	Public Library	1837	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
1100	Cornish	Library Association	1867	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1101	Cumberland Mills	Cumberland Mills Library	1879	Soc	O.	C.	F	B.
1102	Deering	Westbrook Seminary (Frost Library).		Gen		C.		B.
1103	Dexter	Town Library	1881	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1104	East Machias	Public Library Association	1874	Soc		C.	S.	B.
1105	Eastport	Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1106	Ellsworth	City Library	1870	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1107	Farmington	Abbott Family School (Little Blue Library).	1844	Sch	O.	C.		R.
1108	do	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
1109	do	State Normal School		Sch				
1110	Gardiner	Public Library	1871	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1111	Gorham	do	1882	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
1112	do	State Normal School	1879	Sch		T.		B.
1113	Hallowell	Hubbard Free Library	1842	Gen	O.	B.	F.	B.
1114	do	Maine Industrial School for Girls		A. & R.				
1115	Hebron	Hebron Academy		Sch		C.		
1116	Kennebunk	First Congregational Parish Library.	1861	Gen		C.		B.
1117	do	Free Library Association	1882	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
1118	Kents Hill	Maine Wesleyan Seminary	1821	Col	O.	C.		C.
1119	Kittery	Rice Public Library	1874	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1120	Lewiston	Bates College	1863	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
1121	do	Cobb Divinity School	1840	Theo		C.		B.
1122	do	Manufacturers and Mechanics Library Association.	1861	Gen		C.	S.	B.
1123	do	Nichol's Latin School		Sch		C.		
1124	Machias	Porter Memorial Library	1804	Gen	O.	T.	Fr.	B.
1125	New Gloucester	Public Library	1889	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1126	New Sharon	Town Library	1859	Gen	O.		F.	B.
1127	North Bridgton	Bridgton Academy		Sch		C.		
1128	Norway	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1129	Oldtown	do	1891	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1130	Orono	Maine State College	1865	Col		C.	F.	B.
1131	do	W. C. T. U. Free Public Library		Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1132	Oxford	Freeland Holmes Library	1876	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1133	Phillips	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1134	Portland	Clark's Circulating Library	1877	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1135	do	Greenleaf Law Library		Law		T.	S.	R.
1136	do	High School	1872	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
1137	do	Maine Charitable Mechanic Association.	1815	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
1138	do	Maine Genealogical Society	1884	Hist		C.	S.	R.
1139	do	Maine Historical Society	1822	Hist		C.	Fr.	B.
1140	do	Portland Society of Natural History.	1843	Scien	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1141	do	Post Library, Fort Preble		Gar		T.	Fr.	B.
1142	do	Public Library	1867	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1143	do	Rossini Club Library	1869	Soc	R.	C.		C.
1144	do	State Reform School (boys' library).		A. and R.		C.		B.
1145	Presque Isle	Library Association	1870	Gen		T.	S.	C.
1146	Richmond	do	1867	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1147	Saco	Dyer Library	1881	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1148	do	York Institute	1866	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1149	Searsport	Sears Public Library	1870	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1150	Skowhegan	Free Public Library	1889	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
7,874	.....	409	.....	32,331	1,239	.....	$1,750	$10,000	.....	1089
7,192	.....	624	.....	23,951	.....	.....	.....	53,153	Annie V. Field, assistant	1090
6,000	.....	80	.....	9,000	.....	.....	280	.....	Emma Hatch	1091
57,169	2,000	2,200	400	6 090	.....	.....	2,396	18,700	Geo. T. Little	1092
6,000	.....	383	.....	21,000	.....	.....	1,130	.....	Mary G. Gilman	1093
3,050	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	576	10,000	Alice B. Gardner	1094
5,924	2,500	.....	.....	1,335	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. F. Chase, principal	1095
4,891	.....	591	.....	19,143	300	.....	1,394	5,000	.....	1096
2,700	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	165	.....	P. J. Hoke	1097
1,310	175	30	100	.....	600	.....	60	1,000	C. C. Richardson	1098
1,220	.....	28	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	.....	Rebecca Burnham	1099
1,350	70	15	16	2,600	.....	.....	61	.....	Mary I. Marr	1100
3,000	75	200	54	9,050	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lucy S. Anderson	1101
3,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	H.S. Whitman, president	1102
4,373	.....	356	.....	18,381	.....	$500	577	.....	L. S. Springall	1103
1,200	.....	36	.....	1,200	.....	.....	45	.....	Josiah Harris	1104
4,977	.....	.....	.....	19,333	.....	.....	710	.....	Mrs. Charlotte Wood	1105
3,640	.....	166	.....	.....	.....	.....	410	.....	Adelaide True	1106
3,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1107
5,000	.....	275	1,000	15,000	.....	.....	450	.....	Mrs. Flora A. Brooks	1108
1,750	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1109
5,610	.....	100	.....	8,756	.....	1,000	1,100	.....	Chas. O. Wadsworth	1110
3,000	250	101	40	3,761	.....	.....	580	.....	Sara L. Robie	1111
1,697	569	59	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	W. J. Corthell, principal	1112
8,500	.....	395	.....	13,079	.....	.....	1,402	11,000	Annie F. Page	1113
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1114
1,175	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1115
3,000	.....	125	.....	2,500	.....	.....	116	1,600	F. P. Hall	1116
3,000	.....	40	.....	4,500	.....	.....	459	700	Annie M. Nason	1117
8,000	5,000	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. F. Caldwell	1118
5,000	200	470	25	13,952	.....	.....	1,500	30,000	Abbie A. P. Goodsoe	1119
12,400	.....	280	.....	.....	.....	.....	700	.....	Caroline A. Woodman	1120
3,600	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Alfred W. Anthony	1121
6,300	.....	416	.....	15,000	.....	.....	1,108	.....	.....	1122
1,336	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1123
3,000	.....	.....	.....	2,500	.....	.....	425	.....	.....	1124
2,127	.....	387	.....	7,500	.....	307	316	.....	Helen A. Moseley	1125
2,126	.....	152	.....	152	.....	.....	60	500	Nellie Neal	1126
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1127
5,000	400	300	30	3,000	700	500	2,550	.....	A. E. Monahan	1128
1,267	.....	185	.....	26,000	.....	300	334	.....	Euphemia Hilliard	1129
9,012	3,000	602	800	1,393	.....	.....	2,000	.....	Harriet C. Fernald	1130
1,209	100	30	.....	2,500	.....	.....	220	.....	Mrs. F. L. Harvey	1131
1,200	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	50	.....	George Hazen	1132
1,458	24	582	.....	.....	.....	300	330	.....	Mrs. A. M. Greenwood	1133
3,800	.....	170	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Helen M. Swett	1134
4,257	.....	173	.....	.....	.....	.....	725	.....	Reuel Small	1135
1,900	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	A. E. Chase	1136
15,000	.....	225	33	14,320	.....	.....	500	.....	W. H. Averill, chairman	1137
1,253	769	120	223	.....	.....	.....	290	1,000	Joseph P. Thompson	1138
9,585	12,500	375	850	.....	.....	.....	750	10,000	H. W. Bryant	1139
2,622	1,917	250	730	.....	.....	.....	650	3,000	Joseph P. Thompson	1140
1,000	382	107	120	872	245	.....	100	.....	Jno. H. Gifford	1141
41,583	22,000	1,764	978	86,269	37,693	.....	10,197	20,000	Alice C. Furbish	1142
1,630	.....	.....	.....	37	.....	.....	.....	.....	Janie N. Thompson	1143
2,126	.....	70	.....	.....	.....	.....	42	700	J. R. Farrington, superintendent.	1144
1,109	.....	.....	.....	6,000	.....	.....	225	.....	Fred H. Blake	1145
4,027	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,323	1,000	Wm. H. Stuart	1146
10,500	.....	400	.....	27,000	2,000	.....	.....	46,000	John Haley	1147
1,200	5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,784	.....	W. S. Dennett	1148
1,700	.....	5	.....	.....	.....	75	90	.....	Hallie N. Roulston	1149
7,000	800	245	.....	7,651	.....	.....	3,786	16,000	Clara A. Morrison	1150

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MAINE—continued.							
1151	South Berwick	Berwick Academy (Fogg Memorial Library).	1894	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1152	Thomaston	Ladies' Library	1841	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1153	do	Maine State Prison Library		A. and R.		C.		C.
1154	Togus	National Soldiers' Home	1869	Gen	O.	C.		B.
1155	Waterville	Coburn Classical Institute	1829	Sch		C.		B.
1156	do	Colby University	1820	Col		C.	S.	B.
1157	do	Library Association	1875	Gen		C.	S.	C.
1158	do	Waterville Woman's Association	1887	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
1159	Westbrook	Memorial Library	1894	Gen	O.	T	F.	B.
1160	Winterport	Free Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1161	do	Ladies' Circle Library	1865	Gen		C.	S.	C.
1162	Winthrop	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1163	Wiscasset	Lincoln Law Library	1824	Law		C.	F.	R.
1164	do	Social Library	1799	Soc		C.	S.	C.
1165	Woodfords	Deering Public Library	1870	Gen		C.	S	B.
1166	York Harbor	York Library	1881	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
	MARYLAND.							
1167	Annapolis	Maryland State Library	1827	Gen		T.	F.	R
1168	do	St. John's College	1696	Col		C.	Fr.	R.
1169	do	United States Naval Academy Library.	1845	Col		T.		
1170	Baltimore	Academy of the Visitation	1838	Sch		C.		B.
1171	do	Archbishop's Library	1808	Theo		C.		R.
1172	do	Baltimore and Ohio Employee's Library.	1884	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1173	do	Boys' Home	1870	Sch		C.		B.
1174	do	Bryn Mawr School		Sch		C.		
1175	do	Calvert Hall College	1891	Col		C.	Fr.	R.
1176	do	City Library	1875	Gen		T.	F.	R.
1177	do	Enoch Pratt Free Library	1882	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1178	do	Friends' Elementary and High School Library.	1864	Sch	R.	C.		R
1179	do	Germania Turn-Verein	1855	Soc. and Hist.	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
1180	do	Girls' Latin School	1893	Sch		C.		R.
1181	do	House of Refuge	1855	A. and R.		T.		B.
1182	do	I. O. O. F. Library	1845	I. O. O. F.	C.	C.	S.	C.
1183	do	Johns Hopkins University	1876	Col	O.	C.		B.
1184	do	Knapp's (F.) Institute		Sch		C.		
1185	do	Knights of Pythias	1878	Gen		C.	Fr.	C.
1186	do	Library Company of the Baltimore Bar.	1840	Law		C.	S.	R.
1187	do	Loyola College	1853	Gen		C.		R.
1188	do	Maryland Historical Society	1843	Hist		C.	Fr.	R.
1189	do	Maryland Institute for the Promotion of the Mechanic Arts.	1848	Gen		C.	S.	B.
1190	do	Maryland Penitentiary	1837	A. and R.		T.		C.
1191	do	Maryland School for the Blind	1853	Sch		C.		B.
1192	do	Masonic Library Association	1880	Masonic		C.		C.
1193	Baltimore (847 North Eutaw street).	Medical and Chirurgical Faculty of Maryland.	1799	Med	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1194	Baltimore	Morgan College	1876	Col		C.		B.
1195	Baltimore (Station D).	Mount St. Joseph College	1887	Col		C.	S.	B.
1196	Baltimore	New Mercantile Library	1887	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
1197	Baltimore (Station L).	Notre Dame of Maryland	1896	Col		C.	S.	R.
1198	Baltimore	Peabody Institute Library	1857	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1199	Baltimore (310 St. Paul street).	Public School Library	1865	Sch	R.	T.		B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,400	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Evelyn Horne	1151
3,000	.....	150	.....	150	.....	.....	$125	.....	Emily C. Smith, president.	1152
1,832	300	129	.....	.....	.....	.....	431	.....	C. A Plumer, chaplain.	1153
8,489	.....	110	.....	25,272	.....	.....	.....	.....	Luther Stephenson, governor.	1154
1,700	200	100	20	950	.....	.....	180	$3,000	F. W. Johnson, principal.	1155
31,500	20,000	1,300	10,000	7,000	.....	.....	750	5,000	Edward W. Hall	1156
2,089	360	110	90	4,000	.....	.....	120	.....	A. A. Plaisted	1157
1,200	.....	250	.....	10,400	.....	.....	240	.....	Miss E. L. McLain	1158
5,281	55	261	12	34,980	2,433	.....	2,429	10,000	Harriet M. Raymond	1159
1,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	280	100	S. H. Morgan, president.	1160
1,600	.....	47	.....	1,352	.....	.....	25	.....	Mrs. H. N. Abbott	1161
1,650	.....	50	.....	800	250	$100	170	.....	Fred W. Sinclare	1162
1,000	500	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	348	.....	Geo. B. Sawyer, secretary.	1163
1,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Warren Rice	1164
1,690	.....	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	152	.....	Mrs. A. R. Huston	1165
2,500	400	150	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1166
90,000	30,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,750	.....	.....	1167
7,000	400	150	200	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Thomas Fell, president.	1168
35,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1169
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sister Mary L. Neale	1170
5,000	350	150	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Wm. T. Russell	1171
14,000	.....	1,000	.....	32,000	2,136	.....	.....	.....	A. M. Irving	1172
2,500	100	150	50	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	John H. Lynch, superintendent.	1173
1,035	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1174
4,310	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1175
16,577	13,260	1,787	893	.....	.....	.....	13,235	.....	Geo. C. Wedderburn	1176
166,854	500	12,393	1,600	548,278	38,521	300	54,500	1,250,000	Bernard C. Steiner	1177
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Eli M. Lamb, principal.	1178
1,250	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frederick Turnt, recording secretary.	1179
1,140	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,696	.....	Miss Jennie L. Whitbread, vice-principal.	1180
3,000	100	75	100	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	Robt. J. Kirkwood, superintendent.	1181
23,500	.....	287	.....	13,000	400	.....	1,709	.....	Benj. F. Cooper	1182
77,000	30,000	4,000	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. Murray	1183
2,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1184
7,125	.....	200	.....	5,000	.....	.....	350	.....	James Whitehouse	1185
14,090	.....	642	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,603	.....	.....	1186
40,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1187
30,000	10,000	258	181	.....	.....	.....	300	10,000	Henry F. Thompson	1188
21,829	.....	177	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	George L. McCahan	1189
4,000	500	300	250	.....	20,000	.....	300	.....	John F. Weyler, warden	1190
2,050	110	140	53	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. D. Morrison	1191
2,000	4,000	200	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. Mann	1192
7,500	1,000	200	200	300	.....	.....	2,400	.....	C. F. Parsons	1193
2,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. J. Wagner, president	1194
6,000	380	200	150	1,200	1,050	.....	50	.....	Bro. Isidore	1195
40,000	.....	1,601	.....	85,873	.....	.....	6,432	6,000	John M. Glenn	1196
5,300	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	1197
124,501	15,605	2,991	456	.....	77,990	.....	10,000	840,000	P. R. Uhler	1198
8,507	.....	600	.....	7,005	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. Plaskitt	1199

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MARYLAND—cont'd.							
1200	Baltimore	Red Men's Library (Improved Order).	1867	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	C.
1201	Baltimore (1214 Eutaw Place).	Sarah Randolph School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1202	Baltimore	State Normal School Library	1866	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1203	Baltimore (1108 Madison avenue).	Stinnecke Maryland Episcopal Library.	1879	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1204	Baltimore	Visitation Academy Library	1837	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1205	.....do	Woman's College of Baltimore	1888	Col	O.	C.	....	R.
1206	.....do	Woodberry Free Reading Rooms and Circulating Library.	1886	Soc	R.	C.	F.	B.
1207	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1852	Y. M. C. A	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1208	Catonsville	Mount de Sales Academy	1852	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
1209	Charlotte Hall	Washington and Stonewall Society Library.	1800	Col. Soc	....	C.	....	....
1210	Chestertown	Washington College	1782	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1211	College of St. James.	College of St. James Library	1842	Col	....	C.	....	....
1212	College Park	Maryland Agricultural College	1859	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1213	Ellicott City	Rock Hill College	1857	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1214	.....do	St. Charles College	1848	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1215	Frederick	Frederick College	1860	Sch	....	C.	F.	R.
1216	.....do	Maryland School for Deaf	1871	Gen	....	T.	....	B.
1217	.....do	Woman's College	1845	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1218	Gaithersburg	Fair View Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1219	Hagerstown	Kee Mar College	1852	Col	R.	C.	S.	B.
1220	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	.....	Y. M. C. A	R.	C.	S.	B.
1221	Ilchester	Redemptorists' Library	1868	Theo	....	C.	S.	B.
1222	McDonogh	McDonogh School	1873	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1223	Mount St. Marys	Mount St. Marys College	1808	Col	....	T.	Fr.	R.
1224	Mount Washington.	Mount St. Agnes College	1870	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
1225	New Windsor	New Windsor College	1874	Col	....	C.	....	....
1226	Port Deposit	Tome Institute	1893	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	....
1227	Reisterstown	Tillard Memorial Free Library	1887	Gen	R.	C.	F.	C.
1228	St. George	St. George s Hall for Boys	1876	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1229	Sparrows Point	Free Library	1896	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1230	Sykesville	Springfield Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1231	Westminster	Western Maryland College	1866	Col	....	C.	....	R.
1232	.....do	Westminster Theological Seminary Library.	1882	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1233	Woodstock	Woodstock College	1869	Theo	....	C.	....	B.
	MASSACHUSETTS.							
1234	Abington	Abington Public Library	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1235	Acton	Acton Memorial Library	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1236	Adams	Public Library	1883	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1237	Agawam	Free Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1238	Amesbury	.....do	1856	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1239	.....do	Johnson's Circulating Library	1878	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
1240	Amherst	Amherst College	1821	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1241	.....do	Massachusetts Agricultural College.	1867	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
1242	.....do	Public Library	1874	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1243	.....do	Stearns's Home School for Young Ladies.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1244	Andover	Abbott Academy	1826	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1245	.....do	Andover Theological Seminary	1807	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1246	.....do	Memorial Hall Library	1873	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1247	.....do	Taylor Memorial Library (Phillips Academy).	1875	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1248	Arlington	Robbins Library	1835	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1249	Ashburnham	Cushing Academy	1875	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1250	Ashby	Public Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1251	Ashfield	Library Association	1866	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1252	Ashland	Public Library	1880	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1253	Asylum Station	Danvers Lunatic Hospital	1878	Asyl	....	T.	....	B.
1254	Athol	Public Library	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1255	Attleboro	.....do	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
5,000	.....	3	.....	350	.....	.....	$100	.....	Wm. Benson	1200
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1201
2,500	500	150	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. C. A. Hammel	1202
22,046	.....	707	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$1,000	M. H. Whittingham	1203
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1204
8,000	50	1,153	67	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Joseph S. Sheffoe	1205
1,840	50	.....	.....	6,300	.....	.....	510	.....	Robt. P. Simpson, secretary.	1206
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. H. Morriss, general secretary.	1207
4,000	200	150	175	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sisters of the Visitation	1208
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	G. M. Thomas, principal	1209
3,100	600	400	50	800	.....	.....	100	.....	James L. Stephens	1210
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1211
2,500	1,500	60	100	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	R. H. Alvey, vice-president.	1212
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brother D. Ambrose	1213
11,950	.....	420	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	G. E. Viger	1214
2,700	500	125	100	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	Lucian S. Tilton	1215
2,590	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. W. Ely, principal	1216
2,000	500	100	50	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	J. H. Apple, president	1217
1,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1218
2,500	105	25	10	.....	.....	.....	35	.....	.....	1219
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. B. Hawkins, general secretary.	1220
18,000	300	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Elias F. Schaner	1221
3,284	.....	70	.....	1,600	.....	.....	80	.....	Francis B. Crawford	1222
16,000	2,000	1,000	300	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Edw. P. Allen	1223
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1224
2,000	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1225
2,400	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Helen G. Shreldon	1226
1,552	.....	56	.....	2,700	.....	.....	106	.....	.....	1227
1,000	200	30	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. C. Kinear, principal	1228
1,000	150	1,000	150	.....	.....	.....	29	.....	Chas. T. Woodruff	1229
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1230
2,000	300	500	50	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Geo. W. Ward	1231
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. T. Ward, president	1232
67,000	10,000	300	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. J. Maas	1233
10,732	.....	418	.....	19,691	.....	$1,273	1,316	.....	Mary O. Nash	1234
5,590	.....	197	.....	8,766	.....	600	616	.....	Wm. D. Tuttle, trustee	1235
7,191	.....	289	.....	22,671	.....	.....	2,069	.....	Miss Lucy C. Richmond	1236
1,509	.....	106	.....	3,158	.....	233	253	500	Mrs. C. L. Hayward	1237
7,500	.....	556	88	27,757	.....	600	774	200	Alice C. Follansbee	1238
4,570	256	90	23	2,960	.....	.....	148	.....	John F. Johnson	1239
64,500	10,000	1,800	700	10,600	.....	.....	3,000	50,000	Wm. I. Fletcher	1240
17,161	.....	1,120	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. H. Goodell, president.	1241
7,070	.....	401	.....	17,867	.....	.....	708	1,000	H. H. Goodell, director	1242
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. W. F. Stearns, principal.	1243
3,977	.....	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	125	.....	Mabelle C. Boshee	1244
50,000	23,000	380	1,000	.....	.....	.....	3,500	.....	W. L. Ropes	1245
13,826	7,526	378	133	20,314	712	.....	2,658	35,200	Ballard Holt	1246
3,500	400	200	60	.....	.....	.....	550	.....	Cecil F. P. Bancroft	1247
13,958	.....	502	.....	38,579	.....	632	4,973	65,300	Elizabeth J. Newton	1248
1,000	50	40	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	H. M Nervell	1249
1 670	.....	.....	.....	1,519	.....	100	100	.....	H. W. Bun	1250
4,200	100	176	20	3,500	.....	.....	314	1,500	F. G. Howes, secretary	1251
4,000	.....	250	.....	1,348	.....	210	535	.....	Ella F. Wiggins	1252
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Galen Clapp	1253
4,582	60	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Mrs. M. S. Doene	1254
4,200	.....	156	.....	24,000	.....	.....	1,600	.....	N. A. Blackinton	1255

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1256	Auburn	Free Public Library	1872	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1257	Auburndale	Lasell Seminary for Young Women.	1851	Sch		C.		B.
1258	Avon	Town Library	1892	Gen		T.	F.	C.
1259	Ayer	Ayer Public Library	1871	Gen	O.	T.	F	B.
1260	Ballard Vale	Bradlee Library	1878	Gen			F.	B.
1261	Barnstable	Sturgis Library	1867	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1262	Barre	Free Public Library	1857	Gen	O	T.	F.	B.
1263	Becket	Becket Athenæum	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1264	Bedford	Free public library	1876	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1265	Belchertown	Clapp Memorial Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1266	Belmont	Public Library	1872	Gen		T.	F	B.
1267	Bernardston	Cushman Library	1862	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B
1268	Beverly	Public Library	1855	Gen		C.	F	B.
1269	Billerica	Bennett Public Library	1880	Gen	O.	C	Fr.	C.
1270	Blackinton	Free Library	1859	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1271	Blackstone	Free Public Library	1855	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1272	Blandford	Free Library	1892	Gen	O.	T	F	B.
1273	Bolton	Public Library	1856	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1274	Boston (Station B)	Academy of Notre Dame	1863	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
1275	Boston (10½ Beacon street).	American Academy of Arts and Sciences.	1780	Sci	R.	C.	S.	B.
1276	Boston (1 Somerset street)	American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.	1810	Theo	R.	C.	F.	B.
1277	Boston (25 Beacon street).	American Unitarian Association	1854	Theo		C.	F.	R.
1278	Boston	Boston Athenæum	1807	Gen	O.	C.		B.
1279	Boston (102 Post-office building).	Boston Bar Association	1885	Law		C.	S.	R.
1280	Boston	Boston City Hospital Medical Library.	1872	Med		T. & C.		R.
1281	do	Boston College	1863	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
1282	do	Boston College Reading Room Library.	1890	Col		C.		B.
1283	do	Boston Latin School Library	1635	Sch		C.		R.
1284	Boston (Back Bay)	Boston Library Society	1792	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
1285	Boston	Boston Society of Civil Engineers.	1848	Sci	R.	C.	S.	B.
1286	do	Boston Turn-Verein	1857	Soc		C.	Fr.	B.
1287	do	Boston University		Col		C.		
1288	Boston (10 Ashburton Place).	Boston University School of Law.	1872	Law		C.		R.
1289	Boston (Station A)	Boston University School of Medicine.	1873	Med		C.		B.
1290	Boston (20 Beacon street).	Bureau of Statistics of Labor	1873	Govt	R.	T.	Fr.	R.
1291	Boston (5 Somerset street).	Carter's Circulating Library	1870	Gen	R.		S.	C.
1292	Boston	Congregational Library	1853	Theo		C.	Fr.	R.
1293	Boston (155 Franklin street).	Directory Library	1846	Hist	R.	C.	F.	R.
1294	Boston	English High School		Sch		C.		
1295	do	Female Academy of the Sacred Heart.		Sch		C.		
1296	Boston (Transcript office).	Franklin Typographical Society.	1824	Soc		C.	S.	B.
1297	Boston (53 Mount Vernon street).	General Theological Library	1860	Theo	O.	C.	S.	B.
1298	Boston (West Newton street).	Girls' High School	1852	Sch		C.	Fr.	R.
1299	Boston	Grand Lodge of Masons	1864	Masonic		C.	F.	B.
1300	do	Lending Library of Society to Encourage Studies at Home.	1874	Gen		C.	S.	C.
1301	do	Little Wanderers' Home	1865	Gen		C.		B.
1302	do	Loring's Select Library	1859	Soc	R.	C.		C.
1303	do	Massachusetts College of Pharmacy.	1867	Med		C.	F.	R.
1304	Boston (30 Tremont street).	Massachusetts Historical Society.	1791	Hist		C.	Fr.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,197	140	129	.....	1,513	.....	.....	$165	$2,000	Josie E. Prouty	1256
1,900	30	31	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mabel S. Cogswell	1257
1,225	75	20	18	1,225	.....	$234	259	.....	Walter Blanchard	1258
6,924	.....	105	.....	8,913	.....	1,000	1,000	.....	Geo. H. Brown, secretary trustees.	1259
1,900	.....	.....	.....	1,600	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	1260
12,718	.....	216	.....	3,500	.....	.....	.....	15,000	Elizabeth C. Nye	1261
5,445	836	209	.....	7,147	.....	600	909	1,700	Mary E. Lane	1262
1,700	125	50	.....	1,800	.....	.....	30	.....	Omri S. Willis, president	1263
4,064	.....	148	.....	6,305	.....	100	3,292	3,500	.....	1264
5,000	600	100	100	10,204	138	.....	650	9,000	Lydia A. Barton	1265
9,113	.....	561	.....	11,966	.....	800	1,057	.....	Ed. W. Brown	1266
5,800	.....	100	.....	6,557	.....	.....	375	7,500	.....	1267
19,265	150	814	134	41,863	.....	.....	2,467	.....	Martha P. Smith	1268
3,000	.....	77	.....	5,774	.....	.....	430	8,000	.....	1269
2,650	.....	100	.....	2,966	52	.....	110	.....	O. A. Archer	1270
5,560	142	242	5	6,854	.....	438	455	.....	Wm. A. Cole	1271
1,756	.....	117	.....	2,373	.....	150	162	.....	Hattie Parks Herrick	1272
2,719	.....	5	.....	3,357	.....	100	200	.....	Fidelia C. Newton	1273
4,000	200	50	10	1,900	1,500	.....	50	.....	Sisters of Notre Dame	1274
25,000	900	3,096	.....	196	.....	.....	9,221	153,982	Eliot C. Clark, treasurer	1275
8,378	.....	105	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Judson Smith	1276
1,275	.....	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. W. Fox, assistant secretary.	1277
180,000	70,000	3,675	777	58,980	.....	.....	34,807	.....	Wm. C. Lane	1278
6,804	200	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. M. Phillips Porter	1279
3,139	6,500	131	430	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. H. M. Rowe, superintendent.	1280
30,000	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. A. Quinn, S. J	1281
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1282
4,387	.....	208	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Moses Merrill	1283
33,795	.....	804	.....	10,414	.....	.....	.....	.....	Letitia F. Stubbs	1284
1,000	1,200	90	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alfred D. Flinn	1285
2,673	.....	.....	.....	1,057	.....	.....	50	.....	Emil S. A. Schieftgiessee	1286
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. F. Warren	1287
7,500	500	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Roscoe E. Learned	1288
3,340	.....	75	.....	500	.....	.....	248	1,500	J. T. Talbot, dean	1289
1,575	11,965	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Horace G. Wadlin, chief	1290
25,000	500	1,275	400	85,000	.....	.....	50	.....	Hattie M. Baker	1291
38,417	34,410	904	539	.....	.....	.....	1,721	15,000	William H. Cobb	1292
3,000	200	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. E. Murdock	1293
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1294
1,530	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1295
3,500	50	35	5	800	5	.....	44	.....	C. W. Brown, secretary	1296
14,000	5,000	245	75	1,000	.....	.....	60	25,000	Lucy F. Doggett, assistant.	1297
2,800	100	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	May M. Smith, acting librarian.	1298
6,000	1,500	340	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sereno D. Nickerson	1299
2,441	246	29	14	777	.....	.....	81	.....	.....	1300
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1301
1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1302
4,500	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	J. W. Baird, actuary	1303
40,000	95,000	600	2,000	.....	.....	.....	11,200	.....	Samuel A. Green	1304

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1305	Boston (101 Tremont street).	Massachusetts Horticultural Society.	1829	Sci	....	C.	S.	B.
1306	Boston	Massachusetts Institute of Technology.	1870	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1307	Boston (16 Arlington street).	Massachusetts New Church Union.	1864	Theo	....	C.	F.	B.
1308	Boston	Museum of Fine Arts	.....	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1309	Boston (18 Somerset street).	New England Historical Genealogical Society.	1845	Hist	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
1310	Boston (36 Bromfield street, room 21).	New England Methodist Historical Society's Library.	1880	Hist	....	C.	S.	R.
1311	Boston (39 North Bennet street).	North Bennet Street Industrial School.	1880	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1312	Boston (Fort Warren).	Post Library, Fort Warren	1850	Gar	....	C.	F.	B.
1313	Boston (Copley square).	Public Library *a*	1852	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1314	Boston	School of Theology	.....	Theo	....	.....	....	....
1315	Boston (courthouse).	Social Law Library	1804	Law	....	C.	S.	B.
1316	Boston (room 142, State House).	State Board of Health	1869	Sci	....	T.	Fr.	R.
1317	Boston (State House).	State Library of Massachusetts	1826	State	....	S.	Fr.	R.
1318	Boston	Treadwell Library of Massachusetts General Hospital.	1858	Med	....	C.	....	R.
1319	.....do	Wells' Memorial Institute	1879	Gen	....	C.	S.	R.
1320	Boston (264 Boylston street).	Women's Educational and Industrial Union.	1880	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1321	Boston (458 Boylston street).	Y. M. C. A. Library	1851	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	....	B.
1322	Boston (48 Boylston street).	Young Men's Christian Union	1851	Y. W. C. U.	....	C.	S.	B.
1323	Boston (40 Berkeley street).	Y. W. C. A. Library	1865	Y. W. C. A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1324	Boxford	Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B
1325	Boylston Center	Boylston Public Library	1880	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1326	Bradford	Bradford Academy	1803	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1327	.....do	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1328	Bridgewater	.....do	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1329	.....do	State Normal School	1840	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
1330	Brimfield	Free Public Library	1877	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1331	.....do	Hitchcock Free High School	1855	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1332	Brockton	Public Library	1867	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1333	Brookfield	Merrick Public Library	1867	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1334	Brookline	Public Library	1857	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1335	Buckland	Public Church Library	1890	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1336	Burlington	Public Library	1898	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1337	Buzzards Bay	Bourne Free Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1338	Cambridge	Cambridge Entomological Club	1874	Scien	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1339	.....do	Cambridge Social Union	1871	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	C.
1340	.....do	English High School	1850	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1341	.....do	Episcopal Theological School	1869	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1342	.....do	Harvard University	1638	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1343	.....do	New Church Theological School	1866	Theo	....	C.	....	R.
1344	.....do	Peabody Museum Library	1866	Sci	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1345	.....do	Public Library	1858	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1346	.....do	Radcliffe College	1879	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1347	Cambridgeport	Abbott Parker Library	1878	Gen	R.	.....	S.	C.
1348	.....do	East End Christian Union	1892	Soc	O.	C.	F.	B.
1349	.....do	E. F. Hunt & Co's Circulating Library.	1833	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1350	Canton	Ladies' Social Library	.....	Soc	....	C.	....	C.
1351	.....do	Public Library	1875	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1352	Carlisle	Gleason Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.

a Includes Central Library, thirteen branch libraries, and ten delivery stations.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
8,000	7,500	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robt. Manning	1305
39,432	12,180	3,189	1,035	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robt. P. Bigelow	1306
2,300	.....	42	.....	598	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edw'd A. Whiston	1307
1,388	2,232	408	42	.....	.....	.....	$598	.....	B. I. Gilman, curator	1308
22,000	19,000	962	736	.....	.....	.....	7,746	.....	Wm. Prescott Greenlow, assistant.	1309
4,064	17,317	69	118	.....	.....	.....	376	.....	Willard S. Allen	1310
2,400	200	50	.....	7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1311
1,208	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. Smith, first lieutenant, Second U. S. Artillery.	1312
630,961	3,000	30,611	.....	847,321	.....	.....	250,000	$201,213	Herbert Putnam	1313
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1314
28,560	.....	909	59	.....	.....	.....	15,556	20,051	Francis W. Vaughan	1315
3,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Samuel W. Abbott, secretary.	1316
90,000	67,000	4,175	3,202	.....	.....	.....	6,800	.....	C. B. Tillinghast	1317
3,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	275	5,000	J. W. Pratt, resident physician.	1318
1,200	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1319
2,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. L. Durgin, general assistant.	1320
4,163	100	38	.....	6,021	8,750	.....	100	.....	Edw. M. Donnelly	1321
13,489	.....	666	.....	20,570	.....	.....	.....	.....	Richard Ray, jr	1322
1,600	.....	53	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sarah J. Buttrick, superintendent.	1323
1,765	.....	76	.....	.....	.....	$80	100	500	Miss Mary Sawyer	1324
3,769	.....	216	.....	3,553	.....	90	879	500	Geo. L. Wright	1325
5,375	.....	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Helen L. Crane	1326
3,914	400	341	200	21,664	.....	.....	980	2,500	Kate E. Johnson	1327
9,929	.....	134	.....	23,808	.....	.....	994	500	Lucia L. Christian	1328
4,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Albert G. Boyden, principal.	1329
3,962	1,000	105	20	3,445	.....	.....	150	.....	Miss M. A. Tarbell	1330
1,980	.....	25	.....	486	.....	.....	75	5,000	Geo. W. Earle	1331
23,533	2,655	1,775	562	102,835	7,567	9,371	9,936	.....	Myra F. Southworth	1332
13,417	.....	300	.....	25,417	.....	650	1,290	12,000	Eliza P. Hobbs	1333
43,768	2,000	1,873	354	88,633	23,596	12,000	12,726	15,000	Chas. K. Bolton	1334
2,300	.....	.....	.....	1,740	.....	.....	45	1,000	A. C. Hodges	1335
2,550	456	7	27	2,000	.....	.....	1,050	1,000	E. S. Foster, reporting	1336
1,287	50	124	.....	2,661	.....	274	291	.....	Fred. C. Small	1337
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sam'l H. Scudder	1338
4,500	.....	240	.....	10,684	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. R. Pearson	1339
3,000	.....	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Martha L. Babbitt	1340
9,000	.....	395	.....	1,212	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Edith D. Fuller	1341
460,000	375,000	16,000	12,000	105,000	.....	.....	50,000	440,000	Justin Winsor	1342
2,500	500	25	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Theo. F. Wright	1343
1,497	1,863	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. W. Putnam, curator	1344
50,128	.....	4,090	.....	137,702	.....	.....	18,820	8,500	Wm. L. R. Gifford	1345
9,300	.....	1,341	.....	6,134	.....	.....	.....	.....	Caroline A. Forley	1346
2,500	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1347
1,300	200	200	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	John F. Walker, superintendent.	1348
3,700	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	1349
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1350
8,450	.....	454	.....	17,101	.....	.....	1,567	.....	Jennie A. Hewett	1351
1,500	.....	131	.....	1,431	.....	75	150	.....	Thomas A. Green	1352

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1353	Charlemont	Free Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1354	Charlestown	High School	1850	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1355	.....do	State Prison Library	1805	A. & R.	O.	State.	....	C.
1356	Charlton	Free Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1357	Chatham	Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1358	Chelmsford	Adams Library	1893	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1359	Chelsea	Boyden's Circulating Library	.....	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1360	....do	Fitz Public Library	1868	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1361	Cheshire	Library Association	1866	Soc	O.	C.	S.	C.
1362	Chester	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1363	Chesterfield	Town Library	1872	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1364	Chicopee	City Library	1854	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1365	Cliftondale	Public Library	1885	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1366	Clinton	Bigelow Free Public Library	1875	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1367	Cohasset	Free Public Library	1880	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1368	Concord	.....do	1851	Gen	O.	T. & C.	F.	B.
1369	Concord Junction	Massachusetts Reformatory	1884	Reform	....	C.	....	C.
1370	Conway	Town Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1371	Cotuit	Cotuit Library	.....	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1372	Cummington	Bryant Free Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1373	Dalton	Free Public Library	1861	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1374	Danvers	Danvers Hospital Library	1878	Med	....	C.	....	B.
1375	.... do	Peabody Institute	1866	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1376	Dedham	Dedham Historical Society	1862	Hist	O.	C.	S.	R.
1377	.....do	Norfolk County Law Library	1815	Law	....	T.	Fr.	R.
1378	.....do	Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1379	Deerfield	Dickinson Library	1878	Gen	O.	C.	F.	C.
1380	.....do	Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association Library.	1870	Gen	O.	C.	F.	C.
1381	Dorchester	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
1382	Dover	Town Library	1894	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1383	Dudley	Conant Library	1870	Sch	O.	.....	S.	B.
1384	.....do	Nichols' Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1385	Dunstable	Free Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1386	Duxbury	Free Library	1890	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1387	.....do	Powder Point School	1886	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1388	East Bridgewater	Public Library	1884	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1389	East Cambridge	Middlesex County Law Library	1814	Law	....	C.	....	R.
1390	East Dennis	East Dennis Association	1870	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1391	East Douglas	Free Public Library	1879	Gen	....	.....	F.	C.
1392	Eastham	Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1393	Easthampton	.....do	1881	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
1394	.....do	Williston Seminary	1841	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1395	East Northfield	Talcott Library of Northfield Seminary.	1887	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1396	East Orleans	Orleans Public School Library	1896	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1397	East Saugus	Circulating Library	1865	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1398	Enfield	Enfield Library	1881	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1399	Erving	Town Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1400	Essex	T. O. H. P. Burnham Public Library.	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1401	Everett	Parlin Memorial Library	1878	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1402	Fairhaven	Millicent Library	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1403	Fall River	B. M. C. Durfee High School	1887	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
1404	.....do	Public Library	1861	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1405	Falmouth	Free Public Library	1891	Gen	....	.....	F.	B.
1406	Fitchburg	Public Library	1859	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1407	Florence	Lilly Library	1863	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1408	Foxboro	Boyden Library	1870	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
1409	Framingham	State Normal School	1839	Sch	....	State.	....	B.
1410	.....do	Town Library	1855	Gen	O.	T. & C.	F.	B.
1411	Franklin	Dean Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1412	.....do	Public Library	1786	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1413	Gardner	Levi Heywood Memorial Library	1886	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1414	Georgetown	Peabody Library	1869	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1415	Gill	Town Library	1872	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,000	150	92	100	3,170	.....	.....	$115	$1,000	Lizzie M. Temple	1353
3,375	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	J. O. Norris, head master	1354
6,800	.....	400	.....	31,177	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. W. F. Barnes, chaplain	1355
2,098	.....	276	.....	3,248	.....	$200	220	500	J. F. Rich, trustee	1356
1,949	50	254	.....	6,262	.....	.....	274	.....	P. H. Lewis	1357
4,715	.....	2,207	.....	10,960	.....	.....	2,020	.....	Henry A. Cornell	1358
2,500	500	50	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1359
14,789	1,721	427	150	70,423	8,329	.....	4,700	.....	.....	1860
3,127	.....	43	.....	2,300	.....	.....	75	.....	Emma E. Martin	1361
1,228	40	56	.....	2,084	.....	75	95	.....	.....	1362
1,200	.....	40	.....	700	.....	25	30	.....	Claxton N. Rhoades	1363
16,000	.....	816	.....	46,144	.....	.....	2,650	.....	Geo. V. Wheelock	1364
1,000	.....	.....	.....	1,600	.....	.....	15	500	Geo. M. Amerige	1365
20,600	.....	451	286	45,018	.....	2,000	2,025	.....	C. L. Greene	1366
5,505	.....	144	27	8,692	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Sarah B. Collier	1367
27,848	.....	1,059	.....	26,074	.....	.....	2,500	51,076	Ellen F. Whitney	1368
3,500	.....	.....	.....	52,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Joseph F. Scott, superintendent.	1369
2,209	125	.....	.....	1,830	.....	.....	95	1,000	Henry W. Billings	1370
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1371
6,500	800	900	50	.....	.....	75	75	.....	L. H. Tower	1372
6,145	700	645	70	15,833	404	.....	731	.....	Carlotta Bicknell	1373
1,800	2,000	25	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. W. Page, M. D., superintendent.	1374
16,585	500	483	.....	24,256	.....	.....	2,455	67,695	Emilie K. Davis	1375
4,500	6,000	125	282	.....	.....	.....	703	.....	J. H. Burdakin	1376
3,000	700	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Erastus Worthington	1377
12,500	.....	786	.....	27,092	.....	.....	4,072	5,625	Miss F. M. Mann	1378
2,800	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	.....	250	.....	.....	1379
6,000	6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Nat. Hitchcock, secretary and treasurer.	1380
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1381
1,000	.....	406	.....	5,160	56	.....	510	.....	Marion B. Hodgson	1382
2,800	410	64	42	1,400	2,446	.....	928	.....	Alfred G. Collins	1383
2,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1384
1,650	200	20	.....	975	.....	25	72	.....	Lizzie H. Swallow	1385
2,380	.....	150	.....	4,300	.....	.....	450	8,000	W. W. Wood	1386
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. B. Knapp, principal	1387
2,480	.....	106	.....	9,733	.....	500	595	1,500	Lucy L. Siddall	1388
9,050	.....	650	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,000	.....	Grace L. Rowley	1389
1,516	.....	55	.....	400	25	.....	52	500	Blanche E. Hall	1390
2,805	.....	238	.....	9,163	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. A. L. Buffington	1391
1,153	.....	65	.....	1,392	.....	47	80	.....	Mrs. H. C. Clark	1392
10,135	.....	113	.....	15,550	.....	500	992	1,500	C. H. Johnson, treasurer	1393
3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	Wm. Gallagher, Ph. D.	1394
5,065	.....	172	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	Margaret F. Newell	1395
1,500	40	1	4	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. E. Sanborn, principal high school.	1396
1,300	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	30	.....	Henry J. Mills	1397
3,000	.....	150	.....	4,320	.....	100	100	3,000	A. L. Harwood	1398
1,425	.....	75	.....	3,000	.....	50	80	.....	P. L. Rankin	1399
1,400	.....	300	.....	9,200	.....	.....	796	19,950	Jennie H. Woodman	1400
10,112	.....	712	.....	54,933	.....	2,000	3,650	.....	Ellen L. Johnson	1401
12,000	50	1,200	25	54,000	.....	.....	6,150	100,000	Don C. Stevens	1402
1,500	150	20	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. C. Ramsay, A. B., A. M., principal.	1403
49,395	.....	2,003	65	109,343	61,021	7,000	11,148	.....	Wm. R. Ballard	1404
3,040	.....	277	.....	8,086	.....	.....	.....	3,000	Clara L. Davis	1405
30,000	.....	1,335	.....	57,095	4,378	5,000	7,269	.....	Prescott C. Rice	1406
5,800	.....	225	.....	11,461	.....	500	922	.....	Mary A. Fuller	1407
4,300	.....	200	.....	15,758	.....	450	594	1,500	M. D. Torry	1408
2,985	.....	239	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. E. Robbins	1409
18,101	.....	1,028	.....	42,564	.....	1,850	3,846	47,500	.....	1410
1,350	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1411
6,000	200	60	11	10,000	.....	700	897	2,500	Ella G. Campbell	1412
6,519	.....	338	.....	19,153	.....	500	2,309	18,000	Nelly S. Osgood	1413
8,744	.....	284	.....	7,843	.....	.....	1,300	32,763	Roger S. Howe, trustee	1414
1,559	1	87	1	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. H. L. Purple	1415

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1416	Gloucester	High School	1888	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1417	.....do	Gloucester Lyceum and Sawyer Free Library.	1872	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1418	Grafton	Public Library	1866	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1419	Great Barrington	Free Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1420	Greenfield	Franklin County Law Library	1878	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
1421	.....do	Free Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1422	.....do	Library Association	1855	Soc	O.	.....	S.	C.
1423	Groton	Groton School	1884	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1424	.....do	Lawrence Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	...
1425	.....do	Public Library	1854	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1426	Hadley	Young Men's Library Association.	1856	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1427	Halifax	Holmes Public Library	1876	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1428	Hamilton	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	C.	F.	C.
1429	Hanover	Free Library	1887	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1430	Hardwick	Free Town Library	1892	Gen	....	B.	F.	B.
1431	Harvard	Bromfield School	1876	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1432	.....do	Public Library	1856	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1433	Harwich	Brooks Free Library	1887	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
1434	Hatfield	Public Library	1872	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1435	Haverhill	Morse & Son's Circulating Library.	1870	Mer	R.	C.	S.	C.
1436	.....do	Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1437	Haydenville	Library Association	1884	Gen	O.	T.	S.	C.
1438	Hingham Center	Hingham Public Library	1869	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1439	Hinsdale	Public Library	1860	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
1440	Holbrook	.....do	1874	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1441	Holden	Gale Free Library	1889	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1442	Holliston	Public Library	1879	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1443	Holyoke	.....do	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1444	.....do	Teachers' Professional Library	1879	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1445	Hopedale	Public Library	1886	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1446	Hopkinton	.....do	1890	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1447	Hubbardston	.....do	1872	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1448	Hudson	.....do	1868	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1449	Hyannis	Hyannis Library	1867	Gen	R.	T.	S.	C.
1450	Hydepark	Public Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1451	Ipswich	Free Library	1868	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1452	Kingston	Library Association	1871	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1453	Lancaster	Town Library	1862	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1454	Lanesboro	.....do	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1455	Lawrence	Essex County Truant School	.....	A. & R	....	.....	....	...
1456	.....do	Free Public Library	1872	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1457	Lee	Public Library	1874	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1458	Leicester	.....do	1861	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1459	Lenox	Lenox Library	1855	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
1460	Leominster	Public Library	1856	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1461	Lexington	Cary Library	1868	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1462	Lincoln	Lincoln Library	1884	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
1463	Littleton	Reuben Hoar Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1464	Lowell	City Library	1844	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1465	.....do	Middlesex Mechanics' Association.	1833	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1466	.....do	Old Residents' Historical Association.	1868	Hist	....	C.	F.	R.
1467	.....do	Rectors' Library of St. Anne's Church.	1846	Theol	....	C.	....	B.
1468	.....do	St. Patrick's Sunday School	1864	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1469	Lunenberg	Public Library	1852	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1470	Lynn	Free Public Library	1862	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1471	.....do	Lander Post No. 5, G. A. R	1886	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1472	Lynnfield Center	Lynnfield Public Library	1892	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1473	Malden	High School	1857	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1474	.....do	Ladies' Exchange Circulating Library.	1886	Gen	R.	C.	....	C.
1475	.....do	Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1476	Manchaug	Sutton Branch Library	1882	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1477	Manchester	Public Library	1871	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,700	.....	37	.....	1,296	21,921	.....	$250	.....	A. W. Bacheler	1416
10,000	.....	300	.....	23,868	.....	.....	5,000	$120,000	Edw. Dollivar, clerk	1417
8,790	50	357	10	33,124	.....	.....	1,035	6,300	H. S. Nichols	1418
6,000	300	350	.....	1,500	.....	$500	650	.....	A. C. Collins	1419
7,000	.....	250	100	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Sam'l D. Conant, attorney at law.	1420
9,550	.....	940	.....	36,537	.....	.....	1,500	.....	Emma Tyler	1421
11,056	.....	423	52	6,000	.....	.....	750	11,000	.....	1422
2,000	.....	224	.....	.....	.....	.....	450	10,000	.....	1423
2,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1424
7,268	.....	486	.....	7,075	.....	859	1,113	4,500	Emma F. Blood	1425
2,517	.....	65	10	.....	.....	.....	99	.....	Franklin Bonney, M. D.	1426
2,600	.....	68	.....	1,595	25	.....	83	.....	James T. Thomas	1427
1,965	.....	233	.....	3,163	.....	.....	200	.....	Annie E. Woodbury	1428
3,356	55	548	7	7,060	.....	.....	419	.....	E. E. Sylvester	1429
1,500	.....	.....	.....	603	.....	.....	130	2,000	Hannah R. Spooner	1430
1,000	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lilla Frost, principal	1431
4,607	.....	95	.....	4,998	.....	.....	374	4,000	.....	1432
5,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1433
5,000	200	200	.....	.....	.....	300	300	.....	J. H. Sanderson	1434
1,500	.....	.....	.....	1,600	.....	.....	50	.....	.....	1435
58,000	2,000	2,207	102	80,392	.....	.....	10,600	120,000	Edward Capen	1436
1,500	200	25	12	1,968	.....	.....	89	.....	A. R. Thatcher	1437
10,000	.....	146	.....	13,155	.....	.....	1,200	23,000	Hawkes Fearing	1438
3,500	500	.....	200	5,000	1,000	300	310	.....	P. R. Birmingham	1439
7,244	.....	187	.....	12,979	.....	600	892	3,000	Sarah R. French	1440
4,189	.....	109	.....	6,273	343	200	200	.....	A. M. Holden	1441
5,336	33	184	6	14,574	.....	378	454	1,000	J. E. Rockwood	1442
18,000	.....	622	.....	46,692	.....	.....	3,250	.....	S. E. Ely	1443
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1444
5,079	.....	215	30	8,429	.....	.....	1,194	.....	Frank H. French	1445
3,000	.....	400	.....	8,300	.....	.....	1,800	2,500	Mary C. Holman	1446
5,625	.....	125	.....	5,558	.....	.....	225	.....	C. E. Marean	1447
8,000	.....	500	.....	24,000	2,000	325	770	.....	Grace M. Whittemore	1448
1,217	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	355	.....	.....	1449
14,250	.....	600	.....	33,578	4,310	1,850	2,691	.....	H. A. B. Thompson	1450
12,300	.....	200	.....	16,000	.....	.....	.....	30,000	Lyda A. Caldwell	1451
1,972	.....	40	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emma T. Ransom	1452
26,204	15,503	927	764	14,489	.....	.....	1,745	8,200	Alice G. Chandler	1453
1,800	.....	30	.....	2,000	.....	90	120	.....	Rev. C. J. Palmer	1454
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1455
44,713	6,900	6,236	509	109,444	10,381	.....	10,322	.....	Fred. H. Hedge	1456
4,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	400	431	.....	L. S. Rowland	1457
8,217	1,000	259	277	8,954	.....	.....	1,380	2,000	H. L. Watson	1458
11,000	.....	344	.....	7,286	.....	.....	625	5,000	R. Goodman, treasurer	1459
16,781	2,021	.....	.....	40,312	.....	1,200	2,386	7,000	J. M. Bronson	1460
15,290	85	403	.....	25,131	2,652	.....	3,113	13,000	Florence E. Whitcher	1461
6,000	.....	400	.....	4,300	.....	.....	1,095	7,000	H. A. Howes	1462
6,476	.....	292	40	5,846	.....	.....	.....	7,514	S. F. White	1463
53,825	.....	1,822	.....	128,800	16,554	3,229	17,665	.....	Fred. A. Chase	1464
20,000	500	100	200	5,000	1,000	.....	1,200	.....	Abbie G. Watson	1465
1,000	2,000	12	50	.....	.....	.....	185	.....	Clarence W. Whidden, secretary.	1466
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40	.....	A. St. John Chambré, rector.	1467
1,100	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	.....	1468
3,770	.....	197	.....	5,636	.....	233	263	500	L. Frances Jones	1469
51,991	4,941	2,237	400	119,549	36,404	.....	8,975	16,930	John C. Houghton	1470
1,205	.....	75	.....	1,500	.....	.....	112	.....	Chas. W. Cogin	1471
1,085	5	100	1	1,965	10	106	118	.....	Elizabeth W. Green	1472
1,500	100	50	.....	.....	2,500	.....	50	.....	Geo. E. Gay	1473
1,000	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jas. F. Webber	1474
28,000	6,200	2,083	230	98,658	7,592	.....	9,777	5,500	L. A. Williams	1475
1,324	.....	129	.....	2,900	.....	112	112	.....	John Holt, trustee	1476
8,200	200	297	26	11,115	210	.....	1,025	2,500	D. L. Bingham	1477

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1478	Mansfield	Public Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1479	Marblehead	Abbot Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1480	Marion	Tabor Academy	1889	Sch	....	C.	F.	R.
1481	Marlboro	Public Library	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1482	do	Unitarian Parish Library	1851	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1483	Marshfield	Free Library	1888	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1484	Marstons Mills	Public Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1485	Mattapan (station, Boston).	Boston Insane Hospital	.....	Gen	....	T.	....	C.
1486	Mattapoisett	Free Public Library	1881	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1487	Maynard	Public Library	1881	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1488	Medfield	do	1872	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1489	Medford	do	1856	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1490	Medway	Dean Library Association	1860	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1491	Melrose	Public Library	1871	Gen	R.	T. & C.	F.	B.
1492	Mendon	Taft Public Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1493	Merrimac	Public Library	1876	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1494	Methuen	Nevins Memorial Library	1885	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1495	Middleboro	Pratt Free School	1865	Sch	O.	C.	F.	B.
1496	do	Public Library	1874	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1497	Middleton	Flint Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1498	Milford	Thurber Medical Association	1859	Med	R.	C.	S.	B.
1499	do	Town Library	1858	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1500	Millbury	do	1864	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1501	Millis	Public Library	1886	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1502	Milton	Milton Academy	.....	Sch	.....	C.	.....	.....
1503	do	Public Library	1870	Gen	R.	.....	F.	B.
1504	Monson	Flynt and Packard Library of Monson Academy.	1840	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1505	do	Free Library	1878	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1506	Montague	Town Library	1869	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1507	Mount Hermon	Mount Hermon School	1884	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1508	Nahant	Public Library	1819	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1509	Nantucket	Coffin School Library	1827	Sch	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1510	do	Nantucket Athenæum	1834	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1511	Natick	Morse Institute	1862	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
1512	Needham	Free Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1513	New Bedford	do	1852	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1514	do	Friends' Academy	1812	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1515	do	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1516	do	Hutchinson's Circulating Library	1864	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
1517	do	Swain Free School	1882	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1518	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1867	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1519	New Braintree	Free Public Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1520	Newburyport	Lunt's Circulating Library	1880	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1521	do	Public Library	1854	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
1522	New Salem	do	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1523	Newton	Free Library	1869	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1524	Newton Center	Newton Theological Institution	1825	Theol	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1525	Norfolk	Public Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1526	North Abington	do	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1527	North Adams	do	1884	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1528	North Amherst	Public Library Association	1869	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1529	Northampton	Burnham School	1877	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
1530	do	Clarke School Library	1867	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1531	do	Forbes Library	1894	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1532	do	Hampshire County Law Library	1865	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
1533	do	Lunatic Hospital	1858	Asylum	....	C.	....	B.
1534	do	Public Library	1860	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1535	do	Smith College	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
1536	North Andover Depot.	North Andover Public Library	1875	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1537	North Attleboro	Richards Memorial Library	1869	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,832	.....	120	.....	10,296	.....	.....	$433	.....	Grace M. Cobb	1478
12,182	.....	395	.....	26,000	.....	$500	1,235	$1,500	Mary G. Brown	1479
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	D. M. Dustan, principal	1480
12,000	.....	428	.....	46,120	.....	2,000	2,080	850	Sarah E. Cotting	1481
3,200	150	85	25	1,253	.....	.....	160	1,000	J. V. Jackman	1482
2,477	.....	2,477	.....	.....	.....	300	805	.....	Rosa M. Sprague	1483
1,000	.....	50	.....	1,300	.....	.....	100	.....	M. E. Baxter	1484
1,070	.....	110	.....	497	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. Noyes, M. D	1485
2,622	.....	197	.....	6,027	.....	150	335	.....	L. L. B. Dexter, trustee	1486
4,160	.....	106	.....	40,000	100	300	300	.....	.....	1487
4,050	.....	100	.....	9,648	.....	349	424	1,500	Lucretia M. Johnsen	1488
18,000	.....	968	76	52,985	.....	.....	5,215	.....	Mary E. Sargent	1489
6,000	.....	200	.....	7,800	.....	.....	250	2,500	M. M. Fisher, president	1490
11,209	1,751	493	94	36,276	260	.....	1,600	2,900	E. H. Goss, trustee	1491
3,408	.....	113	.....	4,246	.....	175	185	.....	Sara F. Towne	1492
5,000	.....	182	.....	8,683	.....	500	534	200	Louise C. Brackett	1493
12,815	.....	307	.....	14,000	.....	.....	.....	140,000	.....	1494
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1495
6,892	.....	485	.....	23,751	.....	1,000	1,085	.....	A. K. Thatcher	1496
4,570	127	393	8	5,225	.....	.....	507	15,000	Samuel A. Fletcher	1497
1,200	.....	9	.....	32	50	.....	60	600	Chas. H. Cole, M. D	1498
9,772	.....	565	.....	28,756	.....	.....	1,291	.....	N. F. Blake	1499
8,000	.....	150	.....	15,000	.....	583	649	.....	Miss C. C. Waters	1500
2,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	210	.....	Mrs. J. C. Thorne	1501
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1502
11,000	.....	172	.....	13,378	.....	.....	2,202	.....	.....	1503
1,864	200	18	36	311	.....	.....	80	2,000	A. N. Burke, principal	1504
5,793	.....	300	.....	10,287	.....	300	1,387	30,000	Nellie F. Squier	1505
4,345	.....	189	.....	7,870	.....	275	371	.....	Kate A. Armstrong	1506
4,665	300	235	50	1,730	.....	.....	32	.....	Mary J. Miller, B. L	1507
9,800	.....	349	.....	8,741	155	1,200	1,200	.....	Caroline M. Johnson	1508
1,700	1,000	50	20	1,200	1,500	.....	200	4,000	E. B. Fox, principal	1509
7,500	.....	250	50	12,000	.....	217	1,553	23,364	Sarah F. Barnard	1510
17,500	.....	375	152	33,690	833	.....	2,000	15,494	Nellie L. Fox	1511
4,100	.....	200	.....	13,508	.....	250	822	.....	Riella J. Dunn	1512
70,000	10,000	2,462	356	108,128	.....	.....	12,999	66,100	R. C. Ingraham	1513
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1514
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. S. Moore, principal.	1515
2,454	498	.....	.....	26,970	.....	.....	1,341	.....	H. S. Hutchinson	1516
2,370	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Andrew Ingraham, master.	1517
3,506	.....	75	.....	625	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. A. Budd, general secretary.	1518
1,608	50	62	40	1,950	.....	100	105	.....	Carrie F. Bush	1519
1,500	1,000	100	75	.....	.....	.....	669	.....	Hannah E. Lunt	1520
31,261	3,000	708	.....	38,830	.....	.....	14,625	50,000	John D. Parsons	1521
2,200	.....	180	.....	1,680	.....	40	80	1,000	Venice M. Marshall	1522
49,775	.....	2,000	.....	164,341	.....	.....	16,425	.....	Elizabeth P. Thurston	1523
20,880	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	915	12,500	.....	1524
1,050	10	26	.....	1,072	.....	50	55	.....	Walter L. Sykes	1525
3,768	.....	.....	.....	9,094	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1526
14,270	679	440	123	58,170	.....	.....	4,726	.....	Miss C. Augusta Dunton	1527
1,920	200	50	128	5,000	.....	.....	225	.....	F. P. Ainsworth, treasurer.	1528
5,000	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1529
2,061	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Caroline A. Yale, principal.	1530
35,650	2,763	31,027	2,632	8,924	2,115	.....	21,018	.....	Chas. A. Cutter	1531
4,978	.....	376	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	.....	1532
3,274	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	I. M. Field	1533
28,347	.....	650	.....	56,753	.....	.....	5,200	50,000	Caroline S. Laidley	1534
6,000	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1535
8,000	400	466	175	19,000	.....	1,200	1,600	.....	M. H. Pulsifer, trustee	1536
5,000	300	200	.....	24,984	400	1,800	1,945	.....	Miss Irene W. Day	1537

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1538	North Billerica	Talbot Library Association	1880	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1539	Northboro	Free Library	1868	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1540	North Brookfield	Appleton Library	1857	Theol	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
1541	.....do	Free Public Library and Reading Room.	1880	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
1542	North Chelmsford	North Chelmsford Library	1872	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1543	North Easton	Ames Free Library	1883	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1544	Northfield	Public Library	1813	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1545	North Orange	Branch of Orange Free Public Library.	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1546	North Reading	Flint Library	1873	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
1547	North Scituate	Peirce Memorial Library	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1548	North Woburn	Rumford Historical Association	1845	Hist	....	C.	F.	B.
1549	Norton	Public Library	1886	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1550	.....do	Wheaton Seminary	1835	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1551	Norwell	James Library	1874	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
1552	Norwood	Public Library	1873	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1553	Orange	.....do	1859	Gen	....	T.	F.	R.
1554	Orleans	The Snow Library	1877	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
1555	Osterville	Public Library	1881	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1556	Oxford	Free Public Library	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1557	Palmer	Young Men's Library Association	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1558	Paxton	Free Public Library	1877	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1559	Peabody	Eben Dale Sutton Reference Library.	1869	Gen	....	C.	F.	R.
1560	.....do	Peabody Institute Library	1854	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1561	Pembroke	Free Library	1877	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1562	Pepperell	Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1563	Petersham	Memorial Library	1879	Gen	O.	C.	F	B.
1564	Phillipston	Phillips Free Public Library	1862	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1565	Pittsfield	Berkshire Athenæum	1876	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1566	.....do	Berkshire Law Library	1856	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
1567	.....do	Miss Salisbury's Family and Day School.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1568	Plymouth	Pilgrim Society's Library	1820	Hist	O.	C.	....	R.
1569	.....do	Plymouth County Law Library	1894	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
1570	.....do	Public Library	1856	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1571	Princeton	.....do	1884	Gen	O.	T.	Fr.	B.
1572	Provincetown	.....do	1874	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1573	Quincy	Thomas Crane Public Library	1871	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1574	Randolph	Ladies' Library Association	1855	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
1575	.....do	Turner Free Library	1876	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1576	Reading	Public Library	1867	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1577	Rehoboth	Blanding Library	1886	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1578	Revere	Public Library	1880	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1579	Rochester	Free Public Library	1876	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1580	Rockland	Public Library	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1581	Rockport	.....do	1871	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1582	Rowe	Town Library	1797	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1583	Rowley	Free Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1584	Roxbury	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
1585	.....do	Notre Dame Academy	1854	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1586	.....do	Roxbury Latin School	1645	Sch	....	C.	F.	R.
1587	Royalston	Public Library	1875	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1588	Rutland	Free Public Library	1867	Gen	....	T.	F.	R.
1589	Salem	American Association for the Advancement of Science.	1848	Scien	R.	C.	....	R.
1590	.....do	Charitable Mechanic Association	1817	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1591	.....do	Classical and High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1592	.....do	Essex Institute	1848	Scien	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1593	.....do	Essex South District Massachusetts Medical Society.	1804	Med	R.	C.	Fr.	R.
1594	.....do	Fraternity Lodge No. 118, I. O. O. F.	1870	I. O. O. F.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1595	.....do	Public Library	1888	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1596	.....do	Salem Athenæum	1810	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,535	240	29	58	2,564	25	.....	$233	.....	Lillie Bottomley	1538
9,142	.....	228	8	7,751	.....	.....	922	$4,625	Sarah E. Emery	1539
5,000	100	12	.....	.....	.....	.....	120	3,000	Rev. A. J. Dyer	1540
5,128	.....	88	.....	24,364	1,379	$1,500	1,500	.....	Mrs. Emma S. Ludden	1541
2,999	.....	163	.....	5,666	.....	.....	290	1,000	Emma J. Gay	1542
13,974	.....	143	.....	14,216	277	.....	1,350	40,000	Mary W. Lamprey	1543
4,013	.....	183	.....	4,378	.....	.....	234	.....	Mrs. F. J. Stockbridge	1544
1,076	.....	.....	.....	573	.....	.....	.....	3,000	Sara E. Rich	1545
4,024	20	149	.....	7,018	.....	60	237	3,000	Sarah H. Whitcomb	1546
2,041	500	17	125	2,430	.....	.....	97	139	Sarah J. Marsh	1547
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. B. Perkins	1548
4,000	471	166	25	5,619	.....	.....	600	.....	Miss E. A. Titus	1549
5,260	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edwin Barrows, treasurer.	1550
2,750	300	115	140	3,215	.....	.....	238	4,500	Joseph F. Merritt	1551
6,570	.....	229	.....	16,374	.....	.....	938	.....	F. P. Thompson	1552
1,517	.....	290	.....	22,267	.....	.....	600	.....	Mrs. W. M. Pomeroy	1553
3,200	.....	100	.....	5,880	.....	.....	295	4,500	Hiram Myers	1554
1,787	100	75	.....	12,000	.....	.....	350	.....	Bertha Lovell	1555
5,394	500	200	23	11,439	.....	430	2,696	.....	Mrs. C. A. Fuller	1556
4,290	.....	361	.....	12,273	.....	1,000	1,119	.....	Chas. B. Fiske	1557
1,558	.....	.....	.....	1,191	.....	.....	79	.....	Herbert S. Robinson	1558
3,062	.....	24	175	.....	.....	.....	.....	35,000	.....	1559
32,893	.....	608	.....	28,715	.....	.....	5,200	200,000	J. Warren Upton	1560
1,870	.....	64	.....	1,000	.....	.....	109	50	.....	1561
7,000	1,000	350	50	9,766	500	400	400	.....	M. F. Shattuck	1562
8,000	500	150	100	5,000	.....	.....	245	1,500	Mrs. Emerson Goddard	1563
4,903	200	160	25	4,650	.....	.....	160	5,000	Mrs. T. H. Chaffin	1564
24,000	4,000	1,000	500	60,000	.....	.....	6,000	65,000	H. H. Ballard	1565
6,000	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,200	.....	Chas. E. Burke	1566
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1567
1,200	1,800	15	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. B. Drew	1568
2,000	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	E. E. Hobart	1569
11,300	.....	643	29	30,280	.....	.....	2,173	9,267	Nellie Thomas	1570
3,900	.....	167	.....	4,314	.....	150	380	6,000	Susie A. Davis	1571
6,519	.....	298	.....	11,812	.....	500	1,070	5,000	Hattie M. Dyer	1572
18,500	.....	.....	88	70,075	.....	.....	.....	.....	Amelia L. Bumpus	1573
1,340	.....	20	.....	582	582	.....	55	.....	Sarah V. Wilde	1574
15,000	.....	358	.....	23,794	3,000	.....	1,524	30,000	Chas. C. Farnham	1575
7,704	.....	467	.....	21,165	.....	400	875	.....	L. S. Cox	1576
1,556	250	40	.....	990	.....	.....	27	.....	Wm. H. Marvel	1577
4,900	.....	300	.....	23,490	.....	1,000	1,040	.....	Hattie T. Fenno	1578
2,000	75	106	10	1,974	.....	.....	135	500	Sarah A. Haskell	1579
9,185	.....	257	.....	21,193	.....	1,469	1,530	.....	Amelia Pool	1580
2,550	.....	151	.....	1,500	.....	400	4,439	4,500	.....	1581
1,230	.....	190	.....	945	.....	25	25	.....	Mrs. Fred. W. Newell	1582
1,743	50	111	1	5,252	.....	163	176	.....	Catharine N. Mighill	1583
1,640	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Chas. M. Clay	1584
4,126	.....	34	.....	.....	.....	.....	102	.....	Sister Josephine Ignatius.	1585
2,500	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	280	6,000	Mr. O. M. Farnham	1586
1,735	.....	115	.....	918	.....	100	200	.....	Lizzie W. Chase	1587
1,643	50	74	.....	2,389	.....	.....	83	.....	Mrs. F. R. Foster	1588
2,341	6,493	75	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1589
5,747	.....	104	.....	2,652	110	.....	704	.....	G. Arthur Bodwell	1590
1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. L. Goodrich, principal.	1591
70,000	250,000	2,000	5,000	1,100	.....	.....	6,881	70,000	W. O. Chapman, treasurer.	1592
3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Hardy Tuppen, M. D.	1593
1,600	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	Will L. Welch	1594
31,775	.....	2,232	.....	108,071	.....	.....	13,009	35,000	Gardner M. Jones	1595
22,000	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1596

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1597	Salem	State Normal School	1854	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
1598	Sandwich	Free Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1599	Saugus	.....do	1887	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1600	Scituate	Satuit Library	1884	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1601	Sharon	Public Library	1879	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1602	Sheffield	Free Town Library	1892	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1603	Shelburne	Free Public Library	1892	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1604	Shelburne Falls	Arms Library	1854	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1605	Sherborn	Town Library	1860	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1606	Shirley	Public Library	1886	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1607	.....do	Shakers Community Library	1793	Soc	O.	C.	....	R.
1608	Shrewsbury	Free Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1609	Somerville	Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1610	Southampton	Social Library	1883	Soc	....	T.	S.	B.
1611	Southboro	Fay Library	1852	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1612	.....do	St. Mark's School	1865	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
1613	South Boston	Payne's Circulating Library	1869	Gen	R.	.....	S.	C.
1614	.....do	Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind.	1833	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1615	.....do	Suffolk County House of Correction.	1850	Reform	....	T.	....	B.
1616	.....do	Tollgate Circulating Library	.....	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
1617	South Braintree	Thayer Public Library	1874	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1618	Southbridge	Public Library	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1619	South Deerfield	.....do	1871	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1620	South Framingham	Reformatory Prison for Women	1878	Reform	....	.....	....	C.
1621	South Gardner	South Gardner Social Association	1841	Soc	....	T.	....	....
1622	South Hadley	Mount Holyoke College	1837	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
1623	South Natick	Bacon Free Library	1881	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1624	South Sudbury	Goodnow Library	1862	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1625	South Williamstown	Public Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F	B.
1626	South Yarmouth	Social Library	1869	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1627	Spencer	Richard Sugden Library	1857	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
1628	Springfield	Boston and Albany Railroad Library.	1869	Gen	....	C.	....	C.
1629	.....do	City Library Association	1857	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1630	.....do	Elons (The)	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
1631	.....do	French-American College	1885	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1632	.....do	Hampden County Law Library	1813	Law	....	C.	F.	R.
1633	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
1634	.....do	Historical Library of the American Young Men's Christian Associations.	1877	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1635	.....do	International Y. M. C. A. Training School.	1891	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1636	.....do	School for Christian Workers	1885	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1637	Sterling	Public Library	1871	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1638	Stockbridge	Library Association	1864	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1639	Stoneham	Free Public Library	1859	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1640	Stoughton	Public Library	1874	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1641	Stow	Randall Library	1893	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
1642	Sturbridge	Public Library	1873	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1643	Sunderland	Sunderland Library	1869	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1644	Sutton	Free Library	1875	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1645	Swansea	Public Library	1883	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1646	Taunton	Bristol County Law Library	1858	Law	....	C.	....	R.
1647	.....do	Old Colony Historical Society	1853	Hist	O.	C.	S.	R.
1648	.....do	Public Library	1866	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1649	.....do	Taunton Lunatic Hospital	1860	Gen	....	C.	....	R.
1650	Templeton	Boynton Public Library	1868	Gen	O.	C.	F.	C.
1651	.....do	Ladies' Social Circle Library	1847	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1652	Tewksbury	Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1653	.....do	State Almshouse Library	1860	State	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1654	Topsfield	Town Library	1875	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1655	Townsend	Public Library	1873	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dan. B. Hagar, Ph. D...	1597
1,200	.....	180	.....	.....	.....	$100	$274	.....	Alice P. Cooke, secretary.	1598
3,958	400	265	100	11,744	25	200	505	.....	Emma C. Newhall.....	1599
1,800	50	60	10	.....	1,350	.....	195	.....	Julia E. Webb	1600
4,444	.....	259	.....	10,364	.....	376	401	$800	Emma A. Baker.....	1601
1,000	.....	125	.....	4,800	.....	.....	185	1,000	Miss J. M. Dewey	1602
1,000	60	320	50	2,000	.....	.....	305	.....	Mercy A. Anderson....	1603
7,955	.....	104	.....	15,600	.....	.....	550	5,000	Mrs. Flora A. Halligon.	1604
4,900	200	200	20	.....	.....	.....	264	1,091	G. F. Gale	1605
2,040	100	150	25	3,706	.....	300	350	100	Mary J. Hazen, trustee.	1606
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John Whiteley, elder and trustee.	1607
3,950	.....	155	.....	7,210	.....	321	522	.....	Mabel E. Knowlton	1608
30,981	.....	4,010	200	68,231	.....	.....	9,417	.....	John S. Hayes.....	1609
3,000	500	50	10	.....	.....	100	125	.....	.....	1610
7,049	.....	201	.....	5,488	.....	189	422	1,500	Francena E. Buck.....	1611
3,100	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1612
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. B. Payne	1613
14,810	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	107,000	Miss S. E. Lane.....	1614
3,000	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jno. C. Whiton, master.	1615
1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Clarence Hallett	1616
10,877	.....	450	283	20,983	2,742	1,200	1,231	.....	.....	1617
15,921	821	419	48	19,752	.....	1,500	2,262	1,000	Harriet Stanley	1618
1,241	.....	41	.....	4,875	.....	.....	75	.....	J. M. Billings, treasurer	1619
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ellen Johnson, superintendent.	1620
1,371	105	5	13	25	.....	3	23	500	L. W. Brown	1621
16,000	.....	452	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	10,000	Miss Mary O. Nutting..	1622
4,600	1,000	35	50	4,500	.....	.....	450	13,000	Adelaide Williams	1623
12,000	700	100	40	14,000	.....	.....	850	20,000	H. H. Browne, treasurer	1624
1,000	8	50	.....	1,112	.....	.....	75	.....	.....	1625
1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. R. Farris	1626
9,735	.....	393	.....	27,135	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	1627
3,000	.....	.....	.....	2,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. L. Janes	1628
93,374	.....	3,504	900	119,000	27,000	.....	25,735	60,000	William Rice.....	1629
4,100	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Miss Charlotte W. Porter.	1630
1,500	1,000	600	400	500	.....	.....	500	.....	Z. Willis Kemp.....	1631
8,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	Robt. O. Morris.....	1632
1,898	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1633
1,093	5,500	.....	213	.....	903	.....	311	.....	J. T. Browne, custodian.	1634
1,390	4,010	92	135	.....	4,516	.....	.....	.....	J. T. Browne, dept. superintendent.	1635
2,375	1,500	125	50	4,800	.....	.....	97	350	M. E. Shanks	1636
6,000	.....	134	.....	5,962	.....	.....	336	6,500	Mary D. Peck	1637
7,000	.....	170	.....	7,700	.....	.....	885	1,700	Miss Carrie P. Wells....	1638
8,395	.....	56	7	20,145	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. H. Boyce	1639
6,041	.....	229	.....	26,835	.....	.....	769	.....	Mattie S. Hussey.....	1640
3,500	36	195	15	11,250	25	.....	508	1,200	Mrs. S. M. Lawrence....	1641
4,500	.....	150	.....	5,343	.....	200	200	.....	Mrs. F. A. Whittemore.	1642
2,778	.....	134	.....	4,959	.....	.....	193	2,200	Abbie T. Montague	1643
3,491	200	130	25	8,422	.....	.....	215	.....	Sarah M. Mills	1644
1,733	3,035	110	48	1,524	.....	.....	178	.....	Julia R. Wellington....	1645
5,000	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	.....	1646
4,000	1,800	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	1,000	James E. Scover.....	1647
40,540	.....	1,898	250	73,009	.....	.....	6,406	1,000	Joshua E. Crane.....	1648
2,900	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1649
4,851	.....	218	.....	13,825	.....	.....	612	10,000	H. F. Lane.....	1650
2,724	.....	40	.....	1,021	.....	.....	33	.....	Miss Lizzie E. Hadley ..	1651
4,617	.....	276	.....	6,191	.....	.....	.....	.....	Amry F. Coggin	1652
3,200	300	600	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Hebert B. Howard.....	1653
6,892	764	210	39	6,435	.....	.....	560	9,522	Dr. Justin Allen, trustee.	1654
2,942	.....	152	20	5,758	.....	256	307	500	Frances J. Worcester...	1655

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1656	Truro	Town Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1657	Tufts College	Tufts College	1854	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1658	.....do	Universalist Historical Library Association.	*1834	Theo	....	C.	F.	R.
1659	Turners Falls	Montague Public Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1660	Tyngsboro	Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1661	Upton	Town Library	1873	Gen	....	C.	F.	R.
1662	Uxbridge	Free Public Library	1875	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1663	Wakefield	Beebe Town Library	1856	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1664	Walpole	Public Library	1876	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1665	Waltham	Notre Dame Training School	1889	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1666	.....do	Public Library	1865	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1667	Ware	Young Men's Library Association.	1873	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1668	Wareham	Free Library	1891	Gen	R.	C.	F.	C.
1669	Warren	Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1670	Warwick	Free Library	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1671	Watertown	Free Public Library	1868	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1672	Waverley	McLean Hospital and Medical Library.	1834	Med	....	C.	....	B.
1673	Wayland	Free Public Library	1850	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1674	Webster	Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1675	Wellesley	Free Library	1881	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1676	.....do	Wellesley College	1875	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1677	Wellfleet	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1678	Wenham	Public Library	1857	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1679	West Acton	Citizens' Library Association	1883	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1680	Westboro	Free Public Library	1857	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1681	.....do	Lyman School for Boys	1848	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1682	West Boxford	Public Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1683	West Boylston	.....do	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1684	West Bridgewater	Howard Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1685	West Brookfield	Merriam Public Library	.....	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1686	Westfield	Normal School	1839	Sch	....	.....	.....	R.
1687	Westford	Public Library	1859	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1688	Westhampton	Reunion Town Library	1866	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1689	Westminster	Town Library	1868	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1690	West Newbury	Public Library	1895	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1691	West Newton	West Newton English and Classical School.	1854	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1692	Weston	Town Library	1857	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1693	West Springfield	Public Library	1854	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1694	West Stockbridge	Free Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1695	West Tisbury	Free Public Library	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1696	Weymouth	Tufts Library	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1697	Whately	Free Public Library	1872	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1698	Whitinsville	Social Library	1844	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1699	Whitman	Public Library	1880	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1700	Wilbraham	Wesleyan Academy	1835	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1701	Williamsburg	Williamsburg Library Association.	1877	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1702	Williamstown	Public Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C
1703	.....do	Williams College	1793	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1704	.....do	Philotechnian Society	1795	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1705	Wilmington	Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
1706	Winchendon	.....do	1858	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1707	Winchester	.....do	1859	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1708	Winthrop	.....do	1885	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1709	Woburn	.....do	1856	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1710	Worcester	American Antiquarian Society	1812	Hist	O.	C.	F.	R.
1711	.....do	City Hospital Library	1872	Med	....	C.	....	R.
1712	.....do	Clark University	1889	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1713	.....do	Classical High School	1880	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
1714	.....do	College of the Holy Cross	1844	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,177	300	409	177	500	300	.....	$91	.....	Mrs. Laurena A. Ryder.	1656
33,700	.....	1,816	5,600	3,912	.....	.....	.....	$25,000	H. L. Mellen	1657
4,000	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thos. J. Sawyer	1658
4,345	.....	250	.....	14,546	.....	$550	754	.....	N. P. Farwell	1659
4,089	.....	96	.....	2,394	.....	94	116	.....	E. L. Perham	1660
8,210	19	100	19	7,901	.....	.....	365	60	Mrs. Laura C. Sadler	1661
8,040	.....	345	.....	12,708	.....	1,200	2,025	5,000	Nettie B. Crocker	1662
12,157	.....	382	.....	21,849	1,195	200	1,024	4,000	Mrs. H. A. Shepard	1663
6,700	.....	300	.....	19,420	.....	.....	831	.....	.....	1664
3,200	80	240	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sister Georgiana, superintendent.	1665
23,000	.....	1,000	.....	50,000	.....	1,900	3,709	.....	Mrs. Mary E. Bill	1666
10,882	.....	.....	.....	24,714	.....	.....	1,025	.....	F. D. Gilmore	1667
1,600	.....	100	.....	7,471	.....	.....	200	.....	Fanny A. Sawyer	1668
9,136	.....	325	.....	13,922	.....	389	1,273	5,000	Jos. G. Hastings	1669
3,160	.....	115	.....	3,254	.....	.....	159	1,500	Clara A. Jones	1670
23,429	10,455	921	542	35,181	6,452	3,200	3,957	6,051	Solon F. Whitney	1671
5,700	.....	150	50	1,600	.....	.....	600	.....	Ed. Cowles, M. D., superintendent.	1672
12,374	.....	38	203	5,706	.....	.....	600	1,100	.....	1673
3,950	.....	400	.....	19,739	.....	1,500	1,566	.....	Henry A. Blake, secretary.	1674
9,194	.....	698	.....	16,422	.....	600	600	.....	Julia F. Jennings	1675
46,500	500	794	60	.....	.....	.....	4,420	.....	Lydia B. Godfrey	1676
1,973	50	193	12	4,587	.....	.....	299	.....	Mary O. Sparrow	1677
2,528	300	213	57	4,018	.....	.....	110	.....	Benj. H. Conant, secretary.	1678
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1679
9,834	.....	543	38	32,064	.....	.....	1,918	14,136	Martha J. Eastman	1680
1,703	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. M. Day, assistant superintendent.	1681
1,031	.....	51	.....	834	.....	.....	60	.....	Nellie Spofford	1682
4,779	.....	119	.....	6,978	.....	304	304	.....	.....	1683
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1684
6,709	.....	163	.....	6,961	.....	300	726	3,000	Charlotte E. Wilbur	1685
2,560	.....	50	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James C. Greenough	1686
8,564	380	495	34	12,093	.....	150	471	2,000	Carrie E. Read	1687
1,900	.....	69	.....	1,586	.....	69	102	500	Geo. E. Knight	1688
3,400	.....	175	.....	5,000	.....	300	319	.....	M. B. Hager	1689
2,334	91	198	70	10,687	70	410	429	.....	Caroline Carr	1690
4,000	250	30	8	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Nathaniel T. Allen	1691
9,923	.....	507	.....	9,303	.....	.....	1,225	7,400	Elizabeth S. White	1692
5,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	800	.....	Daniel G. White	1693
1,000	250	75	25	1,000	.....	.....	100	.....	Mrs. Julian Williams	1694
1,086	.....	167	.....	2,951	.....	100	100	.....	E. A. Davis, president	1695
17,126	.....	817	.....	64,771	.....	589	3,568	15,000	Caroline A. Blanchard	1696
1,945	.....	108	.....	.....	.....	.....	137	.....	Mary R. Gould	1697
5,602	.....	214	.....	12,579	.....	400	496	1,001	Arthur F. Whitin	1698
9,500	2,000	351	52	36,111	.....	1,800	1,947	.....	Miss E. S. Spilsted	1699
6,500	.....	1,500	.....	700	200	.....	1,100	.....	.....	1700
2,378	35	72	.....	1,350	.....	.....	88	2,000	Henry A. Bisbee, secretary.	1701
3,754	.....	.....	.....	8,314	.....	.....	496	.....	Miss Lucy F. Curtis	1702
38,750	17,000	1,250	275	.....	.....	.....	4,250	48,000	Chas. H. Burr	1703
4,500	.....	1	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1704
2,174	.....	135	.....	2,925	.....	150	179	.....	Francena A. Morse	1705
5,935	.....	270	.....	22,472	.....	1,112	1,112	.....	Theo. K. Parker, trustee	1706
11,198	.....	561	.....	42,734	.....	1,200	1,929	1,500	Cora A. Quimby	1707
3,820	.....	355	.....	12,250	.....	800	836	.....	David Floyd, trustee	1708
35,092	8,350	1,644	496	54,704	.....	.....	6,393	55,269	Wm. R. Cutter	1709
100,000	.....	908	10,260	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1710
1,000	850	20	24	.....	.....	.....	60	1,500	Chas. A. Peabody, superintendent.	1711
16,000	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,000	.....	Louis N. Wilson	1712
1,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	17	646	Frances Wheeler, principal assistant.	1713
21,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,650	.....	250	.....	Rev. A. Dufour, S. J.	1714

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.							
1715	Worcester	District Medical Library	1822	Med	....	C.	S.	B.
1716	.....do	Free Public Library	1859	Gen	O.	T.	F	B.
1717	.....do	Nelson Wheeler Library of Worcester Academy.	1891	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1718	.....do	State Normal School	1874	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1719	.....do	Throop's (Mrs.) School for Young Ladies and Children.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1720	.....do	Worcester County Horticultural Library.	1842	Sci	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1721	.....do	Worcester County Law Library	1842	Law	....	C.	F.	R.
1722	.....do	Worcester County Mechanics' Association.	1843	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
1723	.....do	Worcester Lunatic Hospital	1878	Asylum	....	C.	Fr.	C.
1724	.....do	Worcester Polytechnic Institute	1868	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1725	.....do	Worcester Society of Antiquity	1875	Hist	....	C.	F.	R.
1726	Wrentham	Public Library	1892	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1727	Yarmouth	Yarmouth Library Association	1866	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
	MICHIGAN.							
1728	Adrian	Adrian College	1870	Col	....	C.	....	R.
1729	.....do	Public School Library	1868	Sch	R.	T.	F.	B.
1730	.....do	State Industrial Home for Girls	.....	A. & R.	....	.....	.....	.....
1731	Agricultural College	Michigan Agricultural College	1857	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1732	Albion	Albion College	1861	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1733	.....do	Ladies' Library Association	1870	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
1734	.....do	Public School Library	1876	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1735	Allegan	Allegan Township Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
1736	Alma	Alma College	1889	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1737	.....do	Public School Library	1888	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1738	Alpena	Public Library	1876	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1739	Ann Arbor	Ladies' Library Association	1866	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1740	.....do	St. Thomas' Catholic Library	1873	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1741	.....do	School District Library	1856	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1742	.....do	Tappan Presbyterian Association, McMillan Hall.	1891	Theo	....	C.	F.	R.
1743	.....do	University of Michigan	1837	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
1744	.....do	Students' Christian Association.	1891	Col. Soc	O.	C.	....	B.
1745	Battle Creek	Battle Creek College	1875	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
1746	.....do	C. & G. T. R. R. Library	1886	Soc	....	C.	....	B.
1747	.....do	Public School Library	1870	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1748	Bay City	Public Library	1877	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1749	Bellevue	Bellevue Township Library	1846	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
1750	Benton Harbor	Benton Harbor College	1886	Col	....	C.	....	R.
1751	Benzonia	Benzonia College	1891	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1752	Big Rapids	Public School	1881	Sch	.....	.....	F.	R.
1753	Birmingham	Ladies' Library Association	1886	Soc	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1754	Buchanan	Buchanan Township Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1755	Cadillac	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1756	Calumet	Public Library	1880	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
1757	Cassopolis	Library Association	1871	Soc	....	C.	S.	C.
1758	Charlotte	Ladies' Library Association	1868	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1759	.....do	Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1760	Coldwater	Clarke Public Library	1881	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1761	.....do	State Public School Library	1874	A. & R.	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1762	Crystal Falls	Public School Library	1893	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
1763	Detroit	Detroit Bar Library Association	1867	Law	....	C.	S.	B.
1764	.....do	Detroit College, Students' Library	1878	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1765	.....do	Detroit Home and Day School	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
1766	.....do	Detroit Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
7,288	483	130	3	187	.....	.....	$530	$9,540	A. C. Getchell, M. D.	1715
105,000	.....	5,203	764	178,129	85,816	.....	31,132	61,775	Samuel S. Green	1716
2,200	300	150	30	.....	.....	.....	200	4,000	C. H. White	1717
9,540	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna P. Smith	1718
1,750	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary J. C. Throop	1719
3,000	200	40	.....	350	.....	.....	250	.....	Adin A. Hixon	1720
12,000	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. T. Harlow, clerk	1721
12,150	.....	456	.....	12,050	1,200	.....	.....	.....	Jeannette P. Babbitt	1722
2,900	100	200	100	6,500	.....	.....	.....	5,199	H. M. Jumley, superintendent.	1723
4,750	3,000	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Elizabeth K. Francis	1724
12,000	20,000	509	2,057	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. L. Hutchins, president.	1725
2,100	.....	125	.....	12,500	.....	$500	540	.....	Mary A. Smith	1726
4,401	.....	156	.....	3,975	.....	.....	300	6,000	Rev. Wm. H. Mayhew, trustee.	1727
6,000	.....	87	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1728
12,836	.....	1,515	.....	52,010	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Margaret F. Jewell	1729
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1730
18,000	.....	1,012	226	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	.....	1731
10,470	4,000	489	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. S. Taylor	1732
2,463	.....	109	.....	5,500	.....	.....	107	.....	Juliet B. Gemberling	1733
2,000	1,500	200	200	5,000	10,000	75	175	.....	Warren C. Hull	1734
1,000	.....	115	.....	.....	.....	.....	125	.....	E. A. Ferris	1735
14,233	10,809	401	109	4,833	7,613	.....	641	.....	Lizabeth B. Case	1736
1,481	.....	.....	.....	528	.....	150	218	.....	Ralph C. Ely	1737
3,163	234	476	.....	12,304	.....	600	600	.....	Emily E. Oliver	1738
3,384	.....	83	.....	2,175	.....	.....	312	1,000	Mrs. Marie J. Root	1739
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. E. D. Kelly	1740
5,112	.....	126	.....	13,235	.....	.....	400	.....	Nellie S. Loving	1741
6,400	.....	300	.....	.....	3,741	.....	.....	.....	Ida C. Finney	1742
98,707	17,241	6,479	904	6,469	122,352	.....	15,000	30,000	Raymond C. Davis	1743
1,500	100	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	C. H. Winkenwerder	1744
2,500	1,000	700	100	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	A. W. Kelley, A. M., Ph. D., M. D.	1745
1,800	.....	75	.....	1,000	.....	.....	150	.....	F. P. Condon, secretary	1746
14,130	.....	709	270	42,770	.....	321	751	10,000	Fannie A. Brewer	1747
15,966	.....	779	.....	46,030	.....	.....	3,642	.....	Annie F. Parsons	1748
1,300	.....	100	.....	1,040	.....	.....	124	.....	Mrs. Frank Morten	1749
1,980	500	80	25	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	G. J. Edgcumbe, A. M., Ph. D., principal.	1750
5,222	1,029	236	138	.....	.....	.....	35	.....	Edson L. Whitney	1751
1,800	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	Esse Osgood	1752
1,850	100	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	1753
1,610	.....	15	.....	4,000	100	100	131	.....	W. F. Runner	1754
1,200	200	250	100	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Geo. R. Catton, superintendent.	1755
3,800	.....	2,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	900	.....	James James	1756
1,275	.....	30	.....	500	.....	.....	50	.....	Mrs. J. L. Yost, corresponding secretary.	1757
1,860	.....	150	200	.....	.....	.....	225	.....	Mrs. Geo. Sherwood	1758
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sarah N. Williams	1759
13,585	.....	3,000	160	18,408	220	1,672	1,749	.....	Florence M. Holmes	1760
1,200	200	150	.....	500	.....	.....	100	.....	A. F. Murray, superintendent.	1761
1,000	.....	50	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. W. Mickens	1762
8,100	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. A. Norton	1763
1,450	1,050	10	.....	950	.....	.....	12	.....	Mr. F. J. Kemphries, S. J.	1764
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1765
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Hattie B. Pope, assistant principal.	1766

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MICHIGAN—cont'd.							
1767	Detroit	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1768	.....do	House of Correction	1861	Reform	....	C.	....	C.
1769	.....do	Post Library, Fort Wayne	1865	Gar	....	C.	F.	B.
1770	.....do	Public Library	1865	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1771	.....do	Springwells School District Library, No. 1.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
1772	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library, Railroad Department.	1876	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
1773	.....do	Young Men's Sodality of St. Joseph's Church.	.....	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1774	Dowagiac	Ladies' Library Association	1872	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1775	Eaton Rapids	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1776	Escanaba	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1777	Fenton	Ladies' Library Association	1869	Social	....	C.	S.	B.
1778	Flint	Michigan School for the Deaf	1854	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1779	.....do	Public Library	1855	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1780	Flushing	Ladies' Library Association	1873	Gen	R.	T.	S.	C.
1781	Grand Haven	Akeley Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1782	.....do	Public School Library	1874	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1783	Grand Rapids	Ladies' Literary Club	1873	Soc	....	C.	....	B.
1784	.....do	Law Library	1886	Law	....	C.	S.	B.
1785	.....do	Medical Library Association	1894	Med	R.	C.	S.	R.
1786	.....do	Public School Library	1861	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1787	Hancock	.....do	1876	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1788	Hastings	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1789	Hillsdale	Hillsdale College	1854	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
1790	.....do	City Library	.....	.....	....	C.	....	....
1791	.....do	Ladies' Library Association	1879	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
1792	Holland	Graves' Library of Hope College	1866	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1793	.....do	Holland Township Library	1852	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1794	Holly	Ladies Library	1871	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
1795	Houghton	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1796	.....do	Michigan Mining School	1886	Sci	....	T.	F.	B.
1797	.....do	Portage Township Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1798	Howell	Ladies' Library Association	1875	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
1799	Ionia	.....do	1876	Gen	....	.....	S.	B.
1800	.....do	State House of Correction and Reformatory.	1873	Reform	....	C.	....	C.
1801	Iron Mountain	Public School Library	1888	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1802	Ironwood	City Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1803	.....do	.....do	1888	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1804	Ishpeming	City Library	1875	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1805	Jackson	Free Public Library	1885	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1806	.....do	Michigan State Prison	1880	Sch	....	C.	....	C.
1807	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1808	Jonesville	Ladies' Library Association	1874	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
1809	Kalamazoo	Kalamazoo College	1833	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1810	.....do	Kalamazoo County Law Library	1870	Law	....	T.	Fr.	R.
1811	.....do	Ladies' Library Association	1853	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
1812	.....do	Michigan Female Seminary	1837	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
1813	.....do	Public Library	1860	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
1814	Lake Linden	Township Library	1876	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
1815	Lansing	Industrial School for Boys	.....	A. and R.	....	.....	....	B.
1816	.....do	Michigan School for the Blind	1881	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1817	.....do	Michigan State Library	1828	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1818	.....do	Public School Library	1882	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1819	.....do	State Board of Health	1873	Med	....	.....	F.	B.
1820	Lowell	School Library, District No. 1	1857	Sch	R.	T.	F.	B.
1821	Ludington	Public School Library	1876	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1822	Manistee	.....do	1886	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,192	20	36	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Eleanor S. Candler	1767
3,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Joseph Nicholson, superintendent.	1768
1,000	420	25	25	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank McIntyre, first lieutenant and adjutant Nineteenth Infantry.	1769
139,360	.....	12,033	.....	348,409	347,224	$40,526	$49,192	.....	H. M. Utley	1770
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1771
1,669	.....	.....	.....	983	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. G. Jenkins, R. R. Secretary.	1772
1,300	.....	.....	.....	3,799	.....	.....	145	.....	Rev. J. S. Mies	1773
1,652	.....	52	.....	2,623	.....	.....	107	.....	Mrs. A. ReShore	1774
2,052	.....	.....	.....	5,021	280	450	458	.....	N. A. Strong, secretary	1775
1,600	500	100	200	5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. S. Beggs, superintendent.	1776
1,100	.....	24	.....	.....	.....	.....	45	.....	Ella M. Williams	1777
4,081	250	65	.....	11,287	.....	.....	250	.....	F. D. Clarke	1778
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1779
1,500	.....	44	.....	.....	.....	.....	54	.....	Mrs. H. E. Nye	1780
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1781
3,123	150	.....	.....	11,758	.....	200	276	.....	Isabel M. Thomson	1782
1,255	300	45	200	385	.....	.....	25	.....	Carrie B. Jewett	1783
5,400	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,354	.....	Mark Norris	1784
1,625	870	.....	.....	.....	3,557	.....	1,144	.....	Bessie S. Nitham	1785
41,381	1,900	1,390	326	182,515	2,953	.....	8,000	.....	.....	1786
1,430	700	250	120	17,500	.....	50	265	.....	H. Z. Brock	1787
1,650	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1788
9,100	4,000	96	75	5,500	3,000	.....	600	$8,000	John H. Wolfe	1789
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1790
1,930	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	66	245	.....	Kate A. Russell	1791
9,000	1,000	300	100	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	C. Doesburg	1792
1,000	.....	120	.....	1,555	.....	35	115	.....	Albertus Van der Haar.	1793
1,310	.....	31	.....	.....	.....	.....	138	.....	Edith M. Allen	1794
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1795
11,200	1,524	663	388	1,021	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1796
1,000	.....	20	.....	1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	B. Margaret Sauce	1797
1,000	100	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	75	.....	Miss Mollie A. Burt	1798
1,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Hattie McMullen	1799
2,000	800	500	200	.....	.....	.....	750	.....	Geo. Dysinger, superintendent.	1800
2,100	300	100	100	75	25	.....	500	.....	T. W. Paton	1801
3,186	50	264	.....	6,500	.....	.....	600	.....	H. Susie Bates	1802
1,650	.....	200	.....	4,500	.....	350	350	.....	Callie Mace	1803
4,640	261	274	100	8,584	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. W. Fiske	1804
16,144	.....	1,963	.....	82,171	.....	.....	5,588	.....	C. F. Waldo	1805
3,000	.....	426	.....	.....	.....	.....	350	.....	Geo. N. Howe, superintendent.	1806
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1807
2,574	200	44	50	1,050	.....	.....	109	.....	Sarah Sinclair	1808
5,996	3,087	70	87	.....	.....	.....	155	.....	S. G. Jenks	1809
1,400	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	200	200	.....	Geo. M. Buck	1810
3,854	.....	26	2	.....	.....	.....	283	.....	Laura Wilson	1811
2,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	12	.....	.....	1812
22,300	.....	1,100	.....	52,000	.....	3,000	3,000	.....	.....	1813
1,000	1,000	252	72	1,200	250	97	512	.....	Eucharisto Brule	1814
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. E. St. John, superintendent.	1815
1,000	500	164	80	48	.....	.....	385	.....	Vernon J. Willey, principal.	1816
65,000	1,005	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. C. Spencer	1817
8,000	.....	100	.....	27,858	.....	500	1,100	.....	Mrs. A. F. Cady	1818
8,000	2,000	380	100	100	25	.....	.....	.....	Henry B. Baker, secretary.	1819
3,000	100	230	45	14,000	200	560	560	.....	Mrs. L. R. Robinson	1820
2,500	36	.....	.....	20,000	300	.....	29	.....	Kate S. Hutchins	1821
1,800	.....	150	.....	5,200	.....	.....	442	.....	Lillian Brownrigg	1822

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MICHIGAN—cont'd.							
1823	Manistique	School Library, District No. 1	1892	Sch	R.	C.	F.	B.
1824	Marquette	White Public Library	1891	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1825	Marshall	High School	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
1826	----do	Ladies' Library Association	1869	Gen	----	C.	S.	B.
1827	----do	Public School Library	1884	Sch	----	T.	----	B.
1828	Mendon	Mendon Township Free Public Library.	1889	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1829	Menominee	City Library	1873	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1830	Midland	Public School Library	----	Sch	----	C.	F.	C.
1831	Monroe	City Library	1837	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1832	----do	St. Mary's Academy	1862	Sch	----	C.	----	B.
1833	Mount Clemens	Public Library	1891	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
1834	Muskegon	Hackley Public Library	1890	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1835	Negaunee	Public Library	1860	Gen	----	T.	F.	C.
1836	Niles	Public School Library	1880	Sch	----	T.	F.	B.
1837	North Detroit	Hamtramck Township Library	----	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
1838	Northville	Ladies' Library Association	1888	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
1839	Norway	High School	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
1840	Olivet	Olivet College	1847	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
1841	----do	Walton Township Library	1880	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
1842	Opechee	School Library	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
1843	Orchard Lake	Michigan Military Academy	1877	Sch	----	C.	Fr.	B.
1844	Oscoda	Wood's Reading Room	1882	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1845	Otsego	Ladies' Library Association	1873	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1846	Owosso	Ladies' Library and Literary Association.	1867	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
1847	----do	Public School Library	----	Sch	----	T.	F.	B.
1848	Pentwater	Pentwater Township Library	1873	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1849	Petoskey	District Library	1893	Sch	----	T.	F.	C.
1850	----do	Graves Normal School	1888	Sch	----	C.	----	R.
1851	Plainwell	Ladies' Library Association	1868	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1852	Plymouth	Union School	----	Sch	----	C.	F.	B.
1853	Pontiac	Eastern Michigan Asylum	1893	Asylum	----	T.	----	C.
1854	----do	High School	1870	Sch	----	T.	F.	B.
1855	----do	Ladies' Library Association	1882	Gen	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
1856	Port Huron	----do	1865	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1857	----do	Public Library	----	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1858	----do	St. Clair County Bar Library	1888	Law	R.	C.	S.	R.
1859	Republic	Township Library	1876	Gen	----	T.	F.	C.
1860	Ridgeway	Hall Memorial Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1861	Saginaw East Side	Hoyt Public Library	1883	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
1862	----do	Public Library	1873	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1863	Saginaw West Side	German Lutheran Seminary	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
1864	----do	Public and Union School District Library.	1855	Sch	----	T.	F.	B.
1865	----do	Teutonia Library	1868	Soc	O.	C.	S.	C.
1866	St. Clair	Ladies' Library	1869	Gen	----	C.	S.	B.
1867	St. Johns	Ladies' Library Association	1871	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1868	St. Joseph	City Library	1886	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
1869	Sault Ste. Marie	Public Library	1850	Sch	----	C.	S.	B.
1870	Sturgis	Township Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1871	Tecumseh	Public School Library	1895	Sch	R.	T.	F.	----
1872	Three Rivers	Free Public Library	1886	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1873	Traverse City	Ladies' Library Association	1869	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
1874	West Bay City	High School	----	Sch	----	C.	----	----
1875	----do	Sage Public Library	1884	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1876	Whitehall	Township Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
1877	Wyandotte	Public Library	1880	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
1878	Ypsilanti	Ladies' Library	1868	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
1879	----do	Public School Library	----	Sch	----	T.	F.	C.
1880	----do	State Normal School	1853	Col	----	T.	Fr.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,278	.....	200	.....	5,897	.....	.....	$130	.....	W. H. Hill	1823
9,699	1,624	756	280	26,608	11,658	$2,887	3,867	.....	Rose E. Patenaude	1824
1,692	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1825
4,000	.....	100	.....	120	.....	.....	371	.....	.....	1826
1,650	.....	83	.....	6,000	1,000	.....	200	.....	Gertrude B. Smith	1827
1,962	.....	302	.....	7,369	.....	562	568	.....	Mrs. C. A. Calkins	1828
3,864	.....	800	.....	20,000	200	1,000	1,020	.....	Jas. H. Walton	1829
1,000	.....	24	.....	1,841	.....	.....	13	.....	Mrs. L. H. Wood	1830
3,669	400	212	150	10,371	4,700	.....	518	.....	Miss A. E. Yardley	1831
2,927	.....	88	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1832
2,868	.....	254	.....	29,735	.....	500	540	.....	Stella A. Widing	1833
21,412	700	1,004	368	60,817	5,472	982	5,189	$75,000	Julia S. Wood	1834
2,000	.....	10	.....	5,000	25	250	250	.....	N. J. Foley	1835
2,165	500	100	52	2,000	450	100	205	.....	J. D. Schiller	1836
2,000	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	67	.....	Michael G. Kullman	1837
2,000	40	100	.....	5,326	.....	.....	479	.....	President of Ladies' Library Association.	1838
1,133	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1839
25,000	.....	1,200	150	.....	.....	.....	1,916	15,000	Joseph L. Daniels	1840
1,191	.....	181	.....	.....	.....	.....	133	.....	M. A. Hance, town clerk	1841
2,020	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1842
10,000	.....	.....	.....	500	200	.....	.....	.....	J. Sumner Rogers	1843
1,500	500	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	1,500	Edwin F. Holmes, secretary.	1844
1,000	200	75	12	900	900	.....	189	.....	Mrs. S. D. Hains	1845
2,800	50	92	.....	4,993	.....	.....	217	.....	Georgia E. Colt, secretary.	1846
1,000	50	.....	.....	2,000	300	.....	125	.....	E. T. Austin, principal	1847
1,760	.....	250	.....	.....	.....	100	140	.....	D. J. Halstead, clerk	1848
1,300	100	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. M. Andrus, superintendent.	1849
1,000	100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. O. Graves	1850
1,707	.....	73	.....	1,707	1,707	.....	85	.....	Mrs. Jennie M. Clement	1851
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	31	.....	J. A. Beddow	1852
1,671	.....	150	.....	.....	2,000	.....	1,000	.....	J. E. Lapham	1853
2,000	200	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	F. E. Converse, superintendent.	1854
2,400	.....	89	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. C. P. Stewart	1855
3,900	.....	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	220	2,000	Helen W. Farrand, president.	1856
2,500	300	50	75	12,500	400	1,128	1,407	.....	Anna A. Manwaring	1857
9,000	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rose Sullivan	1858
1,896	.....	265	.....	.....	.....	300	300	.....	.....	1859
1,500	.....	12	.....	1,139	.....	.....	156	2,500	T. H. Temple, president	1860
24,000	400	458	.....	.....	39,032	.....	4,000	50,000	Harriet H. Ames	1861
11,163	477	320	22	40,868	361	1,000	1,555	.....	Wm. F. Denfeld, secretary.	1862
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1863
8,125	.....	125	.....	36,500	1,200	.....	600	.....	Edith A. Barnard	1864
1,825	150	.....	.....	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ama Rose	1865
1,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Grace K. Jenks	1866
2,662	.....	120	.....	3,574	.....	.....	199	300	.....	1867
2,081	100	255	50	6,002	.....	.....	242	.....	Geo. W. Loomis	1868
1,500	200	6	40	3,500	1,500	.....	50	.....	Joanna Kemp	1869
5,500	1,000	300	.....	.....	.....	1,200	1,200	.....	.....	1870
1,800	.....	115	.....	15,000	.....	443	489	.....	Gertrude J. Huey	1871
4,818	2,592	253	.....	17,967	.....	1,567	1,966	.....	E. B. Linsley, president of board.	1872
1,600	.....	100	.....	2,476	.....	.....	100	.....	Mrs. O. P. Carver	1873
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1874
25,000	600	3,000	130	36,727	6,402	.....	4,071	.....	.....	1875
1,124	.....	110	.....	9,100	.....	150	183	.....	Mrs. Helen D. Hedges	1876
3,156	100	80	.....	.....	80	300	433	.....	F. E. Welsh, secretary	1877
4,300	.....	165	.....	6,651	.....	.....	426	.....	Mrs. Lucy B. Loomis	1878
2,532	.....	208	.....	1,221	450	100	184	.....	M. A. Whitney, superintendent.	1879
16,150	536	1,072	50	38,000	96,000	.....	.....	.....	G. M. Walton	1880

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MINNESOTA.							
1881	Albert Lea	Albert Lea College	1885	Col	....	C.	....	B.
1882	Alexandria	High School	1885	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1883	Austin	Library Association	1869	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1884	Blue Earth City	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
1885	Collegeville	St. John's University	1857	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
1886	Duluth	Central High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1887	.....do	Duluth Bar Library Association	1889	Law	R.	C.	S.	B.
1888	.....do	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1889	Fairmont	.....do	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1890	Faribault	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
1891	.....do	Public Library	1875	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
1892	.....do	School for the Deaf	1866	Gen	....	T.	....	B.
1893	.....do	Seabury Divinity School	1858	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1894	.....do	Shattuck School	1866	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1895	Fergus Falls	High School	1892	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
1896	Glencoe	Stevens Seminary	1880	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1897	Hamline	Hamline University	1854	Col	....	C.	....	....
1898	Hastings	Public School Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1899	Luverne	Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1900	Mankato	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1901	.....do	Public Library and Reading Room	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1902	.....do	State Normal School	1869	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1903	Minneapolis	Augsburg Seminary (Idun Library).	1876	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
1904	.....do	Guaranty Building Company Law Library.	1890	Law	....	C.	....	R.
1905	.....do	Minneapolis Bar Association Library.	1883	Law	....	C.	S.	B.
1906	.....do	New York Life Law Library	1890	Law	....	C.	....	R.
1907	.....do	Public Library	1889	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
1908	.....do	Stanley Hall	1890	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
1909	.....do	Teachers' Library	1893	Gen	....	C.	....	C.
1910	.....do	University of Minnesota	1869	Col	O.	C.	F.	R.
1911	.....do	Medical Library	1880	Med	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1912	Montevideo	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1913	Moorhead	Public School Library	1875	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1914	.....do	State Normal School	1888	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1915	New Ulm	Turnverein Library	1858	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
1916	Northfield	Carleton College	1867	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
1917	.....do	Goodsell Observatory Library	1876	Scien	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1918	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
1919	.....do	St. Olaf College	1874	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
1920	Owatonna	High School	1888	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
1921	.....do	Pillsbury Academy	1878	Sch	....	C.	....	....
1922	Red Wing	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1923	.....do	State Training School	1869	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1924	Redwood Falls	Public School Library	1890	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
1925	Rochester	German Library	1872	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
1926	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1927	.....do	Public Library	1866	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
1928	.....do	Rochester State Hospital	1880	Asylum	....	T.	Fr.	C.
1929	St. Cloud	High School	1876	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
1930	.....do	Minnesota State Reformatory	.....	A. & R.	....	.....	.....	.....
1931	.....do	Public Library and Reading Room	1872	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
1932	.....do	State Normal School	1869	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
1933	St. James	Public School Library	1878	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
1934	St. Joseph	St. Joseph's Library	1865	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	C.
1935	St. Paul	Baldwin Seminary	1853	Sch	R.	C.	....	R.
1936	.....do	Cleveland High School	1886	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
1937	.....do	Edward Neill Library of Macalester College.	1885	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
1938	.....do	High School	1875	Sch	....	C.	....	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,500	500	12	180	.....	.....	$100	$100	.....	.....	1881
1,200	50	150	25	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	J. E. Phillips	1882
2,900	.....	178	.....	2,596	.....	.....	206	.....	Mrs. H. H. Kent	1883
1,050	200	100	12	1,125	.....	20	42	.....	V. R. Wasson, superintendent.	1884
11,000	2,000	350	100	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alexius Hoffmann	1885
1,500	.....	125	.....	700	.....	.....	.....	$400	.....	1886
6,000	14	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Myrtil M. Hicks	1887
20,842	.....	4,610	354	122,845	.....	12,459	12,899	.....	Angie Neff	1888
1,400	50	125	12	.....	.....	350	360	.....	Miss Minnie Bird	1889
1,000	.....	8	.....	725	.....	.....	15	.....	G. M. Wilcox, principal	1890
5,000	.....	13	62	2,820	.....	.....	62	.....	Mrs. T. A. Davis	1891
1,563	.....	155	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Louis C. Tuck	1892
8,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	125	1,200	Alford A. Butler	1893
3,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Miss C. L. Dudley	1894
1,000	500	150	.....	1,500	.....	.....	270	.....	C. A. Ballard, superintendent.	1895
2,600	100	600	40	5,000	1,000	.....	400	.....	E. E. McIntire	1896
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1897
4,900	2,000	200	.....	4,200	.....	.....	250	.....	.....	1898
1,612	600	147	56	6,538	.....	300	315	.....	Mrs. W. N. Davidson	1899
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1900
2,808	.....	808	.....	32,354	.....	2,000	2,080	.....	Minnie McGraw	1901
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. L. Searing, clerk	1902
1,500	.....	23	.....	.....	.....	.....	73	.....	.....	1903
10,000	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. K. Belden	1904
9,500	.....	232	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,850	.....	Edw. S. Waters	1905
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jessie T. Morgan	1906
84,000	1,000	11,197	67	450,588	250,000	49,492	57,236	200,000	James K. Hosmer	1907
1,800	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	1908
6,000	.....	300	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Blanche Grimshaw	1909
39,909	.....	3,050	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. W. Folwell	1910
1,035	.....	11	.....	2,470	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary Edith Brown	1911
1,525	200	420	25	6,400	.....	303	378	.....	Margaret E. Webb	1912
3,500	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	300	300	.....	John F. Giles	1913
2,000	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. C. Lord	1914
2,000	1,000	47	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edward Petry	1915
12,500	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,750	14,000	C. H. Cooper	1916
1,300	500	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. W. Payne, director	1917
1,500	.....	200	.....	3,500	500	.....	.....	.....	E. G. Adams	1918
1,410	400	108	101	740	.....	.....	193	123	O. G. Felland	1919
1,600	75	.....	.....	996	.....	50	50	.....	L. H. Ford, superintendent.	1920
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1921
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Miss Henrietta Richter	1922
2,000	200	1,000	40	.....	100	.....	1,000	.....	.....	1923
1,500	200	1,000	100	1,425	600	.....	110	.....	J. L. Torrens	1924
1,000	30	10	25	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Robt. Riebe, trustee	1925
1,469	.....	98	.....	4,476	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mabel E. Peck	1926
3,469	.....	151	.....	16,542	.....	700	10,909	.....	Mrs. S. P. Edgar, secretary.	1927
1,000	.....	100	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Arthur F. Kilbourne	1928
1,000	40	50	10	800	200	.....	250	.....	S. S. Parr	1929
1,681	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1930
3,639	.....	347	10	16,202	.....	1,200	1,585	.....	Mrs. M. E. Brick	1931
3,980	300	300	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. R. Kleeberger, president.	1932
1,350	.....	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	M. H. Manuel, superintendent.	1933
1,500	150	50	15	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sisters of St. Benedict	1934
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	.....	C. J. Backus	1935
1,122	66	35	16	.....	860	.....	400	.....	S. A. Farnsworth, principal.	1936
6,000	200	600	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James Wallace, professor of Greek.	1937
2,800	200	60	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. J. Newson, teacher English literature.	1938

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MINNESOTA—cont'd.							
1939	St. Paul	Minnesota Historical Society	1849	Hist		T.	F.	R.
1940	do	Minnesota State Board of Health	1872	State	R.	C.		R.
1941	do	Public Library	1881	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1942	do	St. Paul Seminary		Theo		C.		
1943	do	State Law Library	1849	Law		State.	F.	R.
1944	do	Stryker Seminary		Sch		C.		
1945	do	Visitation Convent	1873	Sch		C.		R.
1946	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1856	Y. M. C. A.		C.	Fr.	B.
1947	St. Peter	Gustavus Adolphus College	1876	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
1948	Sauk Center	Bryant Library Association	1879	Gen		T.	F.	C.
1949	Stillwater	Library Association	1868	Gen	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
1950	do	Public School Library	1891	Sch		T.		B.
1951	Wabasha	Ladies' Library Association	1871	Gen	R.	C.	S.	
1952	Waseca	Public School Library	1870	Sch		T.	F.	B.
1953	Willmar	Willmar Seminary	1883	Col		C.	F.	R.
1954	Winona	Free Public Library	1865	Gen		T.	F.	B.
1955	do	State Normal School	1858	Sch		C.		B.
	MISSISSIPPI.							
1956	Agricultural College	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	1880	Col		State.		R.
1957	Bay St. Louis	St. Stanislaus College	1854	Col		C.	S.	B.
1958	Blue Mountain	Blue Mountain Female College	1873	Col		C.	S.	R.
1959	Byhalia	Waverly Institute	1880	Sch			S.	C.
1960	Clinton	Lesbian Society of Hillman College	1853	Col. Soc		C.	Fr.	B.
1961	do	Mississippi College	1862	Col		C.	Fr.	R.
1962	do	Hermenian Society	1853	Col. Soc		C.	Fr.	B.
1963	do	Philomathean Society	1852	Col. Soc		C.	S.	B.
1964	Columbus	Mississippi Industrial Institute and College.	1886	Col		T.	Fr.	R.
1965	do	Public Library	1873	Gen		C.	S.	B.
1966	Crystal Springs	Graded School Library	1894	Sch		C.	S.	B.
1967	Daleville	Cooper Huddleston College		Col		C.		
1968	Edwards	Southern Christian Institute	1884	Sch		C.	F.	B.
1969	Harpersville	Harpersville College	1873	Sch		C.	Fr.	R.
1970	Hebron	High School	1889	Sch		C.	F.	C.
1971	Holly Springs	Rust University	1868	Col		C.		
1972	do	State Normal School	1871	Sch			Fr.	B.
1973	Houston	Mississippi Normal College		Col				
1974	Jackson	Millsaps College	1892	Col		C.	S.	B.
1975	do	Mississippi Institution for the Blind.	1850	Sch			F.	
1976	do	Mississippi State Library	1838	State		T.	F.	R.
1977	Lexington	Lexington Normal College		Col				
1978	Natchez	Cathedral Commercial School		Sch				
1979	do	Fisk Memorial Library	1883	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
1980	Oxford	Union Female College	1854	Col		C.	S.	C.
1981	Pontotoc	Chickasaw Female College	1852	Sch		C.		B.
1982	Port Gibson	Chamberlain Hunt Academy		Gen		C.	Fr.	B.
1983	Tougaloo	Tougaloo University	1869	Col		C.	F.	B.
1984	University	University of Mississippi	1849	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
1985	Westside	Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.		Col		C.	Fr.	B.
1986	Yalo	Oakland Normal Institute		Sch				
	MISSOURI.							
1987	Arcadia	Ursuline Academy	1877	Sch		C.	S.	C.
1988	Ashley	Watson Historical Library	1855	Hist		C.	F.	B.
1989	Bonneterre	St. Joseph Lead Company Free Library.	1883	Gen		C.	F.	C.
1990	Boonville	Kemper Family School Library		Sch				
1991	Brunswick	Library Association	1871	Gen	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
1992	Caledonia	Bellevue Collegiate Institute		Sch				

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
25,330	31,207	1,272	2,151	.....	18,000	.....	$6,000	.....	Warren Upham, secretary.	1939
1,917	882	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. N. Hewitt, M. D., secretary.	1940
41,000	.....	3,164	219	186,336	54,829	$14,217	15,312	.....	Helen J. McCaine	1941
4,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1942
26,000	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,000	.....	C. A. Gilman	1943
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1944
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1945
2,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. H. Gamble, general secretary.	1946
7,000	3,000	200	100	500	.....	.....	310	.....	J. S. Carlson	1947
3,088	.....	348	.....	10,874	.....	551	551	.....	L. R. Barto	1948
7,357	.....	279	.....	3,872	.....	.....	578	.....	.....	1949
5,000	.....	.....	.....	1,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1950
3,159	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	61	.....	Rose Whiting	1951
1,000	.....	50	.....	1,200	800	.....	140	.....	Lafayette Bliss, superintendent.	1952
1,000	100	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	N. J. Houg	1953
11,982	.....	1,062	.....	55,104	1,048	2,596	2,779	.....	Jeannette A. Clarke	1954
3,400	100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frances A. Elmer	1955
5,800	4,275	625	225	8,700	.....	.....	600	.....	G. C. Creelman	1956
6,000	.....	200	.....	.....	800	.....	350	.....	Brother Celestin, secretary.	1957
1,500	500	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	.....	1958
1,500	200	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1959
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Mary E. Rice	1960
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. J. Aven	1961
2,700	450	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	Alex. Donell	1962
1,915	190	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	W. H. Horton	1963
1,200	500	25	30	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Robert Frazer	1964
2,500	500	350	100	1,200	.....	.....	100	.....	Gen. Wm. N. Munroe	1965
3,000	500	250	300	.....	.....	.....	208	.....	T. L. Trawick	1966
3,500	5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1967
2,000	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Lehman, president	1968
2,000	1,500	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. B. Woodley, A. M	1969
1,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. H. Brunson, A. B	1970
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1971
3,000	1,000	100	50	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	E. D. Miller, president	1972
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1973
3,250	3,000	350	75	.....	.....	.....	239	$550	W. L. Weber	1974
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. Fairly, superintendent.	1975
85,000	.....	1,500	500	.....	.....	.....	950	.....	.....	1976
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1977
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1978
2,000	500	65	50	.....	.....	.....	435	.....	Miss M. B. Montgomery, secretary.	1979
1,000	800	50	200	.....	.....	.....	60	.....	A. S. Maddox	1980
1,600	.....	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Hugh C. Rollins	1981
1,800	500	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1982
3,500	100	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank G. Woodworth, president.	1983
14,000	1,000	150	200	.....	.....	.....	700	.....	R. B. Fulton, chancellor	1984
2,855	3,300	42	194	955	.....	.....	.....	.....	Joseph Anderson	1985
1,050	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1986
1,150	500	18	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1987
1,375	25	130	.....	130	130	.....	40	.....	A. R. Coburn, principal	1988
2,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	St. Joseph Lead Co	1989
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1990
2,400	500	151	85	.....	.....	.....	210	.....	F. S. Sasse	1991
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1992

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MISSOURI—cont'd.							
1993	Cameron	Missouri Wesleyan College	1887	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
1994	Canton	Christian University	1889	Col	....	C.	....	R.
1995	.....do	Meridian Lodge, I. O. O. F.	1885	I. O. O. F.	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1996	Cape Girardeau	Missouri State Normal School	1874	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
1997	.....do	St. Vincent's College	1843	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
1998	Carrollton	Public School Library	1886	Sch	....	C.	....	C.
1999	Carthage	.....do	1888	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2000	Chillicothe	Hazelton Public School Library	1890	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
2001	Clinton	Baird College	.....	Col	....	.....	.....	.....
2002	.....do	Clinton Academy	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2003	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2004	College Mound	McGee College Library	1896	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
2005	Columbia	Stephens College Library	1876	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
2006	.....do	University of the State of Missouri.	1840	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2007	Excelsior Springs	Wyman School Library	1887	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2008	Farmington	Barroll's Circulating Library	1892	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
2009	Fayette	Central College	1868	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2010	.....do	Howard-Payne College	1880	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2011	Florissant	St. Stanislaus Seminary	1823	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2012	Fulton	Missouri School for the Deaf	1855	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2013	.....do	Westminster College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	.....
2014	Glasgow	Lewis Library	1868	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2015	Greenfield	Ozark College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	R.
2016	Hannibal	Free Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
2017	Harrisonville	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2018	Iberia	Iberia Academy	1890	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2019	Independence	Public Library	1894	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2020	.....do	Woodland College	.....	Sch	....	.....	Fr.	R.
2021	Jefferson Barracks	Post Library	.....	Gar	....	Govt.	F.	B.
2022	Jefferson City	Missouri State Library	1835	Gen	....	C.	F.	R.
2023	Jennings	St. Louis Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2024	Joplin	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2025	Kansas City	Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	T.	S.	B.
2026	Kidder	Kidder Institute	1884	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2027	Kirksville	State Normal School	1872	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2028	Lagrange	La Grange College	1858	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2029	Lamar	Public School Library	1887	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2030	Lexington	Central Female College	1875	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2031	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2032	Liberty	William Jewell College	1849	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2033	Marshall	Missouri Valley College	1890	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2034	.....do	Public School Library	1881	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
2035	Maryville	Maryville Seminary	1891	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2036	Mexico	Blanton Public School Library	1880	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2037	.....do	Hardin College	1873	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
2038	Neosho	Public School Library	1887	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2039	.....do	Scarritt College Societies	1888	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
2040	Nevada	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2041	.....do	Public School Library	1884	Sch	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
2042	Otterville	Otterville College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2043	Parkville	Park College	1875	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
2044	Plattsburg	Plattsburg College	1887	Col	O.	C.	F.	R.
2045	Portland	St. Mark's School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2046	Rolla	School of Mines	1871	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
2047	St. Charles	Public School Library	1860	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2048	.....do	Sacred Heart Academy	1818	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2049	.....do	St. Charles Borromeo Catholic Library.	1859	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2050	.....do	St. Charles College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,285	500	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. W. Reed	1993
1,000	1,200	200	300	.....	200	.....	$200	$16,000	C. Lockhart, Ph. D., president.	1994
2,500	.....	25	.....	400	.....	.....	60	.....	N. D. Starr	1995
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1996
12,000	300	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1997
1,200	50	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	L. W. Rader	1998
3,900	200	200	50	.....	.....	.....	34	.....	B. K. Chase	1999
7,500	60	100	60	6,376	.....	.....	.....	.....	Annie M. Broaddus	2000
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2001
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2002
1,300	100	165	.....	4,000	.....	.....	200	.....	C. B. Reynolds, superintendent.	2003
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Creighton, president.	2004
1,000	.....	15	.....	360	300	.....	.....	.....	G. M. Christian	2005
21,000	28,000	6,700	2,750	.....	.....	.....	7,500	.....	J. W. Monser	2006
1,126	.....	3	.....	450	.....	.....	.....	.....	Leslie Bates	2007
1,200	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	Charles E. Barroll	2008
6,000	2,000	10	100	350	20	.....	.....	.....	R. T. Bond	2009
1,000	100	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	H. D. Groves, president	2010
8,000	1,000	100	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. Hagemann, rector	2011
1,280	.....	140	.....	.....	915	.....	200	.....	.....	2012
6,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2013
2,000	50	150	25	1,547	.....	.....	350	.....	Mrs. J. G. Trowbridge	2014
1,000	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edwin W. Doran, president.	2015
6,000	.....	500	.....	42,500	.....	$1,850	1,960	.....	Robt. Elliott, president	2016
1,124	100	124	20	1,050	.....	.....	129	.....	Margaret Volle	2017
1,000	1,000	200	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. Byron Smith	2018
1,325	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	202	418	.....	W. L. C. Palmer	2019
1,200	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. S. Bryant	2020
1,400	10	.....	.....	1,287	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. E. Dutton	2021
30,000	.....	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	J. W. Zeverly	2022
3,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. T. Blewett, LL. D.	2023
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2024
25,000	.....	1,928	.....	64,331	176,665	11,593	12,601	.....	Carrie W. Whitney	2025
1,500	500	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. M. Shaw, principal	2026
4,100	1,600	320	260	4,220	.....	.....	260	.....	C. E. Ross	2027
4,000	2,000	500	500	1,000	3,000	.....	150	.....	Jere T. Muir, president	2028
1,200	300	400	50	3,800	.....	.....	140	.....	W. H. Martin, superintendent.	2029
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2030
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2031
9,216	6,500	347	300	10,000	.....	.....	750	.....	Chas. Lee Smith	2032
2,017	2,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Wm. H. Black, D. D., president.	2033
1,173	634	84	117	472	1,423	.....	100	.....	T. E. Spencer	2034
1,200	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. E. Moore	2035
1,200	250	30	50	.....	.....	.....	131	.....	D. A. McMillan, superintendent.	2036
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	70	.....	A. K. Yancey, president.	2037
1,000	3,000	100	420	678	436	260	382	.....	J. M. Stevenson, superintendent.	2038
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	675	.....	C. C. Wood	2039
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2040
2,196	1,000	203	100	3,175	.....	.....	235	.....	W. J. Hawkins, superintendent.	2041
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. A. Grove	2042
7,000	700	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,000	L. M. McAfee	2043
3,150	500	50	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. W. Ellis, president	2044
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. E. Alleyne, rector	2045
3,000	1,200	150	300	600	.....	.....	288	.....	T. L. Rubey	2046
2,750	300	175	25	4,500	500	200	210	.....	G. W. Jones, superintendent.	2047
5,000	500	12	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	2048
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Jas. H. Meuffels	2049
1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2050

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	MISSOURI—cont'd.							
2051	St. Joseph	Academy of the Sacred Heart	1853	Sch		C.		B.
2052	do	Free Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2053	do	German-American Bank Building Company's Law Library.	1889	Law		C.		R.
2054	do	High School	1890	Sch		C.		B.
2055	do	St. Joseph Commercial College	1867	Col		C.	Fr.	R.
2056	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1882	Y. M. C. A		C.	S.	C.
2057	St. Louis	Academy of Science	1857	Scien	R.	C.		R.
2058	St. Louis, Station D.	Academy of the Sacred Heart	1877	Sch		C.	S.	C.
2059	St. Louis	Bibliothek des St. Louis Turn-Verein.	1856	Gen		C.		B.
2060	do	Bishop Robertson Hall	1874	Sch		C.		R.
2061	do	Christian Brothers College		Col		C.		
2062	do	Concordia College	1850	Theo		C.		C.
2063	do	Concordia Turn-Verein	1875	Soc	R.	C.	Fr.	C.
2064	do	Eden College	1850	Theo		C.		B.
2065	do	Educational Institute	1879	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
2066	do	Engineers' Club Library		Scien	R.	C.		B.
2067	do	Kenrick Seminary	1893	Theo		C.	Fr.	R.
2068	do	Law Library Association	1838	Law		C.	S.	R.
2069	do	Missouri Botanical Garden	1889	Scien		C.	F.	R.
2070	do	Missouri Historical Society	1866	Hist	O.	C.	F.	R.
2071	do	Missouri School for the Blind		Sch				
2072	do	Odd Fellows' Library	1868	I. O. O. F.	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
2073	do	Public Library	1865	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2074	do	St. Louis Law School	1867	Law		C.		R.
2075	do	St. Louis Medical College	1840	Med		C.		R.
2076	do	St. Louis Mercantile Library	1846	Mer	O.	C.	S.	B.
2077	do	St. Louis University	1829	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2078	do	Young Men's Sodality Library.	1860	Soc	O.	C.	Fr.	C.
2079	do	Ursuline Academy	1852	Sch		C.		B.
2080	do	Washington Universty	1853	Col		C.		B.
2081	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1876	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.		B.
2082	Sedalia	Public Library	1893	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2083	Springfield	Drury College	1873	Col		C.	S.	B.
2084	do	High School	1894	Sch		T.	Fr.	B.
2085	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1889	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
2086	Stanberry	Stanberry Normal School		Sch				
2087	Tarkio	Tarkio College		Col		C.		
2088	Trenton	Jewett Norris Library	1891	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2089	Warrensburg	State Normal School	1871	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
2090	Warrenton	Central Wesleyan College	1876	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
	MONTANA.							
2091	Anaconda	Hearst Free Library	1895	Gen		C.	F.	B.
2092	Bozeman	College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	1893	Col	R.	C.	F.	B.
2093	do	Free Library	1884	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2094	Butte	Free Public Library	1892	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2095	do	Miners' Union Library	1887	Soc		C.	Fr.	R.
2096	Deer Lodge	College of Montana	1884	Col		C.	F.	B.
2097	Dillon	Public Library	1890	Gen		C.	F.	C.
2098	Great Falls	Valeria Public Library	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2099	Helena	Grand Lodge Library (Masonic)	1866	Masonic		C.	Fr.	R.
2100	do	Historical Society of Montana and State Miscellaneous Library.		Gen		T.	F.	R.
2101	do	Public Library	1868	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2102	Miles City	Public School Library	1885	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
2103	Missoula	Free Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,600	300	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	$50	.....	A. M. Niederkorn	2051
14,000	2,000	1,100	300	108,000	.....	$6,700	7,000	.....	H. L. Elmendorf	2052
1,976	.....	.....	.....	1,200	.....	.....	25	.....	H. G. Buckingham, secretary.	2053
1,500	.....	25	.....	1,980	3,500	.....	12	.....	C. E. Chase	2054
1,000	300	50	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brother Arthemian president.	2055
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. D. Duncan, secretary	2056
20,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dr. G. Hambach	2057
2,300	125	51	100	.....	.....	.....	111	.....	Treasurer Academy Sacred Heart.	2058
3,300	.....	378	.....	3,533	.....	.....	177	.....	C. Retzer	2059
1,800	1,500	20	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sister Miriam	2060
11,700	1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2061
6,000	2,000	200	200	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Ludwig Fuerbringer	2062
1,339	24	10	.....	300	150	.....	.....	.....	Albert S. Schulte	2063
4,050	315	83	36	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. Haeberle, president	2064
1,220	120	35	.....	840	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. Toensfeldt	2065
1,560	500	100	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. A. Layman	2066
20,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2067
25,000	.....	725	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,361	.....	Gamble Jordan	2068
9,619	10,930	1,988	1,108	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Tulease, director	2069
5,000	3,000	400	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. J. Seever	2070
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2071
4,876	.....	54	.....	10,453	.....	.....	751	.....	F. M. Wood	2072
109,663	5,000	8,163	1,300	476,000	46,000	61,000	64,000	.....	Fred. M. Crunden	2073
8,000	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	Wm. S. Curtis, dean	2074
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Henry H. Mudd, dean	2075
94,843	5,000	3,416	435	94,135	.....	.....	51,956	.....	Horace Kephart	2076
31,325	.....	724	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. Poland, S. J	2077
7,000	1,000	800	.....	3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	do	2078
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mother Seraphine	2079
8,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. S. Snow, dean	2080
2,000	.....	.....	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. H. Johnson	2081
4,000	.....	1,000	.....	21,658	.....	2,000	2,028	.....	F. A. Sampson, president.	2082
22,000	22,000	500	800	8,000	1,000	.....	437	$900	Edward M. Shepard	2083
1,452	312	177	95	2,006	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. Bowerman, secretary.	2084
1,000	.....	25	.....	1,926	.....	.....	9	.....	L. E. Buell, general secretary.	2085
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2086
1,025	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2087
5,000	.....	400	50	16,894	.....	.....	1,785	20,000	Carrie J. Roberts	2088
6,000	500	1,200	100	.....	10,000	.....	1,500	.....	Henry C. Fike	2089
4,000	.....	50	.....	2,000	.....	.....	100	.....	Henry Vosholl	2090
2,175	.....	.....	.....	.....	17,648	.....	.....	.....	Fred Clark	2091
1,783	1,192	392	252	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2092
3,351	.....	1,000	.....	15,000	150	1,000	1,075	.....	Belle K. Chrisman	2093
19,423	2,000	2,258	400	64,842	42,488	13,867	15,513	.....	John F. Davies	2094
5,000	.....	.....	.....	637	.....	.....	.....	.....	James Maher	2095
1,800	200	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Prof. W. N. McKee	2096
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. S. D. Hooker, president.	2097
3,500	.....	1,000	.....	20,220	.....	3,000	3,000	.....	Bella Brown	2098
1,200	2,500	50	300	.....	300	.....	50	.....	Cornelius Hedges, grand secretary.	2099
10,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	750	.....	W. E. Sanders	2100
16,950	1,000	1,846	.....	67,712	.....	6,350	6,600	.....	Frank C. Patten	2101
1,000	.....	180	.....	1,337	.....	.....	143	.....	W. Donald Campbell	2102
2,040	.....	710	.....	11,059	.....	1,038	1,078	.....	J. Watson Buford, secretary.	2103

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEBRASKA.							
2104	Beatrice	Free Public Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2105	....do	High School	1888	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2106	Bellevue	Bellevue College	1884	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
2107	Blair	Library Association	1880	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2108	Collegeview	Union College	1891	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2109	Crete	Doane College	1872	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
2110	....do	Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2111	David City	....do	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2112	Franklin	Franklin Academy	1884	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2113	Fremont	Fremont Normal School	1885	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2114	Grand Island	Public Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2115	Hastings	Hastings College	1882	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
2116	....do	Public Library	1886	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
2117	Humboldt	Brunn Memorial Library	1884	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2118	Kearney	Public Library	1890	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2119	....do	W. C. T. U. Hospital Library	1880	Gen	R.	C.	F.	C.
2120	Lancaster	Nebraska Prison Library	1876	Reform	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2121	Lincoln	City Library	1877	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2122	....do	State Historical Library	1878	Hist	....	T.	F.	B.
2123	....do	State Library	1867	State	....	State.	F.	B.
2124	....do	Teachers' Library	1893	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2125	....do	University of Nebraska	1869	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
2126	Minden	Public School Library	1892	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2127	Nebraska City	Ladies' Library Association	1876	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
2128	Neligh	Gates College	1882	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2129	Normal	Lincoln Normal University	1893	Col	....	C.	....	R.
2130	North Platte	Y. M. C. A. Library (railroad department).	1891	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
2131	Omaha	Brownell Hall	1866	Sch	....	.....	.....	B.
2132	....do	Creighton College	1879	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2133	....do	Law Library Association	1870	Law	R.	C.	S.	B.
2134	....do	Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2135	....do	Presbyterian Theological Seminary.	.....	Theo	....	C.	....	....
2136	....do	Public Library	1877	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2137	Peru	State Normal School	1870	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2138	Plattsmouth	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2139	Santee Agency	Santee Normal Training School	.....	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2140	South Omaha	Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2141	Superior	Ladies' Library Association	1884	Soc	O.	C.	S.	C.
2142	University Place	Nebraska Wesleyan University	1892	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2143	Wahoo	High School	1888	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2144	Wayne	Nebraska Normal College	1891	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2145	York	Public Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
	NEVADA.							
2146	Carlin	Library Association	1873	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2147	Carson City	Nevada State Library	1865	Gen	....	State.	F.	B.
2148	Reno	Nevada State University	1886	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2149	Virginia City	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2150	....do	Miners' Union Library	1877	Soc	O.	C.	F.	B.
2151	Wadsworth	Engineers and Mechanics' Library.	1879	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
	NEW HAMPSHIRE.							
2152	Acworth	Silsby Public Library	1892	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2153	Alexandria	Haynes Library	1886	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2154	Alton	Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2155	Amherst	Town Library	1879	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2156	Andover	Proctor Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2157	Ashland	Town Library	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,800	.....	392	.....	18,022	.....	$1,000	$1,000	.....	Mrs. M. E. Abell	2104
1,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	O. H. Brainerd, principal	2105
2,200	300	250	75	.....	.....	.....	65	.....	David R. Kerr, president	2106
1,039	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	45	.....	Clara L. Kenny	2107
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	C. C. Lewis	2108
7,050	3,889	176	250	3,224	.....	.....	170	$1,100	Prof. Wm. E. Jillson	2109
2,970	1,272	80	350	17,597	.....	250	365	.....	Aline T. Sherrill	2110
3,000	1,000	300	150	6,000	1,000	49	202	.....	Mayme Taylor	2111
2,500	1,000	40	50	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. L. McEachron	2112
3,500	500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. H. Clemmons	2113
5,680	368	461	.....	12,881	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary E. Irvine	2114
2,500	.....	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. N. Filson	2115
1,200	70	150	25	200	.....	.....	280	.....	Mary M. Michael	2116
2,200	.....	60	.....	.....	.....	125	560	.....	E. W. Elwell, secretary	2117
2,862	100	200	50	19,000	.....	354	381	.....	Mrs. H. J. Seaman	2118
1,000	.....	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. J. C. Hull	2119
2,000	1,000	87	500	.....	12,207	.....	.....	.....	C. F. Hammond	2120
11,800	400	700	100	81,155	12,807	4,000	4,458	.....	Carrie C. Dennis	2121
2,825	7,400	273	1,882	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	J. A. Barrett	2122
32,255	2,800	1,863	200	.....	.....	.....	5,200	.....	D. A. Campbell	2123
1,200	100	.....	50	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. F. Saylor	2124
32,000	.....	2,821	1,340	.....	.....	.....	9,660	.....	Mary L. Jones	2125
1,851	233	350	125	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	A. H. Bigelow, superintendent.	2126
3,088	.....	117	.....	2,197	.....	.....	112	.....	.....	2127
5,200	700	200	75	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	M. Belle Chellis	2128
2,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. C. Bishop	2129
1,085	700	22	127	2,187	507	.....	50	.....	H. B. Hollingsworth, secretary.	2130
3,000	800	8	52	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robert Doherty, rector	2131
9,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Creighton College secretary.	2132
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Bessie Hammond	2133
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2134
1,909	861	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2135
51,420	.....	4,211	.....	235,378	44,635	13,500	15,000	.....	B. H. Barrows	2136
7,000	600	200	179	6,000	.....	.....	1,020	.....	A. W. Norton, president.	2137
1,009	500	100	240	25,000	8,050	360	515	.....	Olive Jones	2138
1,333	500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Fred. B. Riggs, assistant principal.	2139
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. A. Munro	2140
1,652	.....	128	.....	2,160	.....	.....	62	.....	Mrs. J. S. Johnston, president.	2141
2,700	.....	400	.....	1,200	1,500	.....	300	.....	C. L. Crook, Ph. D	2142
1,215	.....	476	.....	1,378	423	.....	181	.....	Geo. W. Haan, superintendent.	2143
1,000	500	100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. M. Pile	2144
1,300	.....	213	.....	10,945	.....	350	350	.....	Grace Hurlbut	2145
2,000	.....	.....	.....	1,250	.....	.....	260	.....	W. A. King	2146
30,000	.....	1,000	.....	4,500	.....	.....	1,233	.....	Eugene Howell, secretary of state.	2147
4,000	2,000	545	225	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	H. K. Clapp	2148
1,200	240	48	25	5,000	1,800	.....	240	.....	C. L. McLane, principal.	2149
10,587	.....	276	23	5,232	.....	.....	.....	3,480	J. F. McDonell, recording secretary.	2150
2,202	.....	200	.....	1,271	.....	.....	323	.....	Miss Gertrude Dunlope	2151
1,824	.....	24	.....	4,618	.....	25	101	.....	H. V. Hayward, trustee	2152
1,024	60	200	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. A. Bullock	2153
1,375	250	197	50	12,258	1,040	137	162	.....	Geo. H. Demeritt	2154
2,500	.....	121	.....	3,289	.....	.....	248	.....	Elisa J. Stearns	2155
1,403	.....	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. C. E. Morton	2156
2,441	.....	206	.....	.....	.....	140	151	.....	R. R. D. Dearborn	2157

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location,	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW HAMPSHIRE—continued.							
2158	Atkinson	Atkinson Academy	1879	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2159	Belmont	Public Library	1893	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2160	Berlin	Free Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2161	Bethlehem	Library Association	1877	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
2162	Bristol	Minot-Sleeper Library	1885	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2163	Brookline	Public Library	1878	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2164	Center Sandwich	Sandwich Library Association	1883	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
2165	Charlestown	Silsby Free Public Library	1894	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
2166	Chester	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2167	Claremont	Fiske Free Library	1873	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2168	Colebrook	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2169	Concord	New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane.	1843	Asylum	....	.....	Fr.	C.
2170	.....do	New Hampshire Historical Library.	1823	Hist	O.	C.	F.	R.
2171	.....do	New Hampshire State Library	1823	State	O.	T.	F.	R.
2172	.....do	Public Library	1855	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2173	.....do	St. Paul's School	1856	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
2174	.....do	State Board of Health	1883	Med	....	State.	F.	R.
2175	Contoocook	Contoocook Library	1860	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2176	Deerfield Center	Philbrick-James Library	1881	Gen	....	.....	F.	B.
2177	Derry	Pinkerton Academy	1881	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2178	Dover	Public Library	1883	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2179	Dublin	.....do	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2180	Durham	College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	1868	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2181	.....do	Public Library	1892	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2182	East Canterbury	Shaker Community Library	1840	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2183	East Derry	Taylor Library	1876	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2184	East Jaffrey	Jaffrey Public Library	1883	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2185	East Rindge	East Rindge Library	1870	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2186	East Rochester	East Rochester Library	1885	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2187	Exeter	Phillips-Exeter Academy	1781	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2188	.....do	Public Library	1853	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2189	Farmington	.....do	1890	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2190	Fitzwilliam	Town Library	1871	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2191	Francestown	.....do	1873	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
2192	Franklin	Franklin Library	1861	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2193	Franklin Falls	Smith Library of the Unitarian Society.	1880	Social	R.	C.	S.	B.
2194	Gilsum	Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2195	Greenville	Chamberlin Free Public Library.	1879	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2196	Hampstead	Nelson Ordway Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2197	Hampton	Public Library	1865	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2198	Hampton Falls	Ladies' Social Library	1845	Social	....	T.	S.	C.
2199	Hancock	Town Library	1860	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2200	Hanover	Dartmouth College	1770	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
2201	Harrisville	Town Library	1878	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2202	Haverhill	Ladies' Library Association	1880	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
2203	Henniker	Free Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2204	Hillsboro	Fuller Public Library	1877	Gen	....	.....	F.	B.
2205	Hinsdale	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2206	.....do	Public Library	1864	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2207	Hollis	Social Library	1799	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2208	Hopkinton	Public Library	1892	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2209	Hudson	Greeley Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2210	Jackson	Public Library	1879	Gen	....	T.	F.	....
2211	Keene	.....do	1875	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2212	Kensington	Social Library	1895	Social	O.	C.	F.	B.
2213	Kingston	Sanborn Seminary	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2214	Laconia	Public Library	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2215	Lakeport	Hubbard's Circulating Library	1883	Gen	.....	.....	S.	C.
2216	.....do	Public Library	1891	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2217	Lancaster	.....do	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2218	Lebanon	Leavitt's Library	1872	Gen	....	.....	F.	R.
2219	.....do	Public Library	1889	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,500									H. N. Dunham	2158
1,000		81		3,083	3	$150	$150			2159
1,944	18	1,172	25	6,132		500	581		Hattie L. Johnson	2160
1,400		70					75		Benjamin Tucker	2161
3,243	200	190	14	5,776		331	456	$2,500	Emma Pratt Berry	2162
1,600									O. D. Fessenden	2163
1,121		75		1,800			39		E. Q. Marston	2164
3,826		51				259	259		Frank W. Hamlin, trustee.	2165
1,250		906		4,000			100		Isabelle H. Fitz	2166
7,000						250	450	5,000	Abbie Field	2167
3,500		400					300		J. H. Darby, chairman	2168
1,956		30		3,900			100		Dr. C. B. Bancroft, superintendent.	2169
13,000	50,000	380	1,000				1,730	11,000	Rev. N. F. Carter	2170
50,000	25,000	3,000	2,500				5,550		Arthur C. Chase	2171
18,157		500		87,122	89,122		6,458	2,500	Grace Blanchard	2172
10,800	1,700	1,609	77				780	1,000		2173
1,000		50							Irving A. Watson	2174
2,000	400	200	30	860		150	406	500	Frank J. Morrill, trustee.	2175
2,276	500			2,159			271	2,500	J. H. H. Burbank	2176
3,700	100		25	1,765			500		Mary U. Bingham	2177
20,500	742	1,003	75	67,183		3,500	3,711	750	Caroline H. Garland	2178
2,953		138		2,785			173			2179
4,000		595	329				745		C. W. Scott	2180
4,767	200	417		10,000			586	1,200	Miss M. E. Smith	2181
2,000										2182
3,150		200		7,559		75	195	3,000	Ada Reynolds	2183
1,900	50	72	8	5,844		200	420		Mrs. S. U. Slason	2184
1,500		15							Cynthia S. Converse	2185
1,700	100	165		6,321			600		J. H. Whittier	2186
1,600		25					200		J. A. Tufts, secretary	2187
9,000		444		17,111		2,000	2,272	7,000	Frances E. Moulton	2188
2,038	380	153	25	9,116		187	212		Henry S. Davis	2189
4,293		65				75	75		Grace C. Richardson	2190
2,511	158	176		3,476	83		136		Geo. K. Wood	2191
2,883		71		3,000			75		Mary A. Rowell	2192
2,500				2,840				3,000	Mary E. Daniel	2193
1,054		42		2,807			79		J. A. Loveland	2194
2,517	452	90	452			300	314		G. Ernest Merriam	2195
1,387		61		1,595			379		Dr. Geo. R. Bennetts	2196
2,020	125	70	6	2,192	25	100	107		S. Albert Shaw	2197
1,020		12							Helen M. Sanborn	2198
3,112		172					450	12,000	John P. Hills, trustee	2199
82,000	20,000	1,458	1,270	6,000			3,500		Marvin D. Bisbee	2200
1,563		75		1,725		50	50		Laura M. Tuttle	2201
1,000	80	108					132			2202
1,800	300	100				200	215		Mrs. J. C. Cogswell	2203
3,365		173					180	3,000	Mary C. Bixby	2204
1,154			379							2205
4,500	500	200	100	12,000					Mrs. Martha L. Stearns	2206
4,036		91		5,000			161		Rev. S. L. Geroulel, secretary.	2207
1,474		40				150	150		Sarah W. Kimball	2208
2,172		60		2,512		100	124		Mary N. Webster	2209
1,900	600	25	25	1,200		30	57		C. E. Meserve	2210
10,000		335		29,137			500		Mary F. Sheldon	2211
1,000				1,378					Mrs. A. M. Hilliard	2212
1,450										2213
6,488				32,038		700	1,505	1,000	Julia S. Busiel	2214
1,000									John M. Hubbard	2215
1,678	46	9	12	9,631			230		Olin S. Davis	2216
7,500		100		9,000			400			2217
1,200	800								Geo. A. L. Leavitt	2218
5,000	500	200		19,307			600	10,000	E. H. Thompson	2219

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW HAMPSHIRE—continued.							
2220	Lisbon	Village Library Association	1864	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
2221	Littleton	Public Library	1889	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2222	Londonderry	Leach Library	1879	Gen		C.	F.	B.
2223	Lyme	Turner Social Library	1797	Soc	R.	T.	S.	B.
2224	Manchester	City Library	1844	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2225	do	State Industrial School		A. and R.				
2226	Marlboro	Frost Free Library	1867	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2227	Marlow	Town Library	1877	Gen		T.	F.	C.
2228	Meredith	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2229	Meriden	Kimball Union Academy Library		Sch				
2230	Merrimack	Free Public Library	1893	Gen		T.	F.	C.
2231	Milford	Free Library	1869	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2232	Milton	Nute High School	1889	Gen		C.	F.	B.
2233	Mount Vernon	Appleton Library of McCollum Institute.		Sch		C.	F.	R.
2234	Nashua	Public Library	1867	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2235	New Hampton	Gordon-Nash Library	1895	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2236	do	New Hampton Literary Institution.		Sch				
2237	do	Literary Adelphi Society	1827	Soc		C.	F.	B.
2238	do	Social Fraternity	1831	Soc		C.	F.	B.
2239	Newington	Langdon Free Public Library	1892	Gen		C.	F.	B.
2240	New London	Colby Academy	1887	Sch		C.	S.	B.
2241	Newmarket	Town Library	1845	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2242	Newport	Richards's Free Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2243	Pelham	Public Library	1892	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
2244	Pembroke	Pembroke Academy	1837	Sch		C.		B.
2245	Peterboro	Town Library	1833	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2246	Plymouth	Holderness School for Boys		Sch				
2247	do	New Hampshire State Normal School.		Sch		T.		R.
2248	do	Young Ladies' Circulating Library.	1878	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2249	Portsmouth	Free Public Library	1881	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2250	do	Portsmouth Athenæum	1817	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
2251	Rindge	Ingalls Memorial Library	1893	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2252	Rochester	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.		F.	B.
2253	Salem	Free Public Library	1894	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2254	Seabrook	Brown Memorial Library	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2255	Somersworth	Manufacturers' and Village Library.	1840	Gen			S.	B.
2256	Suncook	Pentagon Circulating Library	1875	Gen				C.
2257	Surry	Reed Free Library	1881	Gen			F.	B.
2258	Swanzey	Mount Cæsar Union Library	1880	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2259	Temple	Town Library	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
2260	Tilton	New Hampshire Conference Seminary.	1845	Sch		C.		B.
2261	do	Tilton and Northfield Public Library.	1887	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2262	Wakefield	Public Library	1880	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2263	Walpole	Bridge Memorial Library	1840	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2264	Warner	Pillsbury Free Library	1891	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2265	Washington	Shedd Free Library	1869	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2266	West Lebanon	Library Association	1869	Gen		T.	S.	C.
2267	do	Tilden Seminary	1865	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
2268	Westmoreland	Free Library	1887	Gen		T.	F.	C.
2269	West Swanzey	Stratton Free Library	1885	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2270	Whitefield	Public Library	1893	Gen		T.	F.	C.
2271	Wilton	do	1890	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2272	Winchester	do	1813	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2273	Windham	Nesmith Library	1871	Gen		C.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,180		75		3,291			$178			2220
5,446		200		13,716			500		Miss H. F. Merrill	2221
2,300	310	55	20	1,955		$100	136	$1.000	Chas. G. Pillsbury	2222
3,000							48	500	Henry H. Holt	2223
39,700		1,098	325	59,495	10,934		5,170	10,000	Kate E. Sanborn	2224
1,000										2225
5,000		125		5,200			300	5,000	S. H. McAllister, D. D.	2226
1,000		40		2,600		61	84		E. A. Jones, secretary	2227
2,352		90		4,571		250	266		Georgia M. Blaisdell	2228
2,000										2229
1,000	10	161	5	2,992					Emma A. Cross	2230
5,575	1,000	264		20,594			1,353	5,100	Rebecca F. Doane	2231
1,310	25			3,500			135		Frank Haley	2232
1,050									G. W. Cox, A. B., principal.	2233
14,000				38,000			4,125		H. Crombie	2234
6,000									L. P. Bickford	2235
11,000										2236
1,400							15		H. M. James	2237
1,717									C. H. Hawkins	2238
2,100		36		4,418			78	1,000		2239
3,568	1,000	105	300	1,707			6		Mary E. Burpee	2240
3,000		200				350	350		Geo. L. Dearborn, secretary.	2241
4,812	100	250	20	9,962	778		1,025	20,000	Mary L. Tandy	2242
1,000						100	200		F. M. Woodbury, trustee.	2243
1,600		700							Isaac Walker	2244
7,890		571		12,260		800	850		Eva E. Coffin	2245
1,200										2246
1,500									C. C. Rounds, principal.	2247
2,753	141			6,100					M. H. Leverett	2248
13,000	600			26,000		1,500	1,580		Robt. E. Rich	2249
18,000		200		2,000					Alfred Gooding, president.	2250
1,350	50	1,100	20	2,118	10	25	4,070	2,600	Miss Emma E. Leighton.	2251
4,135	400	756	100				2,000		Lillian E. Parshley	2252
1,006		216		5,500	50		130		Susan A. Cluff	2253
2,000		300		1,158			105	1,570	Mrs. J. M. S. Tucker, president.	2254
9,000				5,000				2,000	Jared P. Hubbard	2255
1,200				300					J. Wilkins	2256
2,624	82	145				57	187	4,000	Mrs. Mary E. Field	2257
1,612		100		1,872			128	2,200	Mrs. Flora E. Newell	2258
1,500	500	70	15	2,700					Agnes M. Holt	2259
3,000	800	50	200						Geo. L. Plimpton	2260
5,000	25	200		12,000		500	500		L. F. Batchelder	2261
1,495		352		352			153		Alice C. Milliken	2262
5,697				5,754		360	404		Miss Louisa B. Hayward.	2263
5,074		230	15	8,893	523	442	455		Mary Bartlett Harris	2264
2,864	80	116	10					2,500	Mrs. Clara H. M. Hurd.	2265
1,101	50	27		300			26		Jennie B. Hosley	2266
1,000									W. P. Burton	2267
1,100	75	62		1,750					Carrie E. Bryant	2268
2,500	250	75	55	1,580			45		Geo. I. Cutler	2269
2,675		548	388	14,243		200	342		C. Edward Wright	2270
3,850	128	1,008	16	6,935		300	482	4,000	Martha A. Putnam	2271
6,000		250				500	516	50	Geo. W. Pierce	2272
3,039		51		1,590			60	1,000	A. L. Barker, trustee	2273

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW JERSEY.							
2274	Atlantic City	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2275	Blairstown	Scribner Library of Blair Academy.	1875	Sch	O.	.....	....	B.
2276	Bloomfield	German Theological School of Newark.	1875	Theo	....	.....	....	B.
2277	Bordentown	Bordentown Female College	1895	Col	O.	.....	Fr.	R.
2278	Bridgeton	South Jersey Institute	1869	Sch	....	.....	Fr.	R.
2279	.....do	Young Mens' Christian Association.	.....	Y.M.C.A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
2280	Burlington	Burlington Library Company	1757	Gen	O.	.....	Fr.	B.
2281	Camden	Camden County Bar Association.	1881	Law	R.	C.	S.	R.
2282	.....do	North Baptist Church Library	1886	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2283	Chatham	Chatham Circulating Library	1886	Gen	R.	.....	Fr.	B.
2284	East Orange	High School	1890	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2285	Elizabeth	Public Library and Reading Room	1885	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2286	.....do	Public School No. 2	1881	Sch	....	.....	Fr.	B.
2287	Freehold	Freehold Institute	1845	Sch	....	.....	....	....
2288	Glenridge	Glenridge Library	1893	Gen	R.	.....	S.	B.
2289	Hackettstown	Centenary Collegiate Institute	1874	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2290	Hightstown	Longstreet Library of Peddic Institute.	1890	Sch	O.	C.	....	R.
2291	Hoboken	Free Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2292	.....do	Hoboken Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2293	.....do	R. R. Y. M. C. A. Library	1889	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	Fr.	C.
2294	.....do	Stevens Institute of Technology	1871	Sci	....	C.	F.	R.
2295	Jamesburg	New Jersey State Reform School	1866	A. and R.	....	T.	....	....
2296	Jersey City	Free Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
2297	.....do	Law Library	1872	Law	....	C.	S.	B.
2298	.....do	St. Peter's College	1872	Col	O.	C.	....	R.
2299	Kearney	New Jersey Home for Disabled Soldiers.	1866	Social	O.	State.	F.	B.
2300	Keyport	Public School Library	1883	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2301	Lakewood	Lakewood Library	.....	Gen	....	.....	F.	B.
2302	.....do	The Oaks	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2303	Lambertville	Styker Library	1882	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
2304	Lawrenceville	Lawrenceville School	1888	Sch	O.	C.	....	B.
2305	Long Branch	Circulating Library	1878	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2306	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2307	Madison	Drew Theological Seminary	1866	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2308	Millville	Library and Reading Room	1864	Gen	R.	C.	....	B.
2309	Montclair	Free Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2310	.....do	Montclair Military Academy	1887	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
2311	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
2312	Moorestown	Free Library	1853	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2313	Morristown	Morristown Library and Lyceum	1878	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2314	.....do	St. Bartholomew's School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
2315	Mount Holly	Burlington County Lyceum of History and Natural Sciences.	1876	Gen	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
2316	.....do	Mount Holly Preparatory School for Girls.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
2317	Newark	Board of Trade	1868	Mer	R.	C.	F.	R.
2318	.....do	Essex County Law Library	1883	Law	R.	C.	S.	R.
2319	.....do	Free Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2320	.....do	Hall's (Miss) School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
2321	.....do	High School	1860	Sch	R.	.....	....	R.
2322	.....do	New Jersey Historical Society	1845	Hist	R.	C.	Fr.	R.
2323	.....do	Public School Libraries	1878	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
2324	.....do	Young Men's Catholic Association.	1856	Social	O.	C.	....	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,500										2274
1,300	750	100	50	500			$100		Robert B. Marvin	2275
4,000		100					25	$500	Charles E. Knox	2276
2,500	1,500	50	10						J. W. Blaisdell	2277
2,000	500	100	100				40		H. K. Trask, LL. D	2278
1,800									M. R. Whitaker	2279
13,000							232		Eliza J. Thomas	2280
3,687	1,000	121	800						B. F. Haywood Shreve, secretary.	2281
2,417										2282
2,000		200		1,500				1,000		2283
1,200	85	200		1,600	200	$200	240		Georgiana Stevenson, teacher.	2284
8,000		205		27,384			1,490		Howard Richards, treasurer.	2285
1,272		85		3,921	1,701		24		N. W. Pease	2286
1,056										2287
1,900							1,350		Henrietta Northall	2288
1,522	775	94	100				325		W. P. Ferguson, president.	2289
4,000		200							C. A. Pullen	2290
14,541	378	1,820	150	104,633		8,176	8,443		Thomas F. Hatfield	2291
2,000										2292
2,600		110		2,569					F. W. Wisenflue	2293
8,700		100							A. Riesenberger, secretary.	2294
1,200									Ira Otterson, superintendent.	2295
50,275	2,500	5,117	328	376,977	13,050	28,000	29,149		Esther E. Burdick	2296
4,500							520		Henry C. McCartin	2297
2,000									Rev. J. Harper, S. J	2298
1,400	1,000	150		2,610					Peter F. Rogers	2299
1,080	100	129	15	2,116	400		63		S. V. Arrowsmith, principal.	2300
2,034		70		6,851			453			2301
2,000		10								2302
2,863							319	1,350	Amos Smith, treasurer	2303
2,500	500	200	100						T. D. Swift	2304
3,840		90	55	6,079	3,000		4,670		Jennie L. Morris, treasurer.	2305
1,700										2306
33,601	21,209	1,709	3,459	4,968	6,179		635	10,700	S. G. Ayres	2307
3,236		103	10	2,420	1,321		450			2308
5,036	80	1,000	25	31,347	4,618	2,491	2,998		Mary F. Weeks	2309
1,020									J. G. MacVicor, principal.	2310
2,013	100	340	20				70		Randall Spaulding, superintendent of schools.	2311
1,540		143		1,075			244	500	Anna Mary Kaighn	2312
19,476	400	150	150	12,916			852	4,000	Caroline O. Lounsbury	2313
1,000										2314
5,967		18		2,761	899		602	10,613	Charles Evans Merritt, president.	2315
2,000										2316
2,000	2,500								P. P. Quinn, secretary	2317
3,000							100		Edward M. Coles	2318
55,002		5,914		332,078		43,000	44,606		Frank P. Hill	2319
1,500										2320
2,378		100							E. O. Hovey, principal	2321
15,915		104	194							2322
13,633		639					752		Wm. N. Barringer, city superintendent.	2323
1,200	200	12		50	50				T. J. Ryan, secretary and superintendent.	2324

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW JERSEY—cont'd.							
2325	New Brunswick	Free Public Library	1883	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2326	do	Rutgers College	1766	Col		C		B.
2327	do	Sage Library of Theological Seminary.	1873	Theo	O.	C.	F.	B.
2328	Newton	Dennis Library	1873	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2329	Northvale	District School Library		Sch		C.		
2330	Orange	Free Library	1884	Gen	O.	C.	F.	C
2331	Passaic	Free Public Library	1888	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2332	Paterson	do	1885	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2333	Pennington	Circulating Library	1874	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
2334	Plainfield	Public Library and Reading Room	1881	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2335	do	Seminary for Young Ladies		Sch		C.		B.
2336	do	Stillman High School		Sch				
2337	Princeton	Evelyn College		Col		C.		
2338	do	Ivy Hall Library	1872	Social	O.		F.	C.
2339	do	Princeton Theological Seminary	1812	Theo	O.	T.	F.	B.
2340	do	Princeton University	1746	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
2341	do	American Whig Society	1769	Col. Soc	O.	C.		B.
2342	do	Cliosophic Society	1765	Col. Soc	O.	C.		B.
2343	do	E. M. Museum Library	1890	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2344	Rahway	Library Association	1864	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2345	Redbank	do	1878	Gen	R.		S.	B.
2346	Rutherford	Public Library	1894	Gen		T.	F.	C.
2347	Salem	Salem Library Company	1804	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2348	Scotch Plains	Public Library	1889	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2349	Shrewsbury	Shrewsbury Library	1866	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2350	Somerville	Public Library	1871	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
2351	South Orange	Free Public Library	1886	Gen	O.	T.	F.	C.
2352	do	Seaton Hall College		Col		C.	Fr.	R.
2353	do	Seminary of the Immaculate Conception.		Theo		C.		
2354	Summit	Library Association	1874	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2355	Toms River	Public Reading and Circulating Library.	1895	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2356	do	Public School Library	1892	Gen		C.	F.	B.
2357	Trenton	New Jersey School for Deaf Mutes.		Sch				
2358	do	New Jersey State Hospital	1848	Social		C.		B.
2359	do	New Jersey State Library	1822	State	O.		F.	R.
2360	do	New Jersey State Prison	1836	A. and R.		T.	F.	C.
2361	do	State Normal School and Model Schools.		Sch	O.	T.	Fr.	B.
2362	do	Union Library	1885	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2363	Vineland	Historical and Antiquarian Society.	1864	Hist	O.	C.	S.	B.
2364	West Hoboken	Public School Library		Sch	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2365	Whippany	Roberts Memorial Library	1895	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2366	Woodbury	Deptford Institute Free Library	1894	Gen		C.	F.	B.
2367	Woodstown	Pilesgrove Library Association	1860	Gen		C.	S.	B.
	NEW MEXICO.							
2368	Fort Bayard	Post Library	1867	Gar	O.	Govt.		B.
2369	Las Vegas	Revista Catolica	1875	Gen	O.	C.		R.
2370	Mesilla Park	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	1890	Col		C.		B.
2371	Santa Fe	Loretto Academy of Our Lady of Light.	1887	Sch	O.	C.	S.	B.
2372	do	St. Michael's College	1874	Col		C.	F.	B.
2373	do	Territorial Library	1850	Law	R.	T.	Fr.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
14,000	.....	875	.....	50,302	3,593	.....	$4,474	.....	Cornelia A. See	2325
33,559	5,000	1,894	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$21,000	Irving S. Upson	2326
43,017	7,676	456	48	.....	.....	.....	2,800	50,000	John C. Van Dyke	2327
7,280	.....	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	564	10,000	Sara M. Moore	2328
1,350	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2329
7,989	509	1,355	.....	34,871	.....	.....	15,474	.....	Laura E. Babcock	2330
5,432	.....	380	.....	29,926	2,430	$2,100	2,984	.....	.....	2331
24,939	.....	2,248	.....	111,236	1,626	12,989	13,493	.....	G. F. Winchester	2332
1,100	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	.....	.....	2333
13,735	1,650	850	50	30,473	.....	3,013	4,293	23,000	.....	2334
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. E. Kenyon, principal	2335
1,150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2336
2,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2337
3,080	2,000	1,020	800	.....	.....	.....	90	.....	Mrs. Thomas Swann, president.	2338
58,000	24,500	830	50	.....	.....	.....	6,176	64,000	Rev. J. H. Dulles	2339
102,000	25,000	4,000	2,000	27,180	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. C. Richardson	2340
10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2341
10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John Porter Hall	2342
4,000	8,000	80	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	William Libbey, director.	2343
13,500	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25,000	Carolyn Wells	2344
1,650	.....	153	.....	4,480	.....	.....	650	.....	Miss E. T. Reed	2345
1,530	.....	273	.....	7,656	.....	.....	375	.....	Dorothy E. Burrows	2346
10,600	.....	200	.....	10,265	.....	.....	644	5,000	M. H. Stratton	2347
1,000	125	21	.....	1,290	.....	.....	526	.....	Geo. R. Nicholl, president board of trustees.	2348
1,500	4,000	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	385	.....	.....	2349
4,000	40	50	35	.....	.....	.....	422	.....	.....	2350
4,883	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Elizabeth Van Hoevenberg.	2351
4,000	1,000	800	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. J. Synnott	2352
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2353
1,950	350	220	70	1,800	.....	.....	381	.....	Augustus F. Libby, president board of trustees.	2354
1,236	300	1,236	300	5,217	.....	.....	125	.....	George Warrington Eccles, rector.	2355
1,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	.....	F. A. North, principal	2356
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2357
4,000	.....	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	5,000	John W. Ward, medical director.	2358
45,500	.....	2,322	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	Morris R. Hamilton, State librarian.	2359
9,000	.....	.....	.....	8,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2360
2,560	.....	305	.....	9,469	8,639	.....	.....	.....	J. M. Greene, principal	2361
6,000	.....	.....	.....	13,000	.....	.....	750	.....	Margaret C. Barber	2362
2,750	2,000	500	400	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	Frank D. Andrew, secretary and librarian.	2363
1,250	.....	.....	.....	2,547	.....	.....	226	.....	.....	2364
2,000	100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	350	.....	H. C. Raynolds, secretary.	2365
3,960	.....	2,673	.....	15,067	.....	.....	354	6,000	Lewis Starr, secretary board of trustees.	2366
1,748	.....	33	.....	1,031	.....	.....	72	.....	Jessie L. Colson	2367
1,613	.....	96	.....	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	James E. Brett	2368
1,800	400	100	200	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	Rev. C. M. Capilupi, rector.	2369
2,760	2,000	460	500	.....	.....	.....	750	.....	F. E. Lester, college clerk.	2370
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8	.....	Sisters of Loretto	2371
1,100	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brother Botulph	2372
4,000	300	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,500	.....	J. Seguraz	2373

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK.							
2374	Adams	Adams Collegiate Institute	1865	Sch	O.		Fr.	B.
2375	Addison	Addison Free Academy		Sch				
2376	Albany	Academy of the Sacred Heart	1861	Sch		C.		B.
2377	do	Albany Female Academy		Sch				
2378	do	Albany Institute	1793	Scien		C.		B
2379	do	Albany Law School	1883	Law	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
2380	do	Catholic Union Library		Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2381	do	Christian Brothers' Academy	1869	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
2382	do	Court of Appeals	1869	Law				R.
2383	do	Free Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2384	do	New York State Library	1818	Gen		T.	F.	R.
2385	do	New York State Law Library	1818	Law		T.	F.	R.
2386	do	Public School Library		Sch		T.	Fr.	B
2387	do	Railroad Y. M. C. A. Library	1880	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
2388	do	St. Agnes School	1872	Sch		C.		R.
2389	do	St. Joseph's Academy	1890	Sch		C.		R.
2390	do	State Normal College		Sch		C.		
2391	do	Young Men's Association	1833	Gen			S.	B.
2392	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	1857	Y. M. C. A.		C.	S.	B.
2393	do	Y. W. C. A. Library	1888	Y. W. C. A.		C.	S	C.
2394	Albion	Public Library	1893	Gen		T.	Fr.	B.
2395	Alexander	Union School Library	1885	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2396	Alfred	Alfred University	1857	Gen			S	B.
2397	Allegany	St. Bonaventure's College	1859	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
2398	do	St. Elizabeth's Academy	1884	Sch		C.		R.
2399	Amsterdam	Amsterdam Academy		Sch				
2400	do	Free Library	1892	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2401	do	St. Mary's Catholic Institute		Sch				
2402	Annandale	St. Stephen's College	1860	Col	O.	C.		B.
2403	Attica	Stevens Memorial Library	1894	Gen	O.	C.	F	B.
2404	do	Union School		Sch		T.	Fr.	B.
2405	Auburn	Auburn Prison	1841	State		T.		C.
2406	do	Auburn Theological Seminary	1820	Theo	O.	C.	F.	B.
2407	do	Seymour Library	1876	Gen	R.		F.	B.
2408	Aurora	Cayuga Lake Military Academy		Gen		C.	Fr.	R.
2409	do	Wells College	1868	Col	O.	C.		B.
2410	Avon	Union School	1881	Sch		T.	F.	B.
2411	Babylon	do		Sch		T.		R.
2412	Bainbridge	do	1873	Sch		T.	F	B.
2413	Baldwinsville	Free Academy and Union School	1864	Sch		T.	F.	B.
2414	Ballston Spa	Saratoga County Law Library	1813	Law		T.	Fr.	R.
2415	Batavia	State School for the Blind	1868	Sch		T.		B.
2416	do	Union School District No. 2	1853	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2417	Bath	Davenport Library	1889	Gen	O.		F.	B.
2418	Bath Beach	New Utrecht Free Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F	B.
2419	Bath-on-the-Hudson	North Greenbush Public Library District No. 6.	1893	Gen		T.	F.	C.
2420	Bay Ridge	Free Library	1888	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2421	Beedes	Keene Heights Library Club	1888	Gen	O.		S.	B.
2422	Belleville	Union Academy	1826	Sch		C.	F.	B.
2423	Belmont	Free Library	1885	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2424	Binghamton	City School Library	1861	Sch		C.	F.	B.
2425	do	Library Association	1874	Y. M. C. A.		C.	Fr.	B.
2426	do	Supreme Court Library	1859	Law		T.	Fr.	R.
2427	Boonville	Erwin Library and Institute	1885	Gen	O.		F.	B

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,654	400	20	50	200	400	.....	$50	.....	Salem G. Pattison	2374
1,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2375
3,632	750	30	22	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. Hoey, secretary	2376
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2377
5,000	2,000	30	30	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	George Rogers Howell	2378
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. R. Davidson, secretary.	2379
5,296	648	687	240	3,816	.....	.....	12,600	.....	E. I. Flood, superintendent.	2380
2,150	300	21	50	200	300	.....	.....	.....	Brother L'ontine	2381
20,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. S. Brolley	2282
2,200	.....	300	.....	10,000	1,800	$600	1,000	.....	John A. Howe, president.	2383
320,710	57,234	15,700	7,869	12,187	280,000	.....	46,534	.....	Melvil Dewey	2384
54,877	300	.....	250	.....	50,000	.....	.....	.....	S. B. Griswold	2385
8,000	1,000	.....	150	.....	.....	500	1,356	.....	Mrs. Alois Donhauser	2386
1,500	.....	10	.....	1,200	150	.....	25	.....	A. P. Gillette, secretary.	2387
4,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. M. Gray	2388
1,750	90	6	.....	280	120	.....	.....	.....	Brother Thomas	2389
2,900	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2390
17,000	3,000	350	.....	15,593	.....	.....	750	.....	Nellie B. Lovejoy	2391
4,105	.....	434	.....	4,287	5,125	.....	718	$200	A. A. Clarke	2392
1,525	.....	102	.....	2,750	.....	.....	80	.....	Alice Newman	2393
2,865	500	8	.....	9,411	500	.....	5	.....	Lillian A. Achilles	2394
1,200	150	20	20	.....	.....	10	20	.....	J Howerth	2395
9,800	.....	300	390	3,800	4,000	.....	693	5,000	Edward M. Tomlinson	2396
6,295	510	40	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alexander M. Hickey, secretary.	2397
2,234	200	50	25	.....	3,400	.....	40	.....	Mother M. Teresa	2398
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2399
3,021	.....	.....	.....	34,000	600	.....	2,348	.....	Belle Huntley	2400
1,150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2401
13,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200,000	R. B. Fairbairn	2402
6,950	.....	280	.....	11,061	.....	.....	.....	.....	Laura E. Leland	2403
1,751	500	13	60	.....	1,362	.....	60	.....	A. M. Preston, principal	2404
2,389	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Horatio Yates, chaplain	2405
23,912	5,000	1,238	200	.....	.....	.....	1,747	18,316	Arthur S. Hoyt	2406
12,302	.....	345	.....	8,660	.....	.....	1,968	29,050	Martha A. Bullard	2407
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Vasa E. Stolbrand, superintendent.	2408
6,000	447	692	60	.....	.....	.....	730	.....	A. A. Wood	2409
1,600	60	200	.....	1,394	.....	100	200	.....	Reuben J. Wallace, principal.	2410
1,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	100	225	.....	William H. Lisk, principal.	2411
1,400	175	38	12	872	.....	25	50	.....	F. W. Crumb, A. M.	2412
1,200	200	250	.....	3,600	1,000	170	320	.....	.....	2413
1,000	.....	49	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	H. L. Grose	2414
2,000	.....	150	.....	1,000	500	.....	425	.....	Gardner Fuller, superintendent.	2415
11,000	.....	241	.....	21,407	.....	.....	986	4,000	P. P. Bradish, clerk board of education.	2416
90,138	.....	200	.....	9,802	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. L. Underhill	2417
1,382	.....	1,000	.....	10,497	.....	.....	1,198	.....	Sarah P. Sherwood, president.	2418
1,350	.....	150	.....	5,000	.....	125	175	.....	William A. Cuzner	2419
3,776	.....	420	.....	13,086	.....	.....	761	.....	Mrs. F. N. Doubleday	2420
1,500	300	100	100	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Edward I. H. Howell, secretary and treasurer.	2421
2,150	.....	.....	.....	350	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles J. Galpin, principal.	2422
1,600	.....	350	.....	5,000	.....	.....	400	.....	Mrs. M. E. Davis	2423
9,240	500	366	100	44,669	3,000	.....	3,081	.....	Mrs. Josephine W. Clonney.	2424
5,000	100	2,000	40	2,670	.....	.....	2,100	.....	J. K. Noyes	2425
10,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	E. C. Harris	2426
2,600	.....	321	.....	5,634	210	.....	862	18,000	L. W. Fiske	2427

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2428	Bridgehampton	Hampton Library	1876	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2429	Brockport	Beach Library	1852	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2430	do	Brockport State Normal and Training School.	1868	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2431	Bronxville	Bronxville Library	1873	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2432	Brooklyn	Adelphi Academy	1869	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2433	do	Bedford Circulating Library	1877	Gen	R.	.....	S.	C.
2434	do	Berkeley Institute	1886	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2435	do	Boys' High School	1895	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
2436	Brooklyn (502 Fulton street).	Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences.	1824	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2437	Brooklyn (197 Montague street).	Brooklyn Library	1857	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2438	Brooklyn (Station N)	Fort Hamilton Free Library	1893	State	O.	.....	F.	B.
2439	Brooklyn (67 Schermerhorn street).	Free Lending Library of Union for Christian Workers.	1882	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2440	Brooklyn	Girls' High School	1894	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
2441	do	The Law Library in Brooklyn of the Second Judicial District.	1850	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
2442	do	Long Island Historical Society	1863	Hist	O.	C.	S.	R.
2443	Brooklyn (356 Bridge street).	Medical Society of the County of Kings.	1845	Med	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
2444	Brooklyn	Packer Collegiate Institute	1846	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
2445	do	Pratt Institute Free Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2446	Brooklyn (Flatlands)	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2447	Brooklyn (Driggs avenue, corner South Third street).	Public School Library, eastern district.	1866	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2448	Brooklyn	Rounds's (Miss) School for Girls	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
2449	do	St. Francis College	1883	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2450	do	St. James School	1870	Sch	....	C.	....	C.
2451	do	St. John's College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
5452	do	St. John's Orphan Home	1870	Asylum	....	C.	....	B.
2453	Brooklyn (626 Carlton avenue).	Spicer Memorial Library of Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn.	1891	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2454	Brooklyn	Training School for Teachers	1885	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2455	Brooklyn (502 Fulton street).	Y. M. C. A. Library	1854	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2456	Brooklyn (Schermerhorn street and Flatbush avenue).	Y. W. C. A. Library	1888	Y. W. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2457	Buffalo	Academy of the Sacred Heart	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2458	Buffalo (597 Main street).	The Buffalo Catholic Institute	1866	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2459	Buffalo	Buffalo High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
2460	do	Buffalo Historical Society	1862	Hist	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2461	do	Buffalo Library	1836	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2462	do	Buffalo Seminary	1851	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
2463	do	Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences	1863	Scien	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2464	Buffalo (Ellicott street).	Buffalo Turn Verein	1876	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
2465	Buffalo	Canisius College	1860	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2466	do	Eighth Judicial District, New York Law.	.....	Law	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2467	do	Erie Railroad Library	1874	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2468	Buffalo (154 Maple street).	German Martin Lutheran Seminary.	1854	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2469	Buffalo (26 Chippewa street).	German Young Men's Association	1841	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2470	Buffalo	Grosvenor Library	1859	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
4,971	229	65	24	976	60	.....	$673	$15,000	John F. Youngs, secretary.	2428
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. H. Carver, assistant librarian.	2429
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. Janette Reynolds, assistant librarian.	2430
1,560	.....	.....	.....	391	4	.....	.....	.....	Rebecca E. Young	2431
5,929	200	244	20	7,465	.....	.....	60	.....	Mabel A. Farr	2432
4,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....		2433
2,150	60	50	20	.....	.....	.....	70	.....	Julian W. Abernethy	2434
3,462	400	10	50	.....	15,000	.....	.....	.....	D. W. E. Burke	2435
14,000	4,000	300	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	218,000	Franklin W. Hooper, director.	2436
123,962	13,005	3,898	1,704	92,116	60,000	.....	21,238	93,000	Willis A. Bardwell	2437
3,400	.....	1,200	.....	9,000	3,000	.....	700	.....	H. S. Thorne, president	2438
33,862	400	3,510	.....	172,812	2,734	.....	7,198	.....	Miss Fanny Hull	2439
2,700	75	80	.....	.....	30,000	.....	5,000	.....	Calvin Patterson, principal.	2440
18,688	.....	1,157	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,700	.....	James D. Bell	2441
56,902	20,000	3,108	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,977	133,962	Emma Toedteberg	2442
8,000	3,000	502	628	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	William Browning, M. D.	2443
6,573	.....	272	.....	.....	.....	.....	669	.....	Hannah J. Garahan	2444
59,788	.....	3,594	.....	207,899	24,058	.....	1,471	.....	Mary W. Plummer	2445
1,055	50	23	5	400	100	$10	20	.....	Moses Becker, jr., principal.	2446
20,000	.....	.....	.....	24,800	4,500	.....	.....	.....	Arthur D. Stettson	2447
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2448
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2449
1,500	100	15	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	2450
8,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2451
1,100	550	40	100	.....	2,500	.....	.....	.....	Mother M. de Chantal, superintendent.	2452
7,500	.....	80	.....	700	.....	.....	500	10,000	Mary H. Chadwick	2453
3,000	100	50	.....	.....	1,000	.....	2,500	.....	Wm. Gallegher	2454
17,445	2,500	560	200	19,249	21,595	.....	3,500	5,500	Silas H. Berry	2455
7,060	.....	645	.....	23,262	.....	.....	.....	.....	Fanny D. Fish	2456
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2457
6,626	350	200	25	12,500	.....	.....	3,310	1,145	Eleanor E. Davie	2458
2,958	.....	520	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ada M. Kenyon, preceptress.	2459
8,895	6,860	321	635	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	E. D. Strickland, corresponding secretary.	2460
80,084	9,800	4,378	550	140,651	44,585	.....	17,470	342,856	J. N. Larned, superintendent.	2461
1,773	65	51	6	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Lucy L. Hartt	2462
3,581	585	174	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,810	24,278	Miss Jennie E. Lekron	2463
1,760	245	103	52	570	490	.....	150	.....	Frank Reuter	2464
18,500	2,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	Hubert A. Hartmann	2465
9,500	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,000	.....	Irving Browne	2466
4,000	50	150	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sue Dana Woolley	2467
1,620	194	9	5	.....	.....	.....	12	.....	Wm. Graban	2468
6,625	491	222	16	3,365	.....	.....	656	2,000	Theodore Ackerman	2469
39,000	.....	900	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,821	.....	.....	2470

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2471	Buffalo	Guard of Honor Library	1868	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
2472	.....do	High School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2473	Buffalo (320 Porter avenue).	Holy Angels Academy	1882	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
2474	Buffalo	Lutheran Young Men's Association.	1873	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
2475	.....do	Merchants' Exchange Library	1883	Mer	R.	.....	F.	R.
2476	Buffalo (219 Tonawanda street).	North Buffalo Catholic Association	1886	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2477	Buffalo	St. Joseph's College	.....	Col	....	.....	.....	B.
2478	Buffalo (24 High street).	University of Buffalo, Medical Department.	1845	Med	....	C.	F.	R.
2479	Buffalo	Y. M. C. A. Library	1853	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2480	Cambridge	Union School	1891	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2481	Camden	Free Library	1891	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
2482	Canajoharie	Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2483	Canandaigua	Canandaigua Academy	1795	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2484	.....do	Granger Place School	1876	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
2485	.....do	Union School	1888	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2486	.....do	Wood Library	1863	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2487	Canastota	Canastota Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2488	Canisteo	Canisteo Academy	1871	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
2489	Canton	St. Lawrence University, Hering Library.	1868	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2490	Carmel	Carmel Literary Union	1881	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
2491	.....do	Drew Seminary and Female College.	1866	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2492	Carthage	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2493	Catskill	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2494	Cattaraugus	Union Free School and Academy.	1887	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2495	Cazenovia	Cazenovia Seminary	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2496	.....do	Public Library Association	1886	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2497	Chateaugay	Union School Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2498	Chatham	Union Free School	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2499	Chester	Union School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2500	Chittenango	Yates Union School	1871	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2501	Claverack	Hudson River Institute	1854	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2502	Clifton Springs	Clifton Springs Sanitarium	.....	Gen	....	.....	.....	C.
2503	.....do	Peirce Library	1880	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2504	Clinton	Hamilton College	1812	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
2505	.....do	Houghton Seminary	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2506	.....do	Union School	1894	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2507	Clyde	High School	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	R.
2508	Cohoes	City Library	1851	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2509	Cold Spring	Haldane Union School	1890	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2510	College Point	Poppenhusen Institute	1868	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2511	Cooperstown	Union School	1870	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2512	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1887	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2513	Corning	Free Academy	1860	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2514	.....do	Library Association	1873	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2515	Cornwall-on-the-Hudson.	New York Military Academy	1889	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2516	.....do	Bard Hall	1895	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2517	Cortland	Franklin Hatch Library Association.	1886	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2518	.....do	State Normal School	1868	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2519	Crown Point	Chapel Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2520	Cuba	Circulating Library	1872	Gen	R.	.....	S.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$1,600	Fred. E. Williams, secretary house committee.	2471
2,438	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2472
2,101	200	52	50	1,000	2,300	.....	$11	.....	Sister St. Mary	2473
3,500	300	48	75	1,067	.....	.....	.....	.....	Julius R. Braeunlich	2474
2,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. Thurstone, secretary.	2475
1,628	.....	67	.....	1,282	.....	.....	704	.....	Jacob Kleutz, secretary	2476
2,500	200	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Brother Aelred	2477
4,813	25,000	693	4,000	.....	.....	.....	520	1,200	Emma L. Chappell	2478
6,750	50	415	12	10,878	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Wm. F. Hirsch, educational director.	2479
3,609	.....	150	.....	6,000	.....	$150	325	.....	.....	2480
1,157	.....	247	.....	9,572	.....	.....	452	1,482	Mrs. E. C. Case, secretary and librarian.	2481
1,301	220	184	4	1,000	.....	100	200	.....	E. P. Abell	2482
1,697	800	9	24	25	162	.....	.....	.....	J. F. Coar, principal	2483
1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Harriet Hasbrouck, secretary.	2484
3,251	380	146	60	.....	.....	225	350	.....	J. C. Norris	2485
5,000	.....	10	.....	2,600	.....	.....	119	.....	Miss I. P. Granger, president.	2486
1,218	55	69	10	.....	.....	125	150	.....	Geo. H. Ottaway, principal.	2487
1,377	50	7	8	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. D. Hood, B. A., principal.	2488
10,825	1,800	131	78	.....	.....	.....	255	1,100	H. F. Forbes, D. D	2489
1,744	.....	33	.....	510	.....	.....	50	.....	E. J. Foster, assistant librarian.	2490
2,500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James M. Yeager, D. D., president.	2491
1,200	800	.....	100	1,600	.....	.....	25	.....	M. F. Perry	2492
2,600	.....	300	.....	15,260	.....	800	1,000	.....	Emily F. Becker	2493
2,177	80	225	15	1,861	.....	100	200	.....	J. L. Walthart, principal	2494
3,405	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2495
3,200	.....	208	.....	8,696	.....	.....	469	.....	J. H. Ten Eyck Burr, secretary.	2496
1,020	200	130	50	1,254	.....	75	202	.....	W. J. Deans, principal	2497
2,713	.....	263	.....	12,000	.....	.....	400	.....	Miss Ella E. Wagar	2498
1,342	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2499
1,445	100	60	.....	.....	500	25	50	.....	William Marvin Fort	2500
1,600	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	A. Lincoln Travis	2501
2,506	.....	58	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John Q. Adams	2502
1,470	.....	67	.....	1,306	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. B. Titus	2503
33,758	13,290	898	2,499	3,207	.....	.....	1,455	.....	Melvine G. Dodge	2504
2,248	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2505
1,550	.....	312	.....	7,505	.....	150	300	.....	Lizzie Anderson	2506
1,689	100	57	.....	4,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. E. Ackerman	2507
3,717	700	.....	200	15,534	.....	500	696	.....	R. A. Ross	2508
2,000	600	150	50	2,000	200	75	193	.....	Otis Montrose, principal	2509
2,671	400	72	12	942	530	.....	198	.....	F. Martens	2510
3,317	.....	475	.....	3,000	25	.....	61	1,025	A. Abrams	2511
1,382	.....	80	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2512
1,164	.....	21	.....	.....	6,000	10	10	.....	Leigh R. Hunt	2513
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Harry C. Heermans, president.	2514
3,220	.....	150	.....	1,500	600	.....	200	.....	S. Jones, superintendent	2515
2,200	300	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	C. J. Wright, president.	2516
3,660	.....	132	.....	8,315	.....	.....	715	400	Miss Mary E. Hubbard.	2517
5,386	120	816	25	.....	.....	.....	1,189	.....	J. Edw. Banta	2518
1,081	72	51	56	2,299	.....	.....	15	.....	Herminie Hammond	2519
1,600	.....	70	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	1,000	Mrs. Robt. S. Armstrong	2520

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2521	Dansville	Public Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
2522	Delhi	Delaware Academy	1820	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2523	Deposit	Deposit Academy	.....	Gen	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2524	Dobbs Ferry	Misses Master's School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	R.
2525	Dolgeville	Free Library	1886	Social	....	C.	F.	B.
2526	Dryden	Southworth Library	1883	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
2527	Dunkirk	Library Association	1872	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2528	.....do	School District Library	1850	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
2529	East Aurora	Union School	1884	Sch	....	T.	F.	B
2530	East Syracuse	.....do	1887	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2531	Eddytown	Starkey Seminary	1849	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2532	Elbridge	Munroe Collegiate Institute	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2533	Elizabethtown	Circulating Library	1884	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2534	Ellenville	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
2535	Elmira	Elmira College	1855	Col	....	C.	....	B.
2536	.....do	Elmira Farmers' Club	1870	Soc	....	.....	....	B.
2537	.....do	Free Academy	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2538	.....do	New York State Reformatory	1876	A. & R.	....	T.	....	B.
2539	.....do	Steele Memorial Library	1883	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
2540	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1858	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2541	Fayetteville	Union School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2542	Fishkill-on-Hudson.	De Garmo Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
2543	Flushing	Flushing Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2544	.....do	Free Library	1859	Gen	O.	C.	F.	C.
2545	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2546	Fonda	Union School	1887	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2547	Forestville	Forestville Free Academy	1867	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2548	Fort Edward	Fort Edward Collegiate Institute	1854	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2549	.....do	Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2550	Fort Hamilton	Free Library	1893	Gen	.....	.....	.....	.....
2551	Fort Plain	Clinton Liberal Institute	1832	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2552	.....do	Free Library	1885	Gen	R.	C.	F.	C.
2553	Frankfort	Free School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2554	Franklin	Delaware Literary Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
2555	Fredonia	Darwin R. Barker Library	1883	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
2556	.....do	State Normal School	1869	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2557	Friendship	High School	1890	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2558	Fulton	Public Library	1896	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2559	Fultonville	Starin Library	1888	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2560	Garden City	Cathedral of the Incarnation of St. Paul's School.	1884	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2561	.....do	St. Mary's Cathedral School	.....	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
2562	Geneva	Classical and Union School	.....	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
2563	.....do	De Lancey Divinity School	1861	Theo	....	C.	F.	B.
2564	.....do	Hobart College	1822	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
2565	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1890	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2566	Gilbertsville	Free Library	1889	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
2567	Glencoe	Hopkins (Miss) School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	B.
2568	Glens Falls	Crandall Free Library	1852	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2569	.....do	Glens Falls Academy	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2570	Gloversville	Free Library	1880	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2571	Goshen	Library and Historical Society	1894	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
2572	Gouverneur	High School	1828	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,750		200		18,799		$500	$709		W. G. Carmer, trustee	2521
2,200	840	15	60	417	42				W. D. Graves	2522
1,707				1,200		150	300		Geo. W. Pye	2523
2,500										2524
1,776		7		762			1,180		Rudolf Ruedemann	2525
5,708							200	$30,000	Cora Bower Holden	2526
1,788		85					138			2527
1,102		45		1,580			71		J. W. Babcock, superintendent.	2528
2,248		303		11,278		150	300			2529
1,600	100	100	10			50	100		Edwin H. Chase, superintendent.	2530
3,000	200	200	50	1,000					C. C. Wilcox, principal	2531
1,206										2532
1,500							350		Elizabeth V. Hale	2533
1,618		93		15,125		400	400		Retta L. Russell	2534
5,000	300		120				437		Emma K. Clark	2535
1,400									C. Compton, vice-president.	2536
2,248	1,000	96	100			75	125		Charles W. Evans, principal.	2537
4,177		450							Z. R. Brockway, general superintendent.	2538
5,000		300							Mrs. Mary C. Norton	2539
2,500	500									2540
1,662				705					Frank J. House	2541
3,000										2542
1,335									Elias A. Fairchild, principal.	2543
6,000	250	225		12,500			726		Walter L. Bogert, secretary.	2544
2,175		175		700					J. Ely	2545
1,280		110				104	208		Charles A. Coons, principal.	2546
1,000	100	25	10	1,200	400				Virginia Hillebert	2547
1,000		50					100		Jos. E. King	2548
1,550	12	150				69	126		W. C. Coleman, principal.	2549
1,480										2550
3,900	325	50	90	525			1		Kittie Clover	2551
1,063		43					120		Annie L. Green, president.	2552
1,000		150				150	250		T. P. Farrell, president board of education; board of trustees.	2553
2,000										2554
4,227	128	387		5,078		350	633	1,375	Isabelle B. Greene	2555
2,000	100	435							Franklin N. Jewett	2556
1,000	100	40	100	800		40	90			2557
3,000				1,200	126				B. G. Clapp, principal	2558
1,300		30		2,400					Henrietta Y. Cross	2559
5,000	200		200		1,000				D. C. Sayers, secretary	2560
5,000									Elizabeth L. Koues, principal.	2561
4,154										2562
1,000		70						900	Charles Wells Hayes, D. D.	2563
32,053	5,796	1,075	772	3,503			51,895	55,000	Chas. D. Vail	2564
1,776		140							Ernest L. Mogge, general secretary.	2565
1,095	42			3,445			250	4,800		2566
2,000									(Mrs.) Mary H. Hopkins	2567
6,239		295		34,278		500	1,700		Sherman Williams, superintendent of schools.	2568
6,000										2569
13,668	1,125	1,205	125	62,368	5,391	2,000	14,534	6,300	A. L. Peck	2570
1,755		150		1,289			350		Robert B. Clark, president.	2571
1,043		244				110	220		John C. Bliss	2572

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2573	Gouverneur	Reading Room Association	1885	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2574	Greene	Union School and Academy	1882	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2575	Greenport	Greenport Union School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2576	Greenwich	Circulating Library	.....	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2577	.....do	Union Library	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2578	Hamburg	Union School	1847	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2579	Hamilton	Colgate Academy	1873	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2580	.....do	Colgate University	1820	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2581	.....do	Beta Theta Society	1880	Col. Soc	R.	C.	....	R.
2582	.....do	Hamilton Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F	B.
2583	Hammondsport	Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2584	Hartwick Seminary	Hartwick Seminary	1815	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2585	Haverstraw	King's Daughters Public Library	1896	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2586	Hempstead	Hempstead Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2587	.....do	Union Free School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2588	Herkimer	Free Library	1896	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2589	Highland Falls	.....do	1884	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
2590	Himrods	Georgic Library	1855	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
2591	Hogansburg	Hogansburg Academy	1886	Sch	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
2592	Holland Patent	Union Free School	1802	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2593	Homer	Homer Academy	1819	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2594	Hoosick Falls	Union Free School	.....	Sch	R.	T.	F.	C.
2595	Hornellsville	Hornell Free Academy	1882	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
2596	.....do	Hornell Free Library	1868	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2597	Hudson	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2598	.....do	Y. M. C. Association	1866	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2599	Huntington	Library Association	1875	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2600	.....do	Union School	1858	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2601	Ilion	Free Public Library	1893	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2602	.....do	Ilion District Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2603	Irvington	School Library, District No. 2	1885	Sch	....	T.	F.	C.
2604	Islip	Library Association	1884	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
2605	Ithaca	Cornell Library Association	1864	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2606	.....do	Cornell University	1868	Col	O.	C.	Fr	B.
2607	Jamaica	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2608	Jamestown	High School	1867	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2609	Jamestown	James Prendergast Free Library	1880 / 1890	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2610	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	.....	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	F.	B.
2611	Johnstown	School Library	.....	Sch	R.	T.	F.	B.
2612	Jordan	Free Academy Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2613	Katonah	Village Improvement Association Library.	1880	Gen	R.	.....	Fr	B.
2614	Keeseville	Union School Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2615	Keuka College	Keuka College	1890	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2616	Kings Park	Society of St. Johnsland	.....	Social	....	.....	....	B.
2617	Kingston	Golden Hill School	.....	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2618	.....do	Kingston Free Academy	1774	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2619	.....do	Kingston School District Library	1838	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2620	.....do	Third Judicial District Law Library.	1874	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
2621	Lansingburg	Public School Library	.....	Sch	R.	.....	F.	C.
2622	Leroy	Ladies Library Association	1875	Gen	....	.....	S.	C.
2623	.....do	Union School Library	1891	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2624	Liberty	Public Library	1894	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2625	Lima	Genesee Wesleyan Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,382	.....	63	.....	2,727	1,872	.....	$726	.....	Jessie E. Paul	2573
1,200	50	25	5	600	50	$25	50	.....	M. S. Parker, secretary	2574
1,076	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2575
1,669	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	George E. Dorr	2576
1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2577
1,350	.....	200	.....	1,200	.....	180	360	.....	Bryant and Heath, principals.	2578
2,000	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	E. P. Sissan, acting principal.	2579
24,221	.....	524	.....	3,035	.....	.....	2,450	$25,000	Ralph W. Thomas, acting librarian.	2580
1,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. W. Strobel	2581
1,300	.....	75	.....	1,200	.....	50	100	.....	C. H. Van Tuyl	2582
4,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2583
4,495	260	19	16	500	2	.....	10	200	J. L. Kistler	2584
1,000	.....	350	.....	3,583	.....	.....	1,061	.....	.....	2585
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2586
1,300	.....	80	.....	.....	.....	25	50	.....	W. S. Newton	2587
4,309	43	4,309	.....	4,971	.....	950	35,750	.....	Mary Louise Avery	2588
1,300	300	50	.....	15,600	75	.....	1,000	.....	Gertrude P. Parry	2589
1,800	400	3	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Louis A. Cheney	2590
1,879	376	39	301	.....	1,037	.....	359	112	Sr. M. Stanislaus McGarr, principal.	2591
1,050	.....	15	.....	1,000	.....	50	67	.....	H. A. Pride, secretary	2592
1,560	100	10	10	4,000	.....	.....	105	1,000	E. L. Stone	2593
2,300	.....	110	.....	4,382	.....	130	170	.....	E. G. Merrett	2594
2,704	200	350	50	.....	.....	200	400	.....	W. R. Prentice, superintendent.	2595
10,000	.....	500	.....	30,000	.....	.....	1,590	.....	R. M. Tuttle, chairman of managers.	2596
5,000	.....	20	.....	4,390	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. Mace Smith	2597
1,370	29	148	11	160	.....	.....	.....	.....	Herbert W. Rice, general secretary.	2598
3,500	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	395	.....	Mrs. A. S. Conklin	2599
1,200	200	30	20	100	.....	25	50	.....	C. J. Jennings, A. B	2600
8,733	973	315	226	40,915	.....	1,750	2,179	3,000	Anna H. Perkins	2601
1,008	.....	87	.....	5,079	.....	219	419	.....	.....	2602
2,195	.....	.....	.....	1,090	.....	50	75	.....	Alice S. Cavarly	2603
1,000	4	95	.....	1,354	.....	.....	90	.....	Ella S. Clock	2604
20,000	5,000	1,500	300	15,000	7,000	.....	3,700	85,000	Alonzo B. Cornell	2605
180,600	30,400	12,115	1,200	12,437	81,070	.....	31,892	301,000	Geo. W. Harris	2606
3,000	.....	200	.....	10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2607
3,128	137	41	17	7,936	8,961	646	670	.....	Calista S. Jones	2608
12,440	1,000	2,440	800	52,190	5,000	.....	5,900	100,000	Mary Emogene Hazeltine.	2609
1,455	74	83	.....	.....	.....	.....	237	.....	Chas. N. Ramsey, general secretary.	2610
7,412	2,875	343	.....	7,000	5,000	260	520	.....	Wm. S. Snyder	2611
1,239	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Adelbert E. Brace, president board of education.	2612
1,500	75	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	258	.....	.....	2613
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40	.....	Leland L. Landers, principal.	2614
1,380	.....	23	.....	.....	.....	.....	30	.....	Mrs. Annette M. Myers, secretary.	2615
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2616
2,300	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John W. Cross	2617
1,365	665	25	.....	183	.....	96	106	.....	M. J. Michael	2618
2,785	581	186	.....	783	.....	150	185	.....	Charles M. Ryon, superintendent of schools.	2619
9,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	T. B. Westbrook	2620
1,887	.....	.....	.....	2,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. J. Shelliday, clerk board of education.	2621
2,000	.....	80	.....	3,000	.....	.....	240	.....	Catharine Cameron	2622
1,256	.....	115	.....	400	.....	50	119	.....	Emma Henderson	2623
1,053	.....	153	.....	2,299	.....	100	155	.....	Miss N. A. Ward, secretary.	2624
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2625

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2626	Littlefalls	Public School Library	.....	Sch	R.	T.	F.	B.
2627	Lockport	St. Joseph's Academy	1866	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2628	.....do	Union School Library	1803	Gen	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2629	Locust Valley	Friends' Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2630	Long Island City	Public Library	1896	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2631	Lowville	Lowville Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2632	Lyons	School Library, District No. 6	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2633	.....do	Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2634	Malone	Village School District Library	.....	Sch	O.	T.	F.	B.
2635	Manlius	Union School	1877	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2636	Marathon	Peck Memorial Library	1896	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2637	Maspeth	Union Free School	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2638	Matteawan	Howland Circulating Library	1872	Gen	O.	.....	S.	B.
2639	Mayville	Union School	1857	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2640	Medina	High School	1854	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2641	Mexico	Mexico Academy	1826	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2642	Middleburg	Union School	1885	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2643	Middletown	Leonora Bolles Memorial Library	1891	Asylum	O.	T.	....	B.
2644	.....do	Public School Library	1879	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2645	Montour Falls	Cook Academy	1872	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2646	Moravia	Powers Library	1880	Gen	O.	.....	S.	B.
2647	Morris	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	C.
2648	Mount Morris	Union School	1857	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2649	Mount Vernon	Public Library	1896	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2650	Naples	Naples Academy	.....	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2651	Newark	Union School and Academy	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2652	New Brighton	Sailors' Snug Harbor	1833	Social	....	C.	....	B.
2653	.....do	Trinity English and Classical School.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2654	Newburg	Free Library	1852	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2655	.....do	Mackie's (Miss) Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2656	.....do	Newburg Theological Seminary	1805	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2657	.....do	Second Judicial District Law Library.	.....	Law	R.	T.	F.	R.
2658	Newpaltz	Newpaltz Normal School	1886	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2659	New Rochelle	Post Library	.....	Gar	....	.....	....	B.
2660	.....do	Public Library	1893	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2661	New York City	Academy of Mount St. Vincent	1846	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
2662	New York City (197 East Broadway).	Aguilar Free Library	1886	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2663	New York City	American Bible Society	1816	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2664	.....do	American Chemical Society	1876	Soc	R.	C.	F.	R.
2665	New York City (77th street and 8th avenue).	American Ethnological Society	1842	Scien	....	C.	F.	R.
2666	New York City (11 W. 29th street).	American Geographical Society	1852	Soc	O.	C.	S.	R.
2667	New York City (111–115 W. 38th street).	American Institute	1829	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
2668	New York City (77th street and 8th avenue).	American Museum of Natural History.	1870	Scien	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2669	New York City (17 West 43d street).	American Numismatic and Archæological Society.	1858	Scien	....	C.	S.	R.
2670	New York City (127 East 23d street).	American Society of Civil Engineers.	1852	Scien	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2671	New York City (Station K).	Aschenbroedel Verein	1898	Social	....	C.	F.	B.
2672	New York City (7 West 29th street).	Association of the Bar of the City of New York.	1870	Law	O.	.....	S.	R.
2673	New York City (20 West 44th street).	Berkeley School	1894	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2674	New York City	Blackwells Island Penitentiary	.....	Reform	....	C.	....	C.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Book issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total come.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
4,000	100	1,000	20	4,587	100	$500	$1,500	.....	T. H. Caswell	2626
1,100	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2627
5,656	400	326	50	15,844	5,000	600	832	.....	Emmet Belknap	2628
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2629
5,000	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,260	.....	(Miss) Miriam S. Draper, acting librarian.	2630
3,934	492	100	25	619	.....	.....	75	.....	Lincoln E. Rowley	2631
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2632
2,200	.....	158	.....	1,669	.....	89	178	.....	F. H. Gardner	2633
5,900	.....	50	.....	12,200	1,525	1,000	1,229	.....	D. H. Stanton, district clerk.	2634
1,000	50	110	5	600	.....	9	100	.....	A. Meeley, principal	2635
1,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,150	.....	C. A. Brooks	2636
3,000	200	100	20	.....	800	25	50	.....	Arthur C. Mitchell, principal.	2637
6,065	.....	158	.....	6,054	.....	.....	1,000	$13,000	Mrs. Joseph N. Badeau	2638
1,100	40	120	10	1,276	2,742	127	190	.....	T. E. Lockhart, A. M	2639
1,386	.....	210	.....	1,870	176	250	450	.....	Henry Pease	2640
1,600	600	200	100	.....	.....	25	210	.....	C. W. Skinner	2641
1,100	.....	.....	.....	6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. M. Marow	2642
2,144	15	30	.....	5,810	.....	.....	.....	.....	Selden H. Talcott	2643
6,900	200	135	25	26,378	.....	1,400	1,494	.....	Mary K. Vankemen	2644
2,174	500	20	100	364	500	.....	29,026	78,658	R. W. Swetland, principal.	2645
3,845	160	8	12	380	.....	.....	62	.....	Mrs. Isaac Butler	2646
1,000	400	75	.....	1,000	500	.....	150	.....	George R. Greene, acting principal.	2647
1,000	.....	13	.....	555	.....	75	245	.....	Ida Kelsall	2648
5,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	2,950	.....	Henry E. Rhoades, secretary.	2649
1,000	.....	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	95	.....	Wm. C. Noll, principal	2650
1,500	.....	30	.....	1,000	.....	50	200	.....	Della M. Young	2651
4,000	.....	50	.....	12,775	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. D. J. Trask, governor.	2652
1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2653
20,663	.....	639	.....	67,700	.....	3,500	5,577	.....	Chas. Estabrook	2654
1,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2655
3,500	.....	225	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. G. D. Findley	2656
4,600	.....	500	.....	.....	4,600	.....	2,600	.....	Howard S. Thornton, treasurer.	2657
2,800	100	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	K. A. Gage	2658
3,057	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. M. Andrews	2659
3,121	.....	750	.....	15,658	.....	3,500	3,774	.....	Albert O. Owen, secretary and treasurer.	2660
5,000	2,666	40	300	3,500	1,365	.....	106	.....	Mary W. Brennan	2661
31,166	.....	4,045	.....	256,963	.....	.....	13,852	.....	Pauline Leipziger	2662
5,486	.....	186	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edward W. Gilman	2663
2,000	.....	20	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. E. Dodge	2664
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anthony Woodward, Ph. D.	2665
18,000	26,000	538	2,215	.....	.....	.....	115,169	.....	Geo. C. Hurlbut	2666
13,848	.....	48	.....	18	2,500	.....	.....	.....	Geo. Whitefield, jr	2667
34,000	30,000	600	400	.....	12,000	.....	.....	.....	Anthony Woodward, Ph. D.	2668
1,800	6,000	89	491	.....	.....	.....	913	.....	Herbert Valentine	2669
7,982	9,282	467	345	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles Warren Hunt	2670
2,400	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Moritz Werner	2671
50,039	.....	3,826	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. J. C. Berry	2672
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Franklin H. Fowler	2673
1,500	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Louis D. Pilsbury	2674

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2675	New York City (395 Broome street).	Broome Street Free Library	1885	Gen	O	C.	F.	B.
2676	New York City	Bryson Library (Teachers' College).	1887	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B
2677	New York City (126 West 25th street).	Cabinet de Lecture	1884	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
2678	New York City	Cathedral Free Circulating Library.	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2679	New York City (120 West 59th street).	Catholic Club Library	1871	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2680	New York City	Century Association	1847	Soc	....	C.	S.	R.
2681	New York City (City Hall).	City Library	1847	Gen	....	.....	F.	R.
2682	New York City (17 Lexington avenue).	College of the City of New York	1852	Col	....	T.	....	B.
2683	New York City (668 East 134th street).	Clionian Society	1852	Col. Soc	....	C.	....	B.
2684	New York City (115–119 West 68th street)	College of Pharmacy of the City of New York.	1829	Sci	....	C.	F.	B.
2685	New York City (30 West 16th street).	College of St. Francis Xavier	1847	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2686	New York City (95 Rivington street).	College Settlement Library	1889	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
2687	New York City	Columbia University	1754	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2688	New York City (32 West 40th street).	Comstock School	.....	Gen	R	.....	....	B.
2689	New York City	Cooper Union	1857	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
2690	New York City (108 Central Park).	De La Salle Institute	.....	Col	....	C.	....	R.
2691	New York City (280 Rivington street).	De Witt Memorial Free Library	1882	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2692	New York City (340 West 86th street).	Ely's (Misses) School for Girls	1886	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
2693	New York City (120 Broadway).	Equitable Life Assurance Law Library.	1876	Law	....	C.	....	R.
2694	New York City (Manhattanville).	Female Academy of the Sacred Heart.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2695	New York City (63 Park street).	Five Points Mission Free Reading Room.	1868	Soc	....	C.	F.	R.
2696	New York City	Foreign Mission Library (Presbyterian Church).	1837	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2697	New York City (226 West 42d street).	Free Circulating Library	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2698	New York City (7 East 15th street).	Free Circulating Library of Y. W. C. A.	1870	Y.W.C.A.	....	C.	F.	B.
2699	New York City (18 East 16th street).	Free Library of the General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen.	1820	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2700	New York City (226 East 16th street).	Friends' Literary and Library Association.	1880	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2701	New York City	General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church.	1817	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2702	New York City (137 2d avenue).	German Hospital and Dispensary	1857	Med	....	C.	F.	B.
2703	New York City (Masonic Hall).	Grand Lodge F. & A. M.	1868	Masonic	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2704	New York City (29 East 32d street).	Grolier Club	1884	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2705	New York City (Station J, 32 West 23d street).	Harlem Library	1825	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2706	New York City (45 West 42d street).	Harmonic Club Library	1852	Social	....	C.	....	B.
2707	New York City (27 West 44th street.)	Harvard Club	1887	Social	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2708	New York City	Health Department	1866	Med	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2709	.....do	Hebrew Orphan Asylum	1876	A. and R.	....	C.	....	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,250	8	42	.....	851	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. E. Waste	2675
6,489	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$2,000	.....	Margaret Grey, assistant librarian.	2676
4,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. Dermigny	2677
20,762	308	1,504	68	59,169	6,013	.....	1,590	.....	Agnes Wallace	2678
20,000	2,500	250	100	269	125	.....	.....	.....	James F. Martin	2679
12,000	.....	340	98	.....	.....	.....	3,500	.....	J. Herbert Senter	2680
6,300	.....	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,000	.....	Philip Baer	2681
29,800	350	937	110	5,618	.....	.....	1,468	$37,000	Chas. G. Hubermann	2682
1,243	75	62	21	67	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. W. Hottenroth	2683
4,603	1,467	26	50	.....	.....	.....	700	.....	O. J. Griffin, assistant secretary.	2684
39,000	4,800	1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	800	.....	James P. Fagan, S. J	2685
2,500	.....	150	.....	15,000	.....	.....	60	.....	Miss A. Hall	2686
220,000	.....	24,839	.....	53,471	.....	.....	67,882	112,000	Geo. H. Baker	2687
1,100	340	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lydia Day	2688
33,569	.....	1,297	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	435,000	L. C. L. Jordan, assistant secretary.	2689
5,000	1,000	50	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brother Paul, F. S. C	2690
2,350	.....	.....	.....	8,162	.....	.....	.....	.....	Malcolm R. Birnie	2691
5,000	400	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Elizabeth L. Ely	2692
14,726	.....	380	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thomas Campbell	2693
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2694
2,050	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. K. Sanford, superintendent.	2695
7,000	400	677	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. Henry Grant	2696
81,785	.....	4,925	.....	654,451	27,665	.....	43,191	46,775	Arthur E. Bostwick, Ph. D	2697
24,910	.....	1,300	.....	64,529	4,480	.....	3,965	.....	Sarah W. Cattell	2698
108,000	.....	4,000	.....	247,906	4,205	.....	25,000	.....	Jacob Schwartz	2699
1,225	.....	107	.....	218	137	.....	152	.....	John Cox, jr	2700
26,367	.....	767	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,635	6,000	E. A. Hoffman, dean	2701
5,600	.....	135	.....	80	.....	.....	705	.....	Hermann G. Klotz, M. D	2702
10,000	1,000	350	100	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	E. Laewenstein	2703
4,178	.....	336	.....	.....	.....	.....	976	.....	Richard Hoe Lawrence	2704
19,000	.....	935	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	George M. Perry	2705
13,692	.....	482	.....	8,264	.....	.....	1,660	.....	Hugo Hoffman	2706
1,160	1,500	90	300	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	C. Alex. Nelson	2707
1,559	400	500	58	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	.....	2708
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. Hermann Baar, superintendent.	2709

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2710	New York City (343 West 42d street).	Holy Cross Academy	1870	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
2711	New York City (Station O).	Home for Young Women	1857	Gen	R.	C	....	R.
2712	New York City (111–119 East 58th street).	Liederkranz Library	1868	Soc	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2713	New York City (3477 3d avenue).	"Literarische Gesellschaft von Morrisaria."	1883	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
2714	New York City (558 5th avenue).	Lotos Club	1870	Gen	....	C.	S.	R
2715	New York City (203 East 57th street).	Maimonides Library	1851	Gen	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
2716	New York City (Grand Boulevard and West 131st street).	Manhattan College	1863	Col	....	T.	S.	R.
2717	New York City	Maritime Exchange	1874	Mer	....	C.	....	R.
2718	New York City (12 West 31st street).	Mechanical Engineers	1890	Sci	O.	C.	F.	R.
2719	New York City	Medico-Legal Society	1872	Law	....	C.	....	R.
2720	.... do	Mercantile Library Association	1820	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2721	New York City (150 5th avenue).	Methodist Library	.....	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2722	New York City	Metropolis Law School	.....	Law	....	C.	....	....
2723	.....do	Metropolitan Museum of Art	1880	Sci	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2724	New York City (Governors Island).	Military Service Institution	1879	Gar	....	C.	....	B.
2725	New York City (26 Delancey street)	Neighborhood Guild Library	1887	Soc	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
2726	New York City (44 2d avenue).	Nativity Church Library	1893	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
2727	New York City (17–19–21 West 43d street).	New York Academy of Medicine	1847	Med	....	C.	F.	B.
2728	New York City (Columbia University).	New York Academy of Sciences	1818	Sci	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2729	New York City (105 East 22d street).	New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.	.....	Soc	....	.....	F.	R.
2730	New York City (222 2d avenue).	New York Eye and Ear Infirmary	1894	Med	....	C	....	R.
2731	New York City (226 West 58th street).	New York Genealogical and Biographical Society.	1869	Soc	....	C.	S.	R.
2732	New York City (170 2d avenue).	New York Historical Society	1804	Hist	....	C.	S.	R.
2733	New York City (63d street and Avenue A).	New York Homeopathic Medical College.	1880	Med	....	C.	F.	R.
2734	New York City (6 West 16th street).	New York Hospital	1771	Med	....	C.	F.	B.
2735	New York City (Station L, Harlem).	New York House of Refuge	1825	Reform	....	C.	....	R.
2736	New York City (412 9th avenue).	New York Institution for the Blind.	1831	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2737	New York City (Station M).	New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.	1829	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2738	New York City (176th street and Amsterdam avenue).	New York Juvenile Asylum	1852	A. and R.	....	.....	....	B.
2739	New York City	New York Law Institute	1828	Law	....	.....	Fr.	B.
2740	New York City (46 Catharine street).	New York Port Society	1818	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2741	New York City (34 West 26th street).	New York Press Club	1874	Gen	R.	C.	S.	R.
2742	New York City	New York Produce Exchange	1872	Mer	....	C.	....	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Names of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,000	84	500	2	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	Sister M. Helena	2710
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	I. F. Marsh, superintendent.	2711
6,010	.....	247	.....	5,964	.....	.....	$550	.....	G. Otto Wolkwitz	2712
1,277	281	146	19	581	.....	.....	276	.....	P. J. Moog	2713
1,500	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Curtis Bell, cashier	2714
45,131	68,107	748	106	94,828	35,537	.....	2,319	.....	Josephine Bacharach	2715
8,485	2,299	315	.....	460	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brother John Chrysostom, secretary.	2716
1,500	2,000	130	250	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	F. W. Houghton, superintendent.	2717
3,200	400	100	100	.....	.....	.....	7,575	.....	F. R. Hutton, board of trustees.	2718
1,500	2,000	.....	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Clark Bell, secretary	2719
252,954	.....	6,113	524	142,175	37,389	.....	26,970	.....	W. T. Peoples	2720
10,000	3,000	150	750	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Joseph Conable Thomas, A. M.	2721
1,380	345	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2722
4,230	1,058	265	88	.....	.....	.....	1,023	$7,200	Wm. L. Andrews	2723
10,000	1,000	500	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. Bush, treasurer	2724
2,714	.....	420	.....	28,290	.....	.....	520	.....	Helen Moore	2725
1,200	.....	40	.....	2,500	.....	.....	10	.....	B. J. Reilly (Rev.)	2726
45,000	.....	2,039	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,500	20,000	John S. Browne, president.	2727
8,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Arthur Hallick	2728
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. H. Tolman, general agent.	2729
1,000	3,000	700	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. L. Dennett	2730
3,703	3,896	293	862	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rich'd E. Greene	2731
85,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2732
3,000	2,000	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	George Janson	2733
22,846	.....	798	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank P. Foster, M. D.	2734
4,162	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	12,039	George B. Dixon, clerk.	2735
5,000	.....	39	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. B. Wart, superintendent.	2736
7,386	12,974	328	814	2,393	378	.....	.....	4,200	Thomas Francis Fox	2737
1,200	500	300	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. P. Garrabrant, first assistant superintendent.	2738
44,447	37	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. H. Winters	2739
1,000	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. B. Wagar, financial agent.	2740
3,830	2,600	146	82	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Arthur Loring Mackaye	2741
2,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James K. Patrick	2742

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2743	New York City (66-68 East 4th street).	New York Turnverein	1850	Gen	....	C.	....	C.
2744	New York City (University Heights).	New York University	1831	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
2745	New York City (67 Madison avenue.)	New York Yacht Club	....	Sci	....	C.	....	R.
2746	New York City	Normal College Alumnæ Library	1886	Col	....	C.	....	R.
2747	New York City (Station D).	Olivet Memorial Church Library	1876	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
2748	New York City (Gramercy Park).	Players' Library	....	Soc	....	C.	....	B.
2749	New York City (21 Coenties Slip).	Protestant Episcopal Seamen's Society (Out-door Station)	1876	Soc	R.	C.	F.	R.
2750	New York City (40 Lafayette Place).	Public Library	....	Gen	O.	.....	F.	R.
2751	New York City (233 5th avenue).	Reform Club	1889	Scien	....	C.	....	R.
2752	New York City	St. Agnes Free Public Library	1894	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2753	New York City (City Hospital, Blackwells Island).	St. Elizabeth's Guild	1877	Social	....	C.	F.	B.
2754	New York City (5th street, near Avenue B).	St. Francis Hospital Library	1865	Gen	....	C.	....	C.
2755	New York City (207 East 16th street).	St. George's Free Circulating Library.	1893	Social	....	C.	....	C.
2756	New York City (Station T).	St. John's College	1845	Col	....	.....	S.	B.
2757	New York City (6-8 East 46th street).	St. Mary's School	1890	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
2758	New York City (137-139 Henry street).	St. Teresa s Ursuline Academy	1874	Col	....	T.	S.	B.
2759	New York City (29 East 29th street).	School Libraries	....	Sch	....	C.	....	C.
2760	New York City (406 West 20th street).	Society Home Study of Holy Scriptures.	1889	Theo	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
2761	New York City (109 University place).	Society Library	1700	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
2762	New York City	Society for the Relief of the Ruptured and Crippled.	1872	Sch	....	C.	....	C.
2763	New York City (34 West 60th street).	Spalding Literary Union	1885	Soc	....	C.	S.	R.
2764	New York City (155 East 58th street).	Technical Society of New York	1874	Scien	R.	C.	F.	B.
2765	New York City	Theological Seminary	1837	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2766	New York City (106 Fulton street).	Typothetæ of the City of New York.	1883	Soc	R.	C.	F.	R.
2767	New York City (1 East 39th street).	Union League Club	1863	Social	....	C.	S.	R.
2768	New York City (32 East 26th street).	University Club	1879	Social	R.	.....	....	R.
2769	New York City (26 Delancey street).	University Settlement	....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2770	New York City (280 West 71st street).	Van Norman Institute	1857	Sch	R.	.....	....	R.
2771	New York City (Amsterdam avenue and 156th street).	Washington Heights Free Library.	1868	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2772	New York City (foot East 76th street).	Webster Free Library	1894	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2773	New York City (109-111 West 77th street).	Weil's School for Girls	1867	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2774	New York City (19 Clinton place).	Woman's Library	1864	Social	....	C.	F.	B.
2775	New York City	Workhouse Library	1876	Reform	....	C.	....	C.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,500	350	65	36	2,200	.....	.....	$125	$100	Henry Wewerka	2743
30,985	605	3,321	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,990	.....	L. J. Tompkins	2744
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. Morris	2745
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edith M. Rice, secretary.	2746
2,475	.....	305	.....	6,019	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2747
3,000	.....	107	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2748
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Isaac Maguire, president.	2749
397,850	14,000	12,417	.....	.....	262,264	.....	150,000	.....	John S. Billings, director.	2750
7,500	760	495	230	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Ritchie	2751
2,617	.....	537	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	.....	2752
1,000	.....	.....	.....	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emil Borck	2753
1,030	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sisters of the Poor	2754
4,100	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	.....	40	.....	Emma A. Bays	2755
33,600	.....	300	.....	6,000	1,500	.....	150	.....	.....	2756
3,100	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sister Superior	2757
1,000	500	50	100	800	100	.....	60	.....	M. Irene	2758
2,373	.....	125	.....	2,373	.....	.....	100	.....	Mrs. Lois B. Ely, principal.	2759
3,500	200	200	.....	800	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	2760
100,000	.....	1,500	390	27,174	5,000	.....	9,725	75,000	F. B. Bigelow	2761
1,300	.....	90	.....	.....	650	.....	.....	.....	.....	2762
1,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	George F. Dalton	2763
3,000	1,000	.....	.....	110	110	.....	.....	.....	J. S. Chirurg, corresponding secretary.	2764
70,000	25,000	1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	4,500	80,000	.....	2765
2,000	5,000	12	150	2,000	.....	.....	1,800	.....	W. W. Pasko	2766
10,602	.....	859	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. B. Child	2767
13,008	.....	1,024	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,034	.....	Lyman H. Bagg	2768
2,500	110	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2769
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2770
10,000	.....	4,440	.....	29,219	1,102	.....	.....	.....	Alma Rogers Van Hoevenberg, assistant librarian.	2771
5,775	.....	1,107	.....	229,988	200	.....	2,200	.....	Wm. Stone Booth	2772
2,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2773
1,500	.....	.....	.....	30	75	.....	.....	.....	M. J. Kemp, superintendent.	2774
1,363	1,310	300	500	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. F. Mead	2775

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2776	New York City (52 East 23d street).	Y. M. C. A. Library	1852	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	R.
2777	New York City (5 West 125th street).	Y. M. C. A. (Harlem Branch) Library.	1868	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2778	New York City (361 Madison avenue).	Y. M. C. A. (Railroad Branch) Library.	1887	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2779	New York City (222 Bowery).	Young Men's Institute Library	1885	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2780	New York City (Station O).	Young Woman's Home	1857	Gen	R.	C.	....	C.
2781	Niagara Falls	De Veaux College	1853	Col	....	C.	....	R.
2782	.....do	Public Library	1840	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2783	Niagara University	Niagara University	1857	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
2784	North Chili	A. M. Chesbrough Seminary	1869	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2785	North Tonawanda	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2786	Nyack	Nyack Library	1880	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2787	.....do	Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2788	Ogdensburg	Public Library	1893	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2789	Olean	Foreman Library	1871	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2790	.....do	School Library (High)	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2791	Oneida	High School	1880	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2792	Oneonta	Public Library	1892	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2793	.....do	State Normal School	1889	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2794	Onondaga Valley	Alexandria Library	1811	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2795	Oswego	City Library	1853	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
2796	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2797	.....do	State Normal and Training School	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2798	Ovid	Union School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2799	Owego	Free Library	1868	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2800	Oxford	Oxford Academy	1794	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2801	Palmyra	Classical Union School	1849	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2802	Peekskill	Field Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2803	.....do	The Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2804	Penn Yan	Public Library	1895	Gen	....	.....	F.	B.
2805	Pine Plains	Free Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2806	Plattsburg	High School	1890	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2807	.....do	Public Library	1894	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2808	.....do	State Normal School	1891	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2809	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	.....	Y.M.C.A	R.	C.	S.	B.
2810	Poplar Ridge	Hazard Library	1884	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2811	Port Byron	Free School and Academy	1860	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2812	Port Chester	Library and Reading Room	1876	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2813	.....do	Pemberwick Library	1880	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2814	.....do	School District Library	1845	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2815	Port Henry	Sherman Free Library	1886	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2816	Port Jervis	Free Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2817	Port Richmond	Union Free School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2818	Potsdam	State Normal and Training School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2819	Poughkeepsie	City Library	1843	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2820	.....do	Classical and Home Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2821	.....do	Vassar Brothers Institute	1881	Scien	....	C.	S.	R.
2822	.....do	Vassar College	1865	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
2823	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1862	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	F.	B.
2824	Prattsburg	Franklin Academy and Union School.	1823	Sch.	....	C.	F.	B.
2825	Randolph	Culver (Helen) Library of Chamberlain Institute.	1894	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2826	Rhinebeck	Starr Institute	1857	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2827	Rochester	Academy of the Sacred Heart	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2828	.....do	Central Library	1863	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2829	.....do	Court of Appeals Law Library	1846	Law	R.	T.	Fr.	R.
2830	.....do	Nazareth Convent and Academy	1873	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1895—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
44,839	9,000	1,182	692	.....	52,414	.....	$9,000	$107,500	Werner Jonghaus, acting librarian.	2776
2,670	.....	100	.....	2,505	1,100	.....	475	.....	Frank G. Banister, secretary.	2777
7,550	500	434	250	12,337	.....	.....	2,000	.....	W. F. Stevens	2778
1,800	.....	100	.....	2,746	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	2779
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	V. F. Marsh, superintendent.	2780
1 000	300	70	100	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	.....	2781
3,912	16	857	.....	15,996	.....	$1,285	1,685	.....	N. L. Benham	2782
7,000	300	300	50	400	600	.....	15	.....	Rev. Luke A. Grace	2783
1,961	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. H. Roberts	2784
2,820	246	400	.....	1,000	.....	200	400	.....	Clinton S. Marsh, superintendent.	2785
3,850	200	400	.....	21,600	.....	1,250	1,450	.....	Miss H. L. Powell	2786
1,327	29	7	9	2,550	850	.....	.....	.....	Ira H. Lamton	2787
5,981	.....	1,933	.....	14,081	.....	.....	38,000	.....	Fred Van Dusen, Ph. D.	2788
2,432	.....	25	.....	6,923	.....	.....	680	8,000	E. P. Hazlett	2789
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2790
2,500	.....	400	.....	8,000	2,000	250	550	.....	Mrs. Joseph C. Ayres	2791
4,600	300	400	75	22,000	.....	825	1,040	.....	Alva Seybolt	2792
2,000	500	150	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James M. Milne	2793
1,000	35	300	30	750	250	100	200	.....	D. H. Cook	2794
13,000	.....	135	.....	.....	10,000	.....	1,615	10,000	Robert Seeley Kelsey	2795
6,000	.....	.....	.....	19,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robert Seeley Kelsey	2796
5,510	.....	604	50	6,500	5,000	.....	719	.....	S. Augusta Smith	2797
1,705	.....	53	12	.....	.....	18	36	.....	L. H. Clark, jr., principal.	2798
7,000	.....	100	.....	17,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. J. B. Worthington	2799
1,123	.....	67	18	.....	.....	.....	114	.....	W. C. Joslin, principal	2800
3,500	25	400	5	9,000	.....	.....	400	.....	S. Dwight Arms, principal.	2801
6,167	.....	187	.....	22,000	.....	.....	725	14,000	D. C. Hasbrouch, secretary.	2802
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2803
1,524	225	119	.....	2,092	.....	200	325	.....	Henrietta Hicks	2804
2,400	.....	180	.....	.....	.....	187	374	.....	Frank Eno, superintendent.	2805
1,442	.....	21	.....	.....	.....	50	125	.....	James G. Riggs, superintendent.	2806
1,000	13	433	1	8,920	.....	400	807	.....	E. S. Hall	2807
2,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	E. N. Jones	2808
2,000	200	10	.....	379	979	.....	.....	.....	.....	2809
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	2,500	Dexter Wheeler, secretary.	2810
1,000	150	60	.....	75	.....	.....	8	.....	W. L. Harris	2811
2,369	.....	322	2	4,668	.....	.....	800	.....	John W. Diehl	2812
1,566	.....	24	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2813
2,000	50	.....	.....	.....	2,100	.....	.....	.....	L. M. Horton, president board of education.	2814
4,945	.....	500	.....	9,347	.....	306	1,121	10,000	.....	2815
7,201	.....	1,077	101	18,862	.....	850	1,606	.....	Mary K. Newman	2816
1,000	.....	140	.....	400	100	50	100	.....	.....	2817
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2818
18,963	701	575	30	40,485	8,014	3,676	3,676	.....	John C. Sickley	2819
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Miss Sarah V. H. Butler	2820
1,362	500	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. N. Arnold	2821
25,000	.....	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	Frances A. Wood	2822
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alfred H. Wardle	2823
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	50	.....	.....	2824
1,750	1,500	160	50	800	.....	.....	208	1,500	E. A. Bishop, president	2825
2,500	.....	138	.....	5,382	.....	.....	900	20,000	Samuel Drury	2826
1,450	300	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2827
30,000	.....	2,646	.....	10,873	.....	.....	3,079	30,000	Mrs. Katherine J. Dowling.	2828
16,500	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,600	.....	R. D. Jones	2829
2,350	450	159	.....	2,000	.....	.....	223	.....	Sister Berchmans	2830

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2831	Rochester	Powers Law Library	1889	Law	....	C.	....	R.
2832	....do	Reynolds Library	1884	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2833	....do	Rochester Free Academy	1857	Sch	....	T.	F.	R.
2834	....do	Rochester Historical Society Library.	1888	Hist	....	C.	Fr.	C.
2835	....do	Rochester Orphan Asylum	1840	Asylum	....	C.	....	B.
2836	....do	Theological Seminary Library	1853	Theo	O.	C.	....	....
2837	....do	University of Rochester	1850	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2838	....do	Western New York Institution for Deaf Mutes.	....	A. and R.	....	....	....	....
2839	Rockville Center	Public Library	1895	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2840	Rome	Jervis Library	1894	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2841	....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1871	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2842	Rondout	Penekherkin Public Library	1895	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2843	....do	Ulster Academy	....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2844	Roslyn	Bryant Circulating Library	1878	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
2845	Round Lake	Round Lake Institute	....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2846	Salamanca	Union School	....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2847	Salem	Bancroft Public Library	1891	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2848	Sandy Creek	High School	1872	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2849	Sandy Hill	Union School	1894	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2850	Saratoga Springs	Fourth Judicial District Law Library.	....	Law	....	....	F.	R.
2851	....do	Public Library	1867	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2852	....do	St. Faith's School	1890	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2853	....do	Saratoga Athenæum	1885	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
2854	Saugerties	Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2855	....do	Union School	1894	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2856	Schenectady	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2857	....do	Union College	1798	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
2858	....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1871	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
2859	Schoharie	Schoharie Academy	1835	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2860	Seneca Falls	Library Association	1891	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
2861	....do	Mynderse Academy	1867	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2862	Sherburne	Public Library	1895	Gen	....	C.	F.	C.
2863	Sherman	Union Schol	....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2864	Shortsville	Buck Free Library	1890	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2865	Sidney	Public Library	1886	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2866	Silver Creek	Academic Department Union School.	1840	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2867	Sinclairville	Free Library	1894	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
2868	Sing Sing	Holbrook Military Academy	1884	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2869	....do	Mount Pleasant Academy	....	Sch	O.	C.	....	B.
2870	....do	Prison Library	1842	Gen	O.	....	....	B.
2871	....do	Public Library	1889	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2872	....do	St. John's School	1876	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2873	Skaneateles	Library Association	1877	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
2874	....do	Union School	1866	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2875	Solvay	....do	1894	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2876	Somers	Somers Library	1875	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
2877	Southampton	Rogers Memorial Library	1896	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2878	Springville	Public Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2879	Stamford	Judson Library	1876	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2880	Stanfordville	Christian Biblical Institute	1868	Gen	....	C.	....	R.
2881	Stapleton	Staten Island Academy	....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
2882	Steinway	Free Circulating Library	1889	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2883	Syracuse	Central Library	1855	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2884	....do	Court of Appeals Library	1849	Law	....	C.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
4,321	926	46	185	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles P. Lee	2831
32,896	.....	2,429	.....	15,107	9,743	.....	$14,000	.....	Alfred S. Collins	2832
2,333	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	$300	450	.....	John G. Allen, principal.	2833
1,367	1,238	47	53	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jane E. Rochester	2834
1,186	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Wm. N. Sage, manager and registrar.	2835
28,713	.....	625	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Howard Osgood	2836
30,386	3,050	800	50	.....	.....	.....	1,875	$50,000	H. K. Phinney, assistant librarian	2837
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2838
2,000	.....	.....	.....	6,646	.....	.....	115	.....	Elmer S. Redman	2839
7,623	100	1,149	.....	34,651	.....	.....	1,890	17,158	M. Elizabeth Beach	2840
2,800	.....	25	.....	900	.....	.....	35	.....	H. E. Huie, general secretary.	2841
1,000	200	106	.....	.....	.....	50	100	.....	D. B. Abbey	2842
1,450	.....	408	.....	.....	.....	150	300	.....	W. E. Bunten	2843
1,025	.....	.....	.....	340	.....	.....	251	.....	Joseph H. Bogart	2844
2,025	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2845
1,500	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	150	300	.....	.....	2846
3,316	318	256	.....	5,548	.....	.....	1,450	.....	Frances F. Leighton	2847
1,000	100	180	20	500	350	.....	.....	.....	R. H. Snyder, principal.	2848
1,422	.....	174	.....	2,493	.....	100	250	.....	Emily M. Storer	2849
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	Carliss Sheldon	2850
2,256	300	75	30	6,175	.....	175	175	.....	Thomas R. Kneil	2851
1,570	.....	70	.....	.....	.....	.....	96	.....	Eleanor A. Shackelford, principal.	2852
4,000	500	150	200	9,000	.....	.....	900	.....	Charles C. Lester, president.	2853
1,794	.....	469	.....	8,174	.....	443	686	.....	Fred N. Moulton	2854
1,100	200	100	20	300	1,000	225	450	.....	Fred. N. Moulton, principal.	2855
2,700	.....	900	.....	12,537	279	1,500	2,550	.....	Henry Glen	2856
30,985	.....	.....	250	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	2857
1,100	200	30	100	1,200	1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	2858
1,000	200	90	.....	.....	300	55	110	.....	Solomon Sias, principal.	2859
2,798	.....	157	.....	3,876	.....	.....	675	.....	Lillias Rumnsey Sanford, secretary.	2860
1,524	90	21	.....	450	.....	108	164	.....	F. L. Porter	2861
1,000	900	.....	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	Miss Anna Merrihew	2862
1,027	200	20	.....	1,200	.....	50	170	.....	Lura A. Sheldon	2863
2,000	100	.....	.....	10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. C. Buck	2864
1,650	.....	350	.....	4,492	.....	225	500	.....	Wm. Thorp	2865
1,857	95	381	5	2,900	.....	.....	218	.....	J. M. McKee	2866
1,450	7	100	.....	3,000	.....	.....	10	.....	Mrs. Lizzie Fife	2867
1,078	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	40	40	.....	Rev. D. A. Holbrook	2868
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. F. Brasie, principal	2869
5,000	.....	600	.....	41,095	.....	.....	.....	.....	John C. S. Weills, chaplain.	2870
35,961	.....	254	.....	13,716	3,000	275	400	.....	J. Irving Gorton	2871
1,000	150	20	80	.....	.....	.....	30	.....	Henry Lyall	2872
8,538	.....	264	92	5,943	.....	.....	1,113	2,000	Lydia A. Cobane	2873
1,500	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. F Miner	2874
1,000	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	112	224	.....	C. O. Richards, principal	2875
1,539	.....	22	20	601	.....	.....	38	.....	Ruth Tompkins, treasurer.	2876
1,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	10,000	8,500	Edward H. Foster, treasurer.	2877
2,000	.....	300	.....	8,000	.....	275	500	.....	John S. Vedder	2878
2,425	457	65	30	272	.....	25	55	.....	W. H. McAlpine, secretary board of education.	2879
2,200	350	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	.....	J. B. Weston, D. D	2880
4,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2881
2,950	45	185	.....	2,832	2,400	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Marie von Poser	2882
30,000	3,000	3,941	200	78,503	.....	.....	11,234	.....	Ezekiel W. Mundy	2883
22,500	250	500	250	.....	.....	.....	3,700	.....	T. L. R. Morgan	2884

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2885	Syracuse	Onandaga County Orphan Asylum, White Library.	1885	Asylum	....	C.	....	B.
2886	.....do	St. John's Catholic Academy	1886	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2887	.....do	Syracuse University	1872	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
2888	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	.....	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2889	Tarrytown	Irving Institute	1891	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2890	.....do	Union Free School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	F.	B.
2891	.....do	Young Men's Lyceum Free Library.	1895	Social	O.	C.	F.	B.
2892	Tompkinsville	Y. M. C. A. Library	1884	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	S.	C.
2893	Tonawanda	Public Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2894	Trenton	Barneveld Library	1877	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2895	Troy	Emma Willard School	1821	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
2896	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2897	.....do	La Salle Institute	1878	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
2898	.....do	Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute	1824	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2899	.....do	Rensselaer Society of Engineers	1866	Scien	R.	C.	S.	B.
2900	.....do	Troy Academy	1834	Sch	....	C.	....	R
2901	.....do	Young Men's Association	1835	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2902	.....do	Young Women's Association	1895	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2903	Unadilla	Union School and Academy	1852	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
2904	Union Springs	Friends' Academy Library (Oakwood Seminary).	1796	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
2905	Utica	Deutscher Leseverein	1847	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
2906	.....do	Faxton Hall Library	1893	Soc	O.	C.	S.	C.
2907	.....do	Oneida Historical Society	1878	Hist	R.	C.	S.	B.
2908	.....do	Piatt's (Mrs.) School Library	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2909	.....do	Public Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2910	.....do	Utica Law Library	1876	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
2911	.....do	Utica State Hospital Medical Library.	1843	Med	....	T.	....	R.
2912	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1889	Y. M. C. A	....	C.	....	C.
2913	Valatie	Union Free School	1887	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2914	Victor	Clark Library	1872	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2915	Walden	Union School	1890	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2916	Walton	.....do	1868	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2917	Wappingers Falls	Grinnell Library	1867	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
2918	Warrensburg	Union School and Academy Library.	1859	Sch	....	C.	F.	R.
2919	Warsaw	Union School	1853	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2920	Warwick	Warwick Institute	1848	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2921	Waterford	High School	1895	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2922	Waterloo	Library and Historical Society	1875	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2923	Watertown	High School	1865	Sch	R.	T.	F.	B.
2924	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1869	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2925	Waterville	Public Library	1895	Gen	....	T.	F.	C.
2926	Watkins	.....do	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
2927	Waverly	High School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2928	Wellsville	Public Library	1894	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2929	West Albany	Railroad Y. M. C. A. Library	1879	Y. M. C. A.	....	C.	....	B.
2930	Westchester	Grammar School, No. 99, New York City.	.....	Sch	.....	.....	....	R.
2931	.....do	New York Catholic Protectory	1863	Sch	....	C.	....	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
4,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	$50	.....	Mrs. Florence Hills	2885
1,550	621	25	100	.....	.....	.....	2,160	.....	Sister M. Alexandrine, assistant principal	2886
45,000	12,521	640	680	.....	.....	.....	.....	$100,000	Henry O. Sibley	2887
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank R. Harris, acting general secretary.	2888
1,100	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. M. Furman, principal	2889
2,453	.....	83	.....	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edith Carpenter	2890
3,000	50	300	.....	5,000	.....	.....	300	.....	Oscar J. Cox	2891
1,650	500	75	150	365	155	.....	.....	.....	Wm. McKenzie, general secretary.	2892
1,600	.....	200	.....	5,000	500	$300	500	.....	F. J. Diamond, president board of library trustees.	2893
3,479	500	43	.....	350	.....	.....	127	2,000	Miss Mildred French	2894
2,333	.....	115	.....	.....	.....	.....	246	.....	Mary Alice Knox, principal.	2895
1,200	.....	25	.....	400	1,000	75	150	.....	H. L. Taylor	2896
1,900	700	65	50	750	800	.....	21	.....	Brother Arnold, vice principal.	2897
6,400	2,500	150	150	.....	.....	.....	386	.....	John M. Peck	2898
2,000	800	80	350	.....	.....	.....	420	.....	H. G. Thompson	2899
1,100	.....	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Maxey & Barnes, principals.	2900
33,400	.....	1,592	.....	53,192	18,500	.....	8,417	48,381	D. W. M. Clinton	2901
1,300	.....	200	.....	2,364	.....	.....	103	.....	Miss Kate A. Farnham	2902
1,000	75	170	100	1,931	.....	100	200	.....	M. J. Fletcher, principal	2903
2,160	250	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	Elijah Cook, principal	2904
3,500	.....	180	.....	800	300	.....	150	.....	J. C. Schreiber	2905
1,112	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary A. Thomas	2906
6,420	6,880	110	80	.....	.....	.....	430	.....	M. M. Bagg	2907
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....		2908
20,506	1,389	2,759	1,389	108,258	.....	8,500	9,109	.....	C. M. Underhill	2909
5,436	.....	1,463	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Eugene Stearns	2910
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. P. Pughe	2911
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. H. Charles, assistant secretary.	2912
1,158	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....		2913
1,000	.....	15	.....	40	60	75	150	.....	Sara M. Harrington	2914
1,261	600	80	100	1,200	.....	25	62	.....	D. C. Dominick	2915
1,600	400	135	50	450	.....	100	250	.....	J. R. Fairyrieve	2916
5,770	192	136	4	8,000	400	.....	643	.....	Mrs. E. A. Howarth	2917
1,060	.....	73	.....	400	.....	25	52	.....	M. V. Dickinson	2918
3,625	.....	200	.....	5,945	.....	175	360	.....	Irving B. Smith, A. M., principal.	2919
1,500	100	25	10	3,000	.....	.....	50	.....	L. W. Hoffman	2920
2,450	.....	125	.....	12,080	.....	100	325	.....	Alexander Falconer, superintendent.	2921
6,000	200	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	768	10,000	William Smith Outer, secretary.	2922
4,000	4	100	2	.....	500	134	268	.....	Wm. G. Williams, superintendent.	2923
1,150	.....	20	.....	312	.....	.....	13	.....	H. J. Brenmer, chairman library committee.	2924
1,820	.....	647	.....	5,070	.....	75	355	1,000	W. G. Mayer, president.	2925
3,500	350	.....	.....	1,566	.....	200	1,500	.....	F. Davis	2926
1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....		2927
2,056	150	631	20	15,000	.....	.....	445	135	Mrs. Ida K. Church, secretary.	2928
1,509	200	40	6	1,124	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. F. Fraser, secretary	2929
1,495	50	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	Hannah M. Findlay	2930
8,000	2,000	500	200	.....	2,500	.....	500	.....	Brother Eusebius	2931

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NEW YORK—cont'd.							
2932	Westfield	Union School and Academy	1868	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2933	West New Brighton	District No. 2 School Library (Castleton).	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2934	Westpoint	United States Military Academy	1802	Govt	O.	C.	F.	B.
2935	West Troy	School District Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2936	West Winfield	Public Library	1894	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2937	Whitehall	Union School	1884	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2938	White Plains	....do	.....	Sch	....	T.	S.	B.
2939	....do	Westchester County Law Library	1855	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
2940	Willard	Willard State Hospital	1892	Asylum	....	C.	....	R.
2941	Willets Point	Engineer School of Application, U S. A.	.....	Sci	....	T.	....	B.
2942	Wyoming	Free Library	1886	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
2943	.....do	Middlebury Academy and Union School.	1865	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
2944	Yonkers	Public Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
2945	.....do	Woman's Institute Free Circulating Library.	1880	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
	NORTH CAROLINA.							
2946	Asheville	Asheville Female College	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
2947	.....do	Asheville Library	1879	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2948	.....do	Bishop Atkinson Library	1881	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	R.
2949	Belmont	St. Mary's College	1877	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
2950	Chapelhill	University of North Carolina	1800	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
2951	Charlotte	Biddle University Library	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
2952	Como	Buckhorn Academy Library	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2953	Concord	Scotia Seminary	1870	Sch	O.	C.	....	B.
2954	Davidson	Union Library of Davidson College.	1887	Col	....	T.	S.	B.
2955	Durham	Public School Library	1884	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
2956	....do	Trinity College	1846	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2957	Elon College	Elon College	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2958	Fayetteville	Cross Creek Lodge, No. 4, I. O. O. F.	1845	I. O. O. F.	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
2959	Franklinton	Franklin Christian College	1882	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
2960	Greensboro	Greensboro Female College	1895	Col	....	.....	S.	R.
2961	.....do	State Normal and Industrial School.	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
2962	Guilford College	Guilford College	1837	Col	....	.....	Fr.	R.
2963	Highlands	Shortia School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2964	Ledger	Good-Will Free Library	1888	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
2965	Lenoir	Pioneer Library	1875	Gen	....	.....	S.	C.
2966	Mount Pleasant	North Carolina College	1859	Col	....	.....	Fr.	B.
2967	Murfreesboro	Chowan Baptist Female Institute	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
2968	Newbern	Collegiate Institute	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2969	Newton	Catawba College	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
2970	Oakridge	Oakridge Institute	1852	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
2971	Raleigh	College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	1890	Gen	.....	.....	....	B.
2972	.....do	Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind (Kelly Library).	1877	Sch	....	C.	.....	.....
2973	.....do	North Carolina State Library	1841	State	....	.....	F.	R.
2974	.....do	St. Mary's School	.....	Sch	.....	.....	.....	.....
2975	.....do	Shaw University	1865	Col	....	.....	Fr.	B.
2976	.....do	Supreme Court Library	.....	Law	....	T.	Fr.	R.
2977	Rutherford College.	Rutherford College	1853	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
2978	Salem	Salem Female Academy	1802	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
2979	Salisbury	Livingstone College	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,500	1,000	150	50	3,000	.....	$60	$60	.....	A. N. Taylor, superintendent.	2932
1,150	56	50	.....	1,000	.....	10	20	.....	Frances E. Moore	2933
39,157	6,016	1,197	180	5,600	.....	.....	3,400	.....	P. S. Merline	2934
2,000	.....	25	.....	1,000	.....	100	200	.....	Albert J. Danaher	2935
1,490	150	120	10	12,242	370	.....	250	.....	A. J. Merrell	2936
1,500	.....	.....	75	2,500	500	.....	.....	.....	W. W. Howe	2937
1,946	300	1,224	250	2,912	.....	500	535	.....	Emma L. Huestis	2938
2,050	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frederick F. Miller	2939
1,850	.....	104	60	.....	.....	.....	235	.....	William Mabon	2940
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	270	.....	.....	.....	Wm. E. Craighill	2941
1,050	50	20	20	2,560	.....	.....	75	.....	Geo. H. Smith, president	2942
1,206	100	100	8	.....	.....	50	100	.....	S. H. McIlroy, principal	2943
10,021	.....	239	.....	31,192	.....	250	479	.....	Helen Blodgett	2944
2,545	.....	678	373	6,194	.....	200	400	.....	E. R. Houghton, acting librarian.	2945
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2946
2,386	.....	75	.....	6,175	.....	.....	675	.....	Miss H. A. Champion	2947
2,025	332	.....	.....	.....	730	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Alfred H. Stubbs, warden.	2948
7,500	300	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. Bernard, vice-president.	2949
30,000	5,000	1,150	100	11,072	.....	.....	.....	.....	Benjamin Wyche	2950
8,000	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2951
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2952
1,000	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	550	.....	D. J. Satterfield, president.	2953
12,000	2,000	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	.....	2954
2,000	100	220	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. W. Toms	2955
13,000	.....	400	.....	1,300	.....	.....	260	.....	S. S. Dent	2956
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2957
2,500	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. D. Gasten	2958
1,400	900	50	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. Del. McReynolds, president.	2959
2,600	1,000	700	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2960
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2961
4,000	10	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	Miss Mary E. Mendenhall.	2962
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2963
6,000	.....	1,000	.....	1,634	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles H. Wing, director.	2964
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	I. W. F. Harper, president.	2965
1,650	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. T. J. Ludwig	2966
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2967
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2968
2,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2969
2,200	1,000	200	150	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	J. Allen Holt	2970
2,000	100	391	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alex Q. Holladay, president.	2971
1,016	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2972
50,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	J. C. Ellington	2973
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2974
1,500	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2975
11,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	R. H. Bradley	2976
4,000	2,000	150	200	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	W. E. Abernethy	2977
6,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. John H. Clewell, principal.	2978
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2979

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	NORTH CAROLINA—continued.							
2980	Wake Forest	Wake Forest College	1840	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
2981	Waynesville	Public Library	1891	Gen		C.	Fr.	B
2982	do	Wayne School	1886	Sch		C.	Fr.	R.
2983	Wilmington	English and Classical School		Sch				
2984	do	Library Association	1855	Soc		C.	S.	B.
2985	Winston	City School Library	1886	Sch		C.	S.	B.
	NORTH DAKOTA.							
2986	Bismarck	North Dakota State Library	1889	Gen		C.	F.	R.
2987	do	State Educational Library	1890	Gen		T.	F.	B.
2988	Ellendale	Ellendale High School		Sch				
2989	Fargo	Fargo College		Col		C.		
2990	do	North Dakota Agricultural College.	1890	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
2991	University	University of North Dakota	1883	Col		T.	F.	B
	OHIO.							
2992	Ada	Ohio Normal University	1871	Col	O.	C.		R.
2993	do	Philomathean Society	1871	Col. Soc		C.	S.	B.
2994	Akron	Bierce Library of Buchtel College	1871	Col		C.	S.	B.
2995	do	Eva Hill Parish Library	1888	Gen		C.		B.
2996	do	Public Library	1865	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
2997	Alliance	Mount Union College	1858	Col		C.	S.	B.
2998	do	Public School Library	1888	Sch			F.	C
2999	Ashland	do		Sch		C.	F.	B.
3000	Ashtabula	Public Library	1895	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3001	Athens	Ohio University	1804	Col	O.	C.		B.
3002	Austinburg	Grand River Institute	1832	Sch		C	F.	B.
3003	Barnesville	Public School Library		Sch		C.	S.	C.
3004	Berea	Baldwin University	1856	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
3005	do	German Wallace College	1864	Col		C.		B.
3006	Bryant	Library Association	1883	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3007	Bucyrus	Memorial Library	1894	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3008	do	Public School Library	1890	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3009	Cadiz	Public Library	1880	Gen	R.	T.	S.	B.
3010	Cambridge	Public School Library	1888	Sch				B.
3011	Canfield	Northeastern Ohio Normal School	1881	Col		C.	F.	R.
3012	Canton	Canton Public Library Association.	1884	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3013	Cardington	Ladies' Public Library	1878	Gen		C.	S.	C.
3014	Carthage	Longview Hospital	1861	Asylum		C.		C.
3015	Carthagena	St. Charles Borromeo Theological Seminary.		Theo		C.		
3016	Chillicothe	Public Library		Gen		T.	F.	B.
3017	Cincinnati	Bartholomew English and Classical School.		Sch				R.
3018	Cincinnati (Central Turnhall).	Cincinnati Central Turngemeinde	1854	Soc		C.	S.	C.
3019	Cincinnati	Cincinnati Hospital Library	1874	Med		C.	F.	R.
3020	do	Cincinnati Law Library	1847	Law		C.	S.	R.
3021	do	Cincinnati Museum Association	1881	Scien		C.	Fr.	R.
3022	Cincinnati (Station C).	Cincinnati Observatory	1843	Scien		C.	Fr.	R.
3023	Cincinnati (312 Broadway).	Cincinnati Society of Natural History.	1870	Scien		C.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
11,656	.....	250	.....	4,274	.....	.....	$485	.....	Prof. W. L. Poteat	2980
1,064	.....	37	.....	1,226	.....	.....	62	.....	Lucy Biddle Lewis, secretary.	2981
2,500	500	105	96	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. G. Harbison, head master.	2982
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2983
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	249	.....	Thos. C. Diggs	2984
2,760	350	170	40	1,860	150	.....	290	.....	John J. Blair, superintendent of schools.	2985
10,500	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	C. M. Dahl, secretary of state.	2986
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Emma F. Bates, superintendent of public instruction.	2987
1,232	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2988
1,168	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2989
2,782	600	688	200	1,257	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. P. A. Evans	2990
6,000	2,000	300	400	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	W. Merrifield, president	2991
5,450	360	50	24	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	H. S. Lehr, president	2992
1,650	.....	10	.....	500	500	.....	525	$2,000	B. C. Jackson	2993
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	10,000	C. R. Olin	2994
3,750	.....	149	.....	.....	.....	.....	207	.....	Mrs. W. B. Raymond	2995
15,433	.....	100	.....	68,000	.....	$4,200	4,700	.....	Mary Pauline Edgerton	2996
10,000	2,000	160	200	2,537	8,000	.....	227	.....	William Soule, Ph. D	2997
1,600	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	105	.....	J. E. Morris, superintendent.	2998
1,205	.....	92	.....	300	200	.....	115	.....	Raleigh Scott	2999
2,539	150	1,005	75	13,073	300	300	1,566	.....	Miss Nellie E. Warmington.	3000
14,000	2,000	750	200	5,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	Eli Dunkle	3001
1,500	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	R. G. McClelland	3002
1,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	130	.....	E. M. Van Cleve, superintendent.	3003
3,650	1,400	110	400	1,300	.....	.....	260	.....	James Hervey Smith	3004
4,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Victor Wilker	3005
2,328	.....	.....	.....	2,292	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alice M. Walt	3006
1,074	71	471	71	10,000	.....	.....	1,400	.....	Augusta M. McCracken	3007
1,300	100	300	30	3,065	.....	.....	100	.....	J. J. Bliss, superintendent.	3008
5,000	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	500	610	.....	Ella M. Ward	3009
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. B. Hall	3010
1,300	300	85	130	200	500	.....	60	.....	J. A. Cummings, A. M., president.	3011
4,763	.....	631	.....	21,195	.....	1,172	1,745	.....	Charles R. Frazer, secretary and treasurer.	3012
1,170	.....	24	.....	.....	.....	.....	167	.....	.....	3013
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. W. Harmon, superintendent.	3014
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3015
14,000	.....	589	.....	17,305	.....	524	738	.....	J. M. Barrows	3016
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3017
2,800	.....	38	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	Louis Pochat	3018
10,000	4,000	684	327	.....	3,520	.....	1,407	.....	P. Alfred Marchand, custodian.	3019
18,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. W. Myers	3020
1,620	2,650	80	68	.....	1,034	.....	.....	.....	J. H. Gest, assistant director.	3021
2,200	500	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. G. Porter, director	3022
4,500	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40,000	Josua Lindably, director	3023

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	OHIO—continued.							
3024	Cincinnati	Cuvier Club Library	.....	Scien	....	C.	F.	R.
3025	....do	Hebrew Union College	1875	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3026	Cincinnati (post-office box 4).	Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio.	1831	Hist	O.	C.	F.	R.
3027	Cincinnati	House of Refuge	1852	Reform	....	.....	Fr.	....
3028	.....do	Hughes High School	1852	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3029	.....do	Lane Theological Seminary	1833	Theo	O.	C.	....	R.
3030	.....do	Law School of the Cincinnati College.	1833	Law	....	C.	....	R.
3031	.....do	Lupton's (Miss) School for Girls	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3032	.....do	Mount Auburn Institute	1856	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
3033	Cincinnati (Fourth and John streets).	New Church Library	1865	Theo	....	C.	F.	B.
3034	Cincinnati	Ohio Mechanics Institute	1828	Gen	....	C.	S.	R.
3035	Cincinnati (College Hill).	Ohio Military Institute	1890	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3036	Cincinnati	Public Library	1853	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3037	.....do	St. Francis Seraph Gymnasium	1892	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3038	.....do	St. Joseph's College	1873	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3039	.....do	St. Xavier College	1842	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3040	.....do	Students' Library of St. Xavier College.	1870	Col	O.	T.	S.	B.
3041	.....do	University of Cincinnati	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3042	.....do	Woodward High School	1835	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3043	.....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	1860	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
3044	.....do	Young Men's Mercantile Library Association.	1835	Gen	R.	C.	....	B.
3045	Circleville	Public Library	1869	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3046	Cleveland	Calvin College Library	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3047	.... do	Case Library	1846	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3048	.....do	Case School of Applied Science	1881	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3049	.....do	Central High School	1877	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
3050	Cleveland (62 Huron street).	Cleveland University of Medicine and Surgery.	1849	Med	....	C.	....	R.
3051	Cleveland (770 Euclid avenue).	Hathaway-Brown School for Girls	1886	Sch	R.	C.	....	R.
3052	Cleveland	Jewish Orphan Asylum	1868	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
3053	.....do	Law Library Association	1870	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
3054	.....do	Mittleberger's (Miss) English and Classical School.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3055	.....do	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3056	.....do	St. Ignatius College	1886	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3057	.....do	St. Mary's Seminary	1849	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3058	.....do	University School	1890	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3059	.....do	Ursuline College	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
3060	.....do	Western Reserve Historical Society.	1867	Hist	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
3061	.....do	Western Reserve University	1826	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3062	.....do	College for Women	1888	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3063	.....do	Law School, Franklin T. Backus Library.	1892	Law	....	C.	....	B.
3064	.....do	Medical College	1850	Med	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3065	Columbus	Capital University and Theological Seminary.	1830	Theo	O.	C.	S.	R.
3066	.....do	Columbus Latin School	.....	Sch	R.	C.	Fr.	R.
3067	.....do	Girls' English and Classical School.	1884	Gen	....	.....	....	R.
3068	.....do	Law Library Association	1885	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
3069	.....do	Ohio Institution for Feeble-minded Youth.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3070	.....do	Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	1851	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3071	.....do	Ohio Institutution for the Education of the Blind.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3072	.....do	Ohio Penitentiary	1867	Reform	....	T.	....	C.
3073	.....do	Ohio State Board of Agriculture	1858	Sci	....	C.	F.	R.
3074	.....do	Ohio State Library	1817	Gen	....	T.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,200	2,000	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. Drury, custodian.	3024
13,000	.....	564	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3025
13,860	56,900	357	1,480	.....	.....	.....	$2,071	$3,850	Julius Dexter, recording secretary.	3026
1,056	.....	60	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thomas M. Dill	3027
2,500	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	E. W. Coy	3028
17,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	900	19,000	H. W. Hulbert	3029
6,000	500	200	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alfred K. Nippert	3030
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3031
2,000	900	200	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3032
1,460	5,000	50	.....	225	.....	.....	300	.....	Miss H. W. Gano	3033
5,000	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,441	.....	R. E. Champion	3034
3,000	250	50	25	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	3035
188,409	25,959	.....	550	312,810	220,256	$18,000	65,791	17,300	A. W. Whelpley	3036
1,200	96	48	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Bernard Nurre	3037
1,500	1,000	100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James Rogers, C. S. C.	3038
17,000	2,000	150	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John N. Poland	3039
2,900	35	100	10	1,600	.....	.....	103	.....	Thomas Nolan, S. J	3040
3,000	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3041
2,500	.....	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	A. M. Van Dyke	3042
1,000	.....	50	.....	.....	50	.....	120	.....	Edgar R. Mathers, secretary.	3043
61,394	.....	1,155	.....	59,310	16,374	.....	10,275	12,000	John M. Newton	3044
7,375	2,000	622	100	24,123	653	1,271	1,304	.....	May Low, associate librarian.	3045
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3046
40,000	1,000	2,000	250	50,000	.....	.....	14,600	.....	Charles Orr	3047
1,125	500	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	425	.....	Arthur S. Wright	3048
1,650	300	171	25	6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3049
1,000	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dudley Smith, M. D., assistant registrar.	3050
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Miss Mary E. Spencer	3051
1,385	.....	48	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. Wolfenstien, superintendent.	3052
13,000	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,300	.....	A. A. Bemis, secretary	3053
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3054
106,418	3,033	7,385	178	595,000	78,923	47,898	127,898	.....	C. Lee Harbaugh, assistant librarian.	3055
7,000	.....	300	.....	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	A. Bachler	3056
8,200	1,300	210	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. B. Stuber	3057
1,200	100	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles A. Mitchell	3058
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3059
14,000	1,300	800	850	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Peter Neff	3060
30,000	10,000	1,010	1,155	5,000	.....	.....	3,500	28,000	E. C. Williams	3061
2,073	175	206	9	570	.....	.....	600	.....	Henry E. Bourne	3062
3,200	500	1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. H. Hopkins, dean	3063
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	G. C. Ashwum, M. D.	3064
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	F. W. Stellhorn	3065
1,125	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank T. Cole, principal	3066
1,000	200	25	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Lucretia M. Phelps, principal.	3067
3,000	.....	475	.....	.....	1,448	.....	4,650	.....	Chas. T. Keech	3068
1,876	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3069
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. E. A. Zell	3070
3,357	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3071
4,000	2,000	350	400	.....	.....	500	500	.....	C. L. Wenget	3072
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3073
70,000	.....	2,391	885	.....	.....	.....	7,975	.....	Joseph P. Smith	3074

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	OHIO—continued.							
3075	Columbus	Ohio State University	1870	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
3076	do	Phelps (Miss) English and Classical School for Young Ladies and Children.		Sch				
3077	do	Public Library and Reading Room	1872	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3078	do	Public School Library	1875	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3079	do	Railway Young Men's Christian Association.	1876	Y.M.C.A.	R.	C.	S.	C.
3080	do	St. Joseph's Academy		Sch		C.		R.
3081	do	Starling Medical College	1870	Med		C.		R.
3082	do	Supreme Court Law Library		Law		T.	F.	R.
3083	Dayton	Law Library	1869	Law		C.	S.	R.
3084	do	Public Library	1847	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3085	do	St. Mary's Institute Library		Sch				
3086	do	Union Biblical Seminary	1875	Theo			Fr.	B.
3087	do	Young Men's Christian Association.		Y.M.C.A.			Fr.	B.
3088	Defiance	Free Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3089	do	High School		Sch				
3090	do	Public School Library	1885	Sch				C.
3091	Delaware	Girl's Industrial Home Library		A. and R.				
3092	do	Ohio Wesleyan University, Sturges Library.	1854	Col	O.		Fr.	B.
3093	do	Monnett Library	1854	Col		C.		R.
3094	East Liverpool	Public School Library	1893	Sch		C.	S.	B.
3095	Eaton	do	1886	Sch		T.	F.	B.
3096	Elyria	Elyria Library	1870	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3097	Findlay	Findlay College		Col		C.		
3098	Franklin	Free School Library	1874	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3099	Fremont	Birchard Library	1875	Gen	O.		F.	B.
3100	Galion	High School	1880	Sch		T.	Fr.	B.
3101	Gambier	Kenyon College	1828	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3102	do	Theological Library, Bexley Hall.	1839	Theo		C.	Fr.	B.
3103	Garrettsville	Free Public Library	1879	Gen		C.	S.	B.
3104	Geneva	Spencer Memorial Library	1892	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3105	Germantown	Miami Military Institute	1886	Sch		C.	Fr.	R.
3106	do	Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3107	Glendale	Glendale Female College	1879	Col		C.	S.	R.
3108	do	Glendale Lyceum	1883	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3109	Granville	Denison University	1832	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3110	do	Granville Female College	1836	Col		T.	S.	B.
3111	Greenville	McWhinney Free School Library	1889	Sch		T.	F.	B.
3112	Hamilton	High School	1880	Sch		T.		B.
3113	do	Lane Free Library	1866	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3114	Hillsboro	Public Library	1877	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3115	Hiram	Hiram College	1854	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
3116	Jefferson	Citizens Library Association	1883	Gen		T.	Fr.	C.
3117	Kenton	Public Library	1886	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3118	Lancaster	Boys' Industrial School	1854	A. and R.		T.		C.
3119	do	Free Library and Reading Room	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
3120	Lebanon	Mechanics' Institute	1893	Gen			S.	B.
3121	do	National Normal University	1858	Col		C.		B.
3122	Lee	Wells Library	1858	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B
3123	Lockland	Public Library and Free Reading Room.	1887	Gen	R.	T.	Fr.	B.
3124	Mansfield	Memorial Library Association	1887	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3125	Marietta	Marietta College Library	1835	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3126	Medina	Medina Circulating Library	1881	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3127	Mentor	High School		Sch				
3128	Mt. Vernon	Public Library	1888	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3129	National Military Home.	Putnam Library	1868	Social		C.	Fr.	C.
3130	do	Thomas (George H.) Library	1869	Social		C.		C.
3131	Newark	Ladies Circulating Library	1876	Gen		C.	S.	C.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
18,550	.....	3,025	.....	.....	.....	.....	$4,000	.....	Olive Jones	3075
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3076
24,500	.....	2,866	.....	77,254	7,988	$9,100	9,483	$6,250	John J. Pugh	3077
29,814	370	4,272	59	88,055	6,147	6,100	6,180	.....	Hattie Toler, first assistant librarian.	3078
1,000	.....	.....	.....	33	75	.....	.....	.....	E. D. Bancroft, general secretary.	3079
3,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sisters of Notre Dame	3080
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thos. C. Hoover	3081
17,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,000	.....	Frank N. Beebe	3082
5,889	139	102	31	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. W. Lenz	3083
36,903	1,304	1,702	89	106,000	45,364	9,957	9,957	.....	Miss Minta I. Dryden	3084
3,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3085
3,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	A. W. Drury	3086
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. G. Routzahn	3087
1,200	245	85	.....	2,500	.....	500	500	.....	Miss Jewel Fouke	3088
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3089
2,200	.....	56	.....	.....	.....	.....	42	.....	J. McInnis	3090
1,584	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3091
16,886	.....	250	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jos. R. Dickinson, assistant librarian.	3092
2,510	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3093
1,000	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	138	.....	S. D. Tanor	3094
2,000	2,000	100	300	3,000	.....	.....	165	.....	J. P. Sharkey, superintendent of schools.	3095
12,000	.....	402	.....	16,193	.....	.....	2,172	10,000	Charlotte D. Leavitt	3096
1,500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3097
2,100	150	300	.....	4,150	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rachel Hartley	3098
12,500	.....	.....	.....	13,000	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Harriet A. Gast	3099
2,000	.....	200	.....	4,677	1,205	200	250	.....	A. W. Lewis	3100
20,000	.....	343	267	.....	.....	.....	400	5,500	E. E. Wright	3101
8,000	1,000	35	10	.....	.....	.....	60	1,000	H. W. Jones, D. D	3102
2,400	100	75	.....	1,700	.....	.....	85	.....	C. T. Northrop	3103
1,400	400	145	100	10,367	.....	.....	250	.....	H. B. McCullom	3104
1,000	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Orvon Graff Brown, president.	3105
3,359	.....	45	.....	4,257	.....	500	1,004	.....	F. H. Schaeffer, clerk board of education.	3106
1,500	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	L. D. Potter, president	3107
3,208	.....	76	.....	2,272	.....	.....	755	.....	Robert Clarke, sec'y	3108
16,782	.....	552	.....	.....	.....	.....	336	500	Rev. H. H. Tuttle	3109
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Clara Sheldon, principal	3110
4,000	.....	350	.....	14,410	.....	250	325	.....	.....	3111
1,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	76	.....	W. P. Cope	3112
6,550	150	150	50	20,568	.....	1,600	1,750	.....	Wm. C. Miller, secretary	3113
6,947	.....	60	.....	.....	.....	925	975	.....	Mrs. M. L. Gregg	3114
5,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	Geo. H. Colton	3115
1,670	.....	200	.....	7,148	.....	225	305	.....	A. C. White, president	3116
2,301	.....	260	.....	15,083	.....	452	694	.....	.....	3117
2,070	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	450	.....	D. W. Barrett	3118
2,700	1,000	150	100	1,397	.....	1,000	1,000	.....	Lavina Busby	3119
2,515	500	146	.....	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mary L. Frost	3120
10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alfred Holbrook, president.	3121
1,800	.....	78	.....	3,536	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	3122
2,164	12	137	2	5,847	200	700	755	.....	E. Irene Patterson	3123
6,675	.....	350	.....	29,760	20,000	.....	1,301	2,344	Martha Mercer	3124
52,000	15,000	1,200	1,000	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	E. M. Monfort	3125
1,500	.....	100	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3126
1,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3127
4,650	.....	150	.....	18,953	.....	1,000	1,000	.....	Miss Ermina J. Day	3128
10,288	.....	480	.....	19,836	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Thomas, governor	3129
9,366	.....	331	.....	21,465	.....	.....	.....	.....	...do	3130
2,596	400	200	100	.....	.....	.....	260	.....	Mrs. Martha Wright	3131

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	OHIO—continued.							
3132	Newark	Licking County Pioneer, Historical, and Antiquarian Society.	1867	Hist	....	C.	F.	R.
3133	New Athens	Franklin College Library	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3134	New Concord	Muskingum College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3135	New Philadelphia	Public School Library	1889	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
3136	Norwalk	Young Men's Library	1866	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3137	Oberlin	Oberlin College	1833	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3138	do	Union Library Association	1874	Col. Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
3139	Oxford	Miami University	1824	Col	....	T.	Fr.	R.
3140	do	Oxford College	1856	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
3141	do	Western College	1853	Col	O.	C.	....	R.
3142	Painesville	Lake Erie Seminary	1857	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3143	do	Mathews' (Mrs.) School for Girls	1795	Sch	....	.....	....	R.
3144	do	Public Library, Women's Christian Temperance Union.	1877	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3145	Perrysburg	Way Library	1881	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
3146	Piqua	Schmidlapp Free School	1890	Sch	O.	T.	F.	B.
3147	Pleasant Ridge	Library Association	1879	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3148	Poland	Poland Union Seminary	1856	Sch	....	C.	F.	R.
3149	Portsmouth	Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3150	Ravenna	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	....
3151	Reading	Mount Notre Dame Academy	1860	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3152	Richmond	Richmond College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3153	Rio Grande	Rio Grande College	1876	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3154	St. Martins	Ursuline Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
3155	St. Marys	Public School	1886	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3156	Scio	Scio College	1866	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3157	Sidney	Public Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3158	South Salem	Salem Academy	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	C.
3159	Springfield	Ward r Public Library	1872	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3160	do	Wittenberg College	1845	Col	O.	.....	....	B.
3161	Steubenville	I. O. O. F. Public Library	1880	I. O. O. F.	....	C.	S.	B.
3162	do	Public School Library	1881	Sch	R.	T.	F.	B.
3163	Tiffin	Heidelberg University	1860	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
3164	do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
3165	do	Tiffin Public Library	1880	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3166	Toledo	Public Library	1873	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3167	do	Toledo Medical College	1886	Med	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3168	do	Ursuline Convent	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3169	Troy	Public School Library	1852	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3170	Urbana	Public Library	1890	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3171	do	Urbana University	1852	Col	....	.....	Fr.	B.
3172	Warren	Library Association	1890	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3173	Wauseon	Public Library	1875	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
3174	Wellington	do	.....	Gen	O.	T.	Fr.	B.
3175	Wellsville	Cleveland and Pittsburg Railroad Reading Room Association.	1865	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3176	Westerville	Otterbein University	1847	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3177	do	Philomathean Literary Society.	1875	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
3178	do	Philophronean Society	.....	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
3179	West Mentor	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3180	do	Mentor Village Library	1890	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3181	Wilberforce	Wilberforce University	1856	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3182	do	Payne Theological Seminary	1892	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3183	Wilmington	Wilmington College	.....	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3184	Woodville	Lutheran Teachers' Seminary	1881	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
3185	do	Woodville Academy	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3186	Wooster	University of Wooster	1870	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3187	Wyoming	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3188	Xenia	Library Association	1881	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3189	do	Xenia Theological Seminary	1794	Theo	....	C.	....	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,000	200	60	20	.....	.....	.....	$25	.....	James H. Smith	3132
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3133
2,700	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3134
1,000	.....	115	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. L. Oxonebach, principal.	3135
6,000	.....	200	.....	8,000	.....	.....	700	$4,000	Sophia Rowland	3136
34,527	32,000	2,592	2,400	13,900	65,924	.....	6,841	14,159	A. S. Root	3137
9,653	.....	130	.....	3,981	.....	.....	775	.....	H. B. Thurston	3138
13,000	.....	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	O. B. Finch	3139
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	310	.....	Faye Walker	3140
7,926	5	1,567	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,360	2,150	Caroline D White	3141
3,600	1,000	50	25	.....	.....	.....	140	.....	Clara M. Stearns	3142
1,200	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. M. D. Mathews	3143
2,400	.....	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	440	3,300	M. F. Dean	3144
4,800	.....	.....	.....	9,848	.....	.....	.....	15,000	Mrs. A. E. Frederick	3145
5,730	.....	634	.....	33,132	.....	$449	1,017	.....	Frank A. Hanly, clerk board of education.	3146
1,950	210	350	36	1,200	100	.....	326	.....	George A. Turrill	3147
300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. L. Notestein, president board of trustees.	3148
9,616	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	962	962	.....	Nana A. Newton	3149
1,450	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3150
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sister Agnes Aloysia, superioress.	3151
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. W. Macmillan	3152
1,170	.....	80	.....	462	.....	.....	.....	69,000	Ruth E. Brockett	3153
3,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	10	.....	Sister M. Baptista	3154
1,400	.....	30	.....	1,200	.....	.....	60	.....	.....	3155
2,000	350	75	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. G. Compher, A. M., Ph. D., vice president.	3156
1,458	25	60	15	4,500	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	3157
1,300	.....	5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. E. Williams, principal.	3158
17,034	.....	826	.....	83,641	.....	5,883	6,060	.....	R. C. Woodward	3159
16,600	4,000	300	325	.....	3,000	.....	350	3,000	B. F Prince	3160
3,674	.....	76	.....	.....	.....	.....	187	.....	.....	3161
3,695	.....	187	704	23,011	.....	540	540	.....	.....	3162
10,638	2,000	205	5	2,000	500	.....	377	5,000	A. C. Shuman	3163
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	J H. Snyder, superintendent.	3164
4,000	.....	.....	.....	1,893	.....	.....	202	2,000	Anna M. Gibson	3165
35,650	324	1,092	76	111,758	40,796	13,500	14,293	.....	.....	3166
1,200	1,000	200	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3167
10,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ursuline Convent	3168
2,200	10	10	10	4,000	.....	250	1,050	.....	C. L. Van Cleve, superintendent.	3169
2,380	.....	209	.....	6,641	.....	.....	888	.....	Mrs. N. T. Houston	3170
7,000	.....	24	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John H. Williams	3171
2,725	.....	721	.....	.....	.....	.....	990	3,500	H. W. Woodford	3172
2,142	.....	98	.....	2,357	.....	.....	143	946	Mary S. Hunt	3173
3,700	.....	150	.....	8,300	.....	300	467	2,000	Lenora Lanndon	3174
2,285	.....	53	.....	.....	.....	.....	166	.....	J. A. McCullough, secretary and treasurer.	3175
3,450	1,900	1,800	900	1,000	2,500	.....	450	5,000	George Scott	3176
2,045	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	3,000	J. B. Gilbert	3177
1,200	.....	14	.....	325	.....	.....	35	.....	J. P. West, chairman of library committee.	3178
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3179
1,515	220	140	64	4,746	.....	97	197	.....	M. C. Angier	3180
5,000	.....	50	.....	250	.....	.....	775	.....	W. E. B. De Bois	3181
2,000	100	525	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Geo. F. Woodson	3182
1,929	.....	164	.....	.....	.....	.....	80	.....	.....	3183
1,800	300	75	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Samuel Stine	3184
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3185
15,000	2,000	300	50	5,000	2,000	.....	1,700	.....	Thomas K. Davis	3186
2,000	.....	148	.....	7,944	.....	355	367	.....	Alice F. Compton, secretary.	3187
4,372	.....	.....	.....	14,173	.....	.....	.....	.....	Etta G. McElwain	3188
5,385	1,800	50	50	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	Wm. Murclin	3189

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	OHIO—continued.							
3190	Yellow Springs	Antioch College	.....	Col	....	.....	Fr.	B
3191	Youngstown	Library Association	1880	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3192	Zanesville	Buckingham Library of Putnam Seminary.	1841	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3193	.....do	Zanesville Athenæum	1827	Gen	....	C.	....	B.
	OKLAHOMA.							
3194	Norman	University of Oklahoma	1892	Col	....	T.	F.	B.
3195	Stillwater	A. & M. College	1892	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
	OREGON.							
3196	Corvallis	State Agricultural College	1888	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3197	Eugene	University of Oregon	1876	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3198	.....do	Lawrence and Eutaxian Societies.	1876	Col. Soc	....	C.	....	B.
3199	Forest Grove	Tualatin Academy and Pacific University.	1848	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3200	McMinnville	McMinnville College	1889	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3201	Mount Angel	Mt. Angel Academy	1887	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3202	Portland	A. O. U. W. Library	1895	Soc	R.	C.	S.	C.
3203	.....do	Bishop Scott Academy	1870	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
3204	.....do	I. O. O. F. Library	1875	I. O. O. F.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3205	.....do	Library Association	1864	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
3206	.....do	Multnomah Law Library	1890	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
3207	Salem	I. O. O. F. Library	1872	I. O. O. F.	R.	C.	S.	B.
3208	.....do	Masonic Library	1879	Masonic	R.	C.	S.	B.
3209	.....do	Oregon State Library	1850	State	O.	T.	F.	B.
3210	.....do	Willamette University	1844	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3211	University Park	Portland University	1892	Gen	O.	.....	....	B.
	PENNSYLVANIA.							
3212	Allegheny	Allegheny Observatory	1859	Sci	....	C.	....	R.
3213	.....do	Allegheny Theological Seminary	1830	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3214	.....do	Carnegie Free Library	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3215	.....do	Public School and Citizens' Free Library.	1871	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3216	.....do	Theological Seminary of the Reformed Presbyterian Church.	1856	Theo	....	C.	....	B.
3217	.....do	Western State Penitentiary Library.	.....	Gen	....	.....	....	B.
3218	.....do	Western Theological Seminary	1859	Theo	O.	C.	....	B.
3219	.....do	Western University of Pennsylvania.	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3220	Allentown	Muhlenberg College	1867	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3221	.....do	Euterpean Society	.....	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3222	.....do	Sophronian Literary Society	1871	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3223	Altoona	Mechanics' Library and Reading Room.	1860	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3224	Annville	Lebanon Valley College	1867	Col	....	T.	S.	B.
3225	Ashland	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	F.	C.
3226	Beatty	St. Vincent Library	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3227	.....do	St. Xavier's Library	1845	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3228	Beaver	Beaver College and Musical Institute.	1853	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3229	Beaver Falls	Geneva College	1860	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3230	Bellefonte	Y. M. C. A. Library	1869	Y.M.C.A.	R.	.....	F.	B.
3231	Berwick	.....do	1879	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3232	Bethlehem	Malin Library of Moravian Literature.	1882	Hist	....	.....	Fr.	R.
3233	.....do	Moravian Archives Library	1742	Hist	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3234	.....do	Moravian College and Theological Seminary.	.....	Theo	....	C.	....	R.
3235	.....do	Moravian Parochial School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
6,000	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	$50	.....	E. C. Lewis	3190
10,870	.....	1,382	100	39,800	.....	$2,651	3,056	$300	Julia A. Hitchcock	3191
3,700	361	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. Buckingham	3192
10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	17,400	.....	1,500	.....	.....	3193
2,860	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	400	400	.....	S. R. Boyd, president	3194
2,297	1,200	274	1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. T. De Bois	3195
1,950	300	10	.....	1,450	.....	.....	.....	.....	Otis Taylor	3196
6,545	.....	683	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	Dora L. Scott	3197
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	Chas. H. Eastland, president.	3198
7,500	.....	233	.....	1,252	.....	.....	438	850	Jos. W. Marsh	3199
2,006	700	95	40	750	200	.....	60	.....	T. G. Brownson	3200
2,060	200	10	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sister M. Rose, O. S. B.	3201
2,000	102	400	109	3,890	150	.....	800	.....	S. G. Richardson	3202
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. W. Hill	3203
4,980	400	44	37	6,422	.....	.....	700	.....	Carolyn C. Dilley	3204
23,000	.....	1,752	820	24,935	.....	.....	8,026	75,250	Daniel F. W. Bursch	3205
6,000	500	500	200	.....	.....	.....	1,620	20,000	Frank J. Raley	3206
2,500	2,000	107	200	5,000	.....	.....	450	.....	C. M. Parmenter	3207
1,863	26	83	8	3,152	30	.....	90	.....	Henry Schemaker	3208
20,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,500	.....	J. B. Putnam	3209
4,286	2,400	50	32	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. C. Hawley	3210
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. J. Hondley	3211
1,600	1,000	100	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James E. Keeler, director.	3212
6,000	.....	100	.....	3,000	3,000	.....	200	.....	John A. Wilson, D. D.	3213
29,316	2,000	3,365	400	122,784	67,235	.....	20,000	.....	Wm. Marshall Stevenson.	3214
15,000	.....	600	.....	46,000	.....	.....	3,900	.....	James W. Benney	3215
3,400	300	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	D. B. Willson	3216
7,432	334	120	.....	40,783	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. L. Milligan, chaplain	3217
23,000	.....	462	15	.....	.....	.....	1,800	30,000	James A. Kelso	3218
15,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3219
5,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Davis Garber	3220
2,500	100	125	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. W. Genszler	3221
1,950	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3222
22,787	.....	1,700	.....	39,275	.....	.....	6,403	.....	Miss L. L. Snyder	3223
3,390	.....	35	.....	800	.....	.....	42	.....	J. A. McDermad	3224
1,448	.....	134	.....	3,000	.....	.....	125	.....	S. H. Clair, principal	3225
40,000	5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3226
1,200	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	.....	3227
1,203	102	26	.....	50	100	.....	.....	.....	Prof. J. R. Uhler	3228
2,500	1,136	180	50	800	.....	.....	250	.....	Geo. Kennedy	3229
1,500	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. H. Cota, general secretary.	3230
4,063	455	160	142	5,293	.....	.....	75	5,000	Horace Breece, general secretary.	3231
1,416	.....	.....	.....	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	Bishop J. M. Levering	3232
3,270	1,000	.....	.....	56	.....	.....	103	.....	....do	3233
6,500	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	125	2,500	A. Schultze, president	3234
2,670	1,500	200	300	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Albert G. Rau, superintendent.	3235

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	PENNSYLVANIA—con.							
3236	Bethlehem	Moravian Seminary and College for Women.	.....	Sch	...	C.	....	B.
3237	.....do	Preparatory School for Lehigh University.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3238	.....do	Young Men's Missionary Society	.....	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
3239	Birmingham	Mountain Seminary	1857	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3240	Bloomsburg	State Normal School	1869	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
3241	Braddock	Carnegie Free Library	1889	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
3242	Bradford	Library Association	1879	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3243	.....do	School Library	1891	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
3244	Brownsville	W. C. T. U. Public Library	1885	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3245	Bryn Mawr	Bryn Mawr College	1885	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3246	Buckingham	Buckingham Hughesian Library	1874	Gen	....	.....	S.	B.
3247	Butler	Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3248	California	State Normal School	1883	Sch	....	.....	S.	B.
3249	Canonsburg	Canonsburg Library	1879	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
3250	.....do	Jefferson Academy	1820	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3251	Carbondale	High School	1890	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3252	.....do	Public Library	1874	Gen	....	T. & C.	F.	C.
3253	Carlisle	Cumberland County Law Library	1869	Law	....	C.	....	R.
3254	.....do	Dickinson College	1783	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
3255	.....do	Belles-Lettres Society	1786	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
3256	.....do	Union Philosophical Society	1789	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
3257	.....do	Dickinson School of Law	1890	Law	R.	C.	Fr.	R.
3258	Chambersburg	Franklin County Law Library	1865	Law	....	.....	....	R.
3259	.....do	Wilson College	1870	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3260	Chester	Bucknell Library of Crozer Theological Seminary.	1868	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3261	.....do	Free Library	1873	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3262	.....do	Pennsylvania Military College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3263	Clarion	State Normal School	1887	Sch	....	.....	F.	B.
3264	Coatesville	Y. M. C. A. Library	1872	Y. M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
3265	Collegeville	Ursinus College	1869	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3266	Coudersport	Coudersport Library	1850	Gen	....	.....	S.	C.
3267	Danville	Thomas Beaver Free Library	1886	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
3268	Darby	Darby Library Company	1743	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3269	Doylestown	Doylestown Library Company	1859	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
3270	East Brady	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3271	East Downingtown	Downingtown Library	1876	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3272	Easton	Easton Library Association	1811	Gen	O	C.	S.	C.
3273	.....do	Lafayette College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3274	Edgewood Park	Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3275	Edinboro	State Normal School	1861	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
3276	Erie	City Library	1867	Y M.C. A.	....	.....	Fr.	B.
3277	Factoryville	Keystone Academy	1870	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
3278	Fallsington	Fallsington Library	1802	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3279	Fredonia	Fredonia Institute	1886	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3280	Germantown	Friends' School (orthodox)	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3281	.....do	Library and Historical Society	1870	Gen	R.	T.	S.	B.
3282	.....do	People's Institute	1877	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
3283	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1871	Y. M.C. A.	....	C.	S.	B.
3284	Gettysburg	Lutheran Historical Library	1853	Hist	....	C.	F.	B.
3285	.....do	Pennsylvania College	1832	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3286	.... do	Philomathean Literary Society	1831	Col. Soc	....	T. & C.	Fr.	B.
3287	.... do	Phrenakosmian Society	1833	Col. Soc	....	.....	S.	B.
3288	.....do	Theological Seminary	1826	Theo	....	C.	F.	B.
3289	Glen Mills	Philadelphia House of Refuge (Boys' Department).	.....	A. and R.	....	.....	....	....
3290	Greenville	Thiel College	1872	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3291	Grove City	Grove City College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3292	Harleysville	Cassel's Library	1835	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
3293	Harrisburg	Dauphin County Historical Society.	1869	Hist	....	C.	S.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
4,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	$80	.....	J. Max Hark, D. D., principal.	3236
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. Ulrich, principal..	3237
1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. J. Leibert, secretary.	3238
2,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Miss N. J. Davis, principal.	3239
2,500	.....	300	.....	3,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. H. Jenkins.....	3240
11,659	800	1,616	258	51,952	15,000	.....	8,500	.....	Helen Sperry.....	3241
2,500	.....	150	.....	11,000	.....	.....	1,200	.....	Marjory C. Gunn.....	3242
2,000	.....	25	.....	1,000	400	.....	.....	.....	Maria C. Fullerton	3243
1,295	.....	87	.....	.....	.....	.....	87	.....	Emma DeLaney.....	3244
23,756	8,000	1,966	100	.....	.....	.....	5,600	$100,000	Henrietta R. Palmer....	3245
2,206	.....	39	.....	.....	.....	.....	66	.....	Anna J. Williams, treasurer.	3246
1,350	.....	400	.....	27,443	.....	.....	600	.....	Mrs. J. S. Campbell.....	3247
3,500	1,500	350	200	800	65,000	.....	327	.....	Anna M. Shutterly.....	3248
2,549	.....	.....	.....	2,459	.....	.....	96	.....	Miss R. J. Douds.....	3249
3,000	.....	10	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. H. Meloy, principal..	3250
1,631	.....	146	.....	5,000	.....	.....	218	.....	H. J. Hockenberry.....	3251
2,832	.....	70	.....	1,632	.....	.....	251	2,600	E. A. Wheeler, secretary	3252
6,000	.....	204	.....	.....	.....	.....	747	.....	C. P. Humrick.....	3253
32,000	1,200	300	75	3,100	600	.....	600	.....	J. H. Morgan	3254
12,000	.....	80	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. H. Bosley	3255
12,000	.....	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	110	500	Eugene E. Gill	3256
2,000	3,000	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. Frickett, dean....	3257
1,600	100	35	20	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	Wm. Alexander, secretary.	3258
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna J. McKeag.....	3259
14,000	.....	411	.....	.....	.....	.....	550	10,000	Robt. P. Bliss	3260
3,045	.....	107	.....	8,766	2,366	.....	.....	.....	Edith B. Burnap	3261
1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3262
5,000	500	40	50	.....	.....	.....	500	20,000	Nell M. Wetter.....	3263
1,600	.....	100	.....	3,611	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. C. Pond, general secretary.	3264
5,500	500	200	100	.....	.....	.....	450	.....	Prof. M. Peters.....	3265
1,500	.....	200	.....	500	.....	.....	86	.....	Mrs. Cora M. Thompson	3266
9,357	.....	500	.....	31,079	.....	.....	2,500	50,000	M. Wetzell.....	3267
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	125	.....	W. Lane Verlender.....	3268
3,050	.....	95	.....	2,200	.....	.....	125	.....	Cordelia Lear	3269
1,373	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3270
1,586	.....	36	.....	1,001	.....	.....	184	.....	Jane Thomas.....	3271
5,974	.....	121	.....	.....	.....	.....	149	.....	Ellen M. Baum.....	3272
24,960	2,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3273
2,107	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3274
5,815	408	15	28	1,111	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. Most.....	3275
5,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3276
3,000	200	19	40	729	.....	.....	40	.....	E. E. Whitford, A. M....	3277
6,200	.....	154	.....	4,312	.....	.....	615	5,000	.....	3278
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. A. Rogers, B. S.....	3279
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3280
6,717	.....	.....	.....	4,961	.....	.....	660	.....	.....	3281
3,300	.....	42	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	9,000	John J. Kenney	3282
3,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. A. Smalley.....	3283
2,150	1,000	200	100	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	J. W. Richard.....	3284
11,550	.....	300	.....	1,000	.....	.....	220	1,600	John A. Himes.....	3285
6,080	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	225	.....	Fred W. Friday, secretary.	3286
6,000	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	33	600	P. T. E. Stockslager	3287
12,000	1,000	500	50	.....	.....	.....	300	1,000	J. W. Richard	3288
1,584	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3289
5,678	500	970	100	.....	.....	.....	14	.....	.....	3290
3,000	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3291
8,000	9,000	50	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Abraham H. Cassel.....	3292
1,200	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	450	.....	Wm. A. Kelker.....	3293

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	PENNSYLVANIA—con.							
3294	Harrisburg	Dauphin County Law Library	1866	Law	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3295	.....do	High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3296	.....do	Pennsylvania State Agricultural Society.	1851	Gen	R.	T.	S.	B.
3297	.....do	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3298	.....do	State Library	1790	State	....	.....	F.	R.
3299	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1854	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
3300	Hatboro	Union Library Company	1755	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
3301	Haverford	Haverford College	1833	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3302	Hazleton	Hazleton Seminary	1886	Sch	R.	.....	....	R.
3303	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1874	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	F.	B.
3304	Hereford	Hereford Literary Society	1880	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3305	Hoboken	Allegheny County Work House	1892	Gen	....	T.	....	B.
3306	Hollidaysburg	Hollidaysburg Seminary	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
3307	Holmesburg	House of Correction	1888	A. and R.	....	.....	....	C.
3308	Honesdale	Law and Library Association	1868	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
3309	Huntingdon	Juniata College	1878	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
3310	Indiana	Indiana Normal School	1875	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3311	Johnstown	Cambria Free Library	1870	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3312	Kingston	Bennett Library of Wyoming Seminary.	1890	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
3313	Kittanning	Public School Library	1887	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
3314	Kutztown	Keystone State Normal School	1868	Sch	....	C. & T.	Fr.	B.
3315	.....do	Keystone Literary Society	1865	Soc	....	T.	S.	B.
3316	.....do	Philomathean Society	1865	Soc	....	C.	....	C.
3317	Lancaster	Franklin and Marshall College	1853	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3318	.....do	Diagnothian Society	1835	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
3319	.....do	Geothean Society	1856	Col. Soc	....	C.	....	C.
3320	.....do	Lancaster Law Library	1855	Law	....	C.	S.	R.
3321	.....do	Linnean Society	1862	Scien	R.	C.	S.	R.
3322	.....do	Mechanics' Library	1838	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
3323	.....do	Theological Seminary of the Reformed Church in the United States.	1825	Theo	O.	C.	S.	B.
3324	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1870	Y.M.C.A.	....	C.	S.	B.
3325	Langhorne	Circulating Library	1876	Gen	O.	T.	S.	C.
3326	Lebanon	G. Dawson Coleman Library	1870	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	C.
3327	.....do	Public Library	1890	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
3328	Lewisburg	Bucknell University	1846	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3329	.....do	Bucknell Institute	1856	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3330	Lewistown	Library Association	1869	Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
3331	Lincoln University	Lincoln University	1856	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3332	Lititz	Linden Hall Seminary	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
3333	Lockhaven	Lockhaven Library Company	1866	Gen	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
3334	.....do	State Normal School	1878	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
3335	Loretto	St. Francis College	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
3336	McKeesport	Free Library Association	1876	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
3337	McSherrystown	St. Joseph's Academy	1854	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
3338	Marietta	Lyceum of Natural History	1869	Scien	R.	.....	F.	C.
3339	Mauchchunk	Dimmick Memorial Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3340	Meadville	Allegheny College	.....	Col	....	C.	.....	.....
3341	.....do	Meadville Theological School	1844	Theo	O.	.....	Fr.	B.
3342	.....do	Public Library	1867	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3343	Mechanicsburg	Library and Literary Association	1872	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3344	Media	Delaware County Institute of Science.	1833	Scien	O.	C.	S.	B.
3345	.....do	Media Academy	1876	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3346	Mercersburg	Mercersburg College	1865	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3347	.....do	Washington Irving Literary Society.	1865	Soc	....	.....	....	C.
3348	Millersville	First Pennsylvania State Normal School.	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
3349	.....do	Normal Library	1856	Col. Soc	....	C.	S.	B.
3350	Milton	High School	1880	Sch	....	C.	S.	B.
3351	Morganza	Pennsylvania Reform School	.....	A. and R.	....	.....	.....	.....

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,600	.....	107	.....	.....	.....	.....	$500	.....	Warren O. Foster	3294
1,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. Gertrude Miller	3295
2,000	1,125	40	24	50	120	.....	320	.....	Henry C. Demming	3296
5,200	.....	100	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	$60,000	L. O. Foose	3297
118,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,500	.....	Wm. H. Egle	3298
8,000	.....	25	.....	3,000	1,000	.....	.....	4,000	Homer Black	3299
11,668	1,660	283	220	4,310	.....	.....	373	2,500	Jas. Van Horn	3300
32,255	2,500	1,100	250	.....	.....	.....	1,800	37,000	Allen C. Thomas	3301
1,030	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. R. Jack	3302
1,000	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3303
1,100	100	35	40	.....	.....	.....	35	.....	H. Winston Fegley, M. A.	3304
1,655	150	.....	.....	16,378	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. L. Bradshaw	3305
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3306
1,352	100	208	.....	6,420	.....	.....	164	3,000	Rev. I. Kirkpatrick	3307
1,700	.....	34	.....	.....	.....	.....	65	.....	Wm. W. Lee	3308
3,617	1,432	452	346	663	8,000	.....	83	.....	Jos. E. Saylor	3309
2,757	.....	31	.....	.....	.....	.....	258	.....	D. J. Waller, jr	3310
8,190	.....	1,021	.....	63,067	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. D. Turner, superintendent.	3311
3,893	.....	60	.....	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	Bertha Santee	3312
1,500	.....	70	.....	1,923	.....	.....	122	.....	.....	3313
1,200	400	.....	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. Chas. C. Boyer, Ph. D.	3314
1,750	.....	30	.....	2,000	.....	.....	102	.....	Frank L. Kaufman	3315
1,850	25	50	20	50	.....	.....	50	.....	M. A. Bitting	3316
10,000	2,610	698	168	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John B. Kieffer	3317
7,000	.....	43	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Chas. B. Rebert	3318
8,000	.....	225	.....	.....	.....	.....	325	.....	Chas. P. Stahr	3319
6,000	.....	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	630	.....	Edward Penrose Bunton	3320
1,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. M. Seuer, secretary	3321
6,000	.....	50	.....	3,600	.....	.....	280	4,200	Percy Carpenter	3322
12,000	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	575	5,500	E. O. Keen	3323
8,000	500	100	300	6,000	1,000	.....	125	400	H. W. Gibson, secretary	3324
2,731	.....	225	.....	2,812	.....	.....	528	4,400	Elizabeth S. Allen, secretary.	3325
1,500	2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. B. Cross	3326
4,048	500	446	.....	3,700	.....	.....	350	.....	.....	3327
16,000	.....	1,892	.....	.....	.....	.....	450	.....	Wm. E. Martin	3328
1,050	200	100	.....	500	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	3329
2,000	.....	30	30	.....	.....	.....	60	.....	Miss Mary McCord	3330
12,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Geo. B. Carr	3331
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3332
7,000	.....	200	.....	2,000	.....	.....	360	.....	Seymore D. Ball	3333
4,000	200	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jas. Eldon, principal	3334
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3335
3,000	.....	100	.....	2,688	.....	.....	616	.....	Theo. Tormelé, president	3336
1,185	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3337
1,025	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	I. S. Geist, secretary and librarian.	3338
18,000	1,000	400	100	15,000	.....	.....	1,835	40,000	Douglas Craig	3339
15,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3340
25,000	13,000	3,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Sara B. Maxwell	3341
7,000	.....	578	.....	6,266	.....	.....	241	.....	Miss Susan McCracken	3342
3,058	845	120	140	3,277	.....	.....	126	.....	D. E. Kast	3343
3,276	1,000	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	120	.....	.....	3344
2,500	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. W. Stuart	3345
2,000	500	50	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. M. Irvine	3346
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robt. B. Keyerreis	3347
7,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3348
5,000	.....	400	.....	1,500	1,000	.....	250	.....	H. Justin Roddy	3349
1,700	300	85	25	50	35	.....	38	.....	L. A. Beardsley, superintendent.	3350
2,182	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3351

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	PENNSYLVANIA—con							
3352	Mount Holly Springs	Givin Free Library	1889	Gen	O.		F.	B.
3353	Mount Pleasant	Western Pennsylvania Classical and Scientific Institute.	1873	Sch			F.	B.
3354	Myerstown	Albright Collegiate Institute	1881	Col		C.	S.	B.
3355	Nazareth	Moravian Historical Society	1857	Hist	R.	C.		R.
3356	New Berlin	Central Pennsylvania College		Col		C.		
3357	do	Excelsior Library	1858	Col. Soc		C.	F.	B.
3358	do	Neocosmian Literary Society	1858	Col. Soc			Fr.	B.
3359	New Brighton	High School		Sch				
3360	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1852	Y M.C.A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
3361	New Castle	do	1886	Y.M.C.A.		C.	Fr.	B.
3362	Newtown	George School	1893	Sch		C.		B.
3363	do	Newtown Library	1789	Gen	O.		S.	B.
3364	New Wilmington	Westminster College	1852	Col		C.		B.
3365	Norristown	Montgomery County Law Library	1869	Law			F.	R.
3366	do	Norristown Library	1796	Gen	O.	C.	S.	C.
3367	do	State Hospital for the Insane	1885	Gen		T.		B.
3368	do	William McCann Library	1886	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3369	Northeast	St. Mary's College	1881	Col		C.		R.
3370	Ogontz	Cheltenham Academy	1871	Sch		C.	Fr.	R.
3371	do	Ogontz School	1883	Gen	R.	C.		R.
3372	Oley	Oley Academy		Sch				
3373	Orwell	Library Association	1876	Gen		C.	S.	B.
3374	Overbrook (Philadelphia).	Seminary of St. Charles Borromeo.	1832	Theo		C.	Fr.	R.
3375	Philadelphia	Academy of Natural Sciences	1812	Scien	O.	C.	F.	R.
3376	do	Academy of Protestant Episcopal Church.		Sch				
3377	do	Agnes Irwin's School	1869	Gen		C.		R.
3378	do	American Entomological Society	1859	Scien		C.	F.	R.
3379	do	American Philosophical Society	1743	Scien	O.	C.	S.	B.
3380	do	American Sunday School Union	1824	Sch		C.	Fr.	R.
3381	do	Apprentices' Library	1820	Gen	R.	C.	F.	C.
3382	do	Athenæum of Philadelphia	1814	Gen	O.		S.	B.
3383	Philadelphia (320 Chestnut street).	Carpenters Company of City and County of Philadelphia Library.	1736	Gen		C.	Fr.	B.
3384	Philadelphia	Central High School		Col		C.		
3385	Philadelphia (Chestnut Hill, Station H).	Christian Hall Library	1871	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3386	Philadelphia	College of Physicians	1788	Med		C.	F.	B.
3387	do	Day School for Girls (the Misses Hayward).		Sch				
3388	Philadelphia (Station L).	Disston Library	1884	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3389	Philadelphia	Drexel Institute	1892	Col		C.	F.	B.
3390	do	Eastburn Academy		Sch				
3391	Philadelphia (21st and Fairmount avenue).	Eastern State Penitentiary	1845	State		T.		C.
3392	Philadelphia (Station M).	Edwin Forrest Home	1874	Gen		C.		
3393	Philadelphia (Mount Airy).	Evangelical Lutheran Theological Seminary.	1864	Theo		C.	Fr.	B.
3394	Philadelphia	Franklin Institute	1824	Scien		C.	S.	B.
3395	do	Free Library of Philadelphia	1891	Gen	R.	T. & C.	F.	B.
3396	Philadelphia (4315 Walnut street).	French and English Home School		Sch				
3397	Philadelphia (Germantown).	Friend's Free Library and Reading Room.	1874	Gen	O.		F.	B.
3398	Philadelphia	Friend's Library	1742	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3399	Philadelphia (140 North 16th street).	Friend's Select School		Sch				
3400	Philadelphia (Station W).	George Institute	1872	Gen	O.		S.	B.
3401	Philadelphia	German Society of Pennsylvania.	1817	Gen		C.	S.	B.
3402	do	Girard College		Col		C.		
3403	do	Hahnemann Medical College	1847	Med		C.	Fr.	

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,000	500	100	100	7,000	.....	.....	$700	$10,000	Jas. A. Steese, secretary	3352
2,500	1,000	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	70	.....	Emma C. Walter	3353
2,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Esenwein	3354
1,182	2,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank Kunkel	3355
4,217	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3356
2,000	.....	52	.....	.....	.....	.....	65	.....	N. J. Duhs	3357
1,780	100	30	1	.....	31	.....	75	.....	Wm. Bruner	3358
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3359
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. R. Miner, recording secretary.	3360
2,000	500	7	75	3,500	5,000	.....	.....	.....	Phil. J. McLean, secretary.	3361
1,700	80	102	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna Jackson	3362
3,700	.....	211	.....	.....	.....	.....	370	.....	.....	3363
6,000	150	208	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Margaret McLaughey	3364
3,000	.....	71	.....	.....	71	.....	682	.....	John S. Jones	3365
8,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	275	.....	.....	3366
1,700	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dr. F. H. Watson	3367
5,729	150	200	25	.....	.....	.....	375	7,500	A. D. Eisenhower	3368
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Aug. Dooper, rector	3369
2,000	.....	200	.....	950	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. C. Rice	3370
9,800	200	100	20	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	3371
1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3372
1,250	1,500	40	100	1,100	.....	.....	25	.....	J. P. Coburn, secretary and librarian.	3373
22,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John F. Fitz Maurice, president.	3374
40,000	.....	600	4,110	.....	.....	.....	13,665	160,000	Edw. J. Nolan	3375
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3376
2,000	300	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sophy Dallas Irwin	3377
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Wm. J. Fox	3378
50,000	.....	98	2,730	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Geo. H. Horn	3379
8,000	3,500	50	200	.....	.....	.....	550	.....	Edwin W. Rice	3380
17,333	.....	1,250	.....	71,212	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jennie Y. Middleton	3381
30,000	.....	500	.....	5,000	.....	.....	6,000	32,000	Louis K. Lewis	3382
6,500	1,000	43	50	150	.....	.....	100	.....	Thos. H. Marshall, treasurer.	3383
4,000	900	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3384
6,297	.....	106	.....	10,512	.....	.....	1,494	11,000	Laura A. Wenner	3385
50,396	25,723	1,730	6,098	1,986	8,815	.....	4,082	.....	Chas. Perry Fisher	3386
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3387
3,000	100	55	25	5,394	1,000	.....	667	.....	J. Luffberry	3388
18,433	3,000	2,832	307	.....	.....	.....	7,400	.....	Alice B. Krolger	3389
1,350	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3390
11,000	.....	400	.....	68,526	.....	.....	3,500	.....	Michael J. Cassidy	3391
6,300	.....	25	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. J. Fyffe	3392
21,000	11,000	360	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. George Seiger	3393
41,900	20,500	2,577	1,561	2,180	88,000	.....	18,272	60,000	Alfred Rigling	3394
105,308	.....	40,652	.....	1,500,000	.....	.....	100,000	.....	John Thomson	3395
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3396
19,000	.....	737	.....	13,401	.....	.....	3,483	45,000	William Kite	3397
14,500	.....	851	.....	1,948	.....	.....	1,275	6,728	.....	3398
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3399
9,000	1,200	450	225	13,000	.....	.....	2,000	30,000	Thomas Wynne	3400
39,500	500	500	100	10,782	200	.....	815	.....	J. B. Hertzog	3401
14,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. P. Rupp	3402
10,000	3,000	1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	T. L. Bradford, M. D.	3403

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	PENNSYLVANIA—con.							
3404	Philadelphia	Hebrew Education Society	----	Gen	----	C.	F.	B.
3405	----do	Hebrew Literature Society	1885	Gen	R.	C.	----	C.
3406	----do	Historical Society of Pennsylvania	1825	Hist	O.	C.	F.	R.
3407	----do	House of Refuge	----	A. and R.	----	----	----	----
3408	Philadelphia (917-919 Bainbridge street).	Institnte for Colored Youth	1840	Sch	----	C.	F.	B.
3409	Philadelphia (2001 Race street).	Institution for the Blind	----	A. and R.	----	----	----	----
3410	Philadelphia	Irish Library of the Cathedral, T. A. B.	1874	Gen	----	C.	Fr.	C.
3411	----do	Keneseth Israel Public Library	1892	Gen	----	C.	F.	B.
3412	----do	La Salle College	----	Col	----	C.	----	----
3413	----do	Law Association of Philadelphia	1802	Law	R.	C.	S.	R.
3414	Philadelphia (Station F).	Library and Reading Room Association.	1857	Gen	----	C.	S.	B.
3415	Philadelphia	Library Association of Friends	1835	Gen	----	C.	F.	B.
3416	----do	Library Company of Philadelphia	1731	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
3417	Philadelphia (Mount Airy).	Lovett Memorial Free Library	1885	Gen	O.	----	F.	B.
3418	Philadelphia	Mechanics' Institute of Southwark Library.	1854	Gen	----	C.	S.	C.
3419	----do	Mercantile Library	1821	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3420	Philadelphia (4110 Spruce street).	Miss Gordon's School	----	Sch	----	----	----	R.
3421	Philadelphia (Station H).	Mount St. Joseph Academy	1858	Gen	----	C.	S.	R.
3422	Philadelphia	Moyamensing Literary Institute.	1853	Gen	----	C.	F.	B.
3423	----do	New Church Book Association	----	Theo	----	C.	F.	B.
3424	----do	Numismatic and Antiquarian Society Library.	1858	Sci	----	C.	S.	R.
3425	----do	Pennsylvania Horticultural Society.	1827	Soc	----	C.	----	B.
3426	Philadelphia (Station B).	Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane, Department for Men.	1859	A. and R.	----	C.	----	C.
3427	Philadelphia	Pennsylvania Hospital Medical Library.	1760	Med	----	C.	S.	R.
3428	Philadelphia (Mount Airy).	Pennsylvania Institution for Deaf and Dumb.	----	A. and R.	----	----	----	----
3429	Philadelphia	Philadelphia Board of Trade	1833	Mer	----	C.	Fr.	R.
3430	Philadelphia (18th and Chestnut streets).	Philadelphia City Institute	1852	Gen	----	----	F.	B.
3431	Philadelphia	Philadelphia Club	1867	Gen	----	----	----	R.
3432	----do	Philadelphia College of Pharmacy	1821	Sci	----	C.	Fr.	----
3433	----do	Philadelphia County Prison	1835	A. and R.	----	T.	Fr.	B.
3434	----do	Philadelphia Divinity School	1861	Theo	----	C.	Fr.	R.
3435	----do	Philadelphia Maritime Exchange	1875	Mer	----	----	----	R.
3436	----do	Philadelphia Normal School	1893	Sch	----	T.	Fr.	B.
3437	----do	Philadelphia Turn-Gemeinde	1849	Gen	----	C.	Fr.	B.
3438	----do	Post 2, G. A. R	1866	Soc	----	C.	Fr.	B.
3439	----do	Presbyterian Board of Publication and Sabbath School Work.	----	Gen	----	C.	----	R.
3440	----do	Presbyterian Historical Society	1852	Hist	----	C.	F.	R.
3441	----do	Rittenhouse Club Library	1875	Social	----	C.	----	R.
3442	Philadelphia (Bustleton).	St. Luke's School	----	Sch	----	----	----	----
3443	Philadelphia (Station I.).	St. Timothy's Workingmen's Club and Institute.	1873	Social	R.	C.	S.	C.
3444	Philadelphia (Germantown).	St. Vincent's Seminary	1851	Theo	----	C.	Fr.	R.
3445	Philadelphia	Southwark Library Company	1833	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3446	----do	Spring Garden Institute	1851	Gen	----	----	S.	B.
3447	----do	Teacher's Institute of the City and County of Philadelphia.	1868	Soc	----	C.	S.	B.
3448	Philadelphia (Holmesburg).	Thomas Holme Free Library	1867	Gen	----	C.	F.	B.
3449	Philadelphia	Union League Library	1865	Social	----	C.	S.	R.
3450	----do	United States Naval Home	----	Gen	----	----	Fr.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,000	400	300	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3404
2,250	200	99	30	3,100	7,000	.....	$630	.....	D. Feldman	3405
40,000	.....	1,359	835	.....	.....	.....	11,270	$37,690	F. D. Stone	3406
1,075	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3407
3,394	.....	59	.....	1,052	125	.....	.....	.....	Chas. L. Moore	3408
6,558	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3409
3,000	1,000	6	40	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. F. Duffy	3410
3,364	.....	585	.....	19,759	.....	.....	1,063	.....	E. Heller, secretary	3411
8,000	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3412
30,000	.....	1,228	.....	.....	15,000	.....	8,318	500	Luther E. Hewitt	3413
4,250	.....	195	.....	4,449	.....	.....	558	2,700	Robt. T. Taylor, secretary.	3414
8,000	.....	75	.....	2,290	.....	.....	734	3,200	Anna B. Carroll	3415
188,625	30,000	7,113	800	40,793	.....	.....	46,386	414,400	James G. Barnwell	3416
9,424	.....	1,143	.....	15,492	.....	.....	2,036	35,000	L. D. Lovett	3417
8,135	.....	.....	.....	10,629	.....	.....	1,035	.....	J. W. McElwee	3418
177,000	10,000	2,500	200	78,000	.....	.....	17,110	130,000	John Edmands	3419
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3420
3,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sisters of St. Joseph	3421
7,125	.....	175	.....	6,448	.....	.....	940	5,000	J. H. Davis	3422
1,650	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. H. Alden	3423
2,000	5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Steuart Culin	3424
3,259	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	David Rust	3425
3,415	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Henry B. Nunnemacker	3426
14,907	.....	70	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John McCahan	3427
6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3428
1,200	.....	125	95	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. Henry Duché	3429
19,572	780	1,495	163	57,317	.....	.....	5,720	.....	S. Henry Norris	3430
2,500	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	800	20,000	C. H. Hutchinson	3431
9,500	500	3,000	300	.....	.....	.....	750	.....	Thos. S. Wiegand	3432
1,500	.....	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	P. Q. Mathewell, jr	3433
15,000	2,000	600	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. L. M. Robinson	3434
1,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. R. Sharwood, secretary.	3435
2,200	100	25	30	6,000	6,000	.....	48	.....	Geo. H. Cliff, principal	3436
2,400	.....	140	135	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. F. Helbling	3437
1,800	1,000	.....	.....	429	.....	.....	50	.....	William Devine	3438
3,450	1,500	58	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. W. M. Rice	3439
15,000	50,000	50	250	.....	.....	.....	8	.....	.....	3440
4,285	.....	285	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. V. Ingham	3441
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3442
4,000	3,000	200	500	3,500	.....	.....	1,300	2,000	J. L. Colten	3443
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. W. Moore, secretary	3444
9,000	1,000	300	200	2,800	700	.....	1,500	5,000	Victoria Mahan	3445
15,000	.....	635	.....	6,781	.....	.....	125	.....	A. B. Burh, president	3446
14,050	5,000	571	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Anna E. Lindsay	3447
2,556	.....	260	.....	2,708	.....	.....	597	10,500	G. S. Clark	3448
7,526	.....	443	78	.....	.....	.....	300	5,000	Alfred Lee	3449
3,357	.....	276	.....	4,561	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. C. Watson	3450

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	PENNSYLVANIA—con.							
3451	Philadelphia (Station B.).	University of Pennsylvania	1749	Col	O.	C.	F.	B.
3452	Philadelphia	Wagner Free Institute of Science	1855	Scien		C.	F.	R.
3453	Philadelphia (2101 Spruce street).	Walton-Wellesley School	1882	Sch		C.		
3454	Philadelphia	West Walnut Seminary		Sch				R.
3455	Philadelphia (1117 Walnut street).	Wilson's Library	1875	Gen	R.		S.	C.
3456	Philadelphia	Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania.	1850	Med			S.	R.
3457	do	Women's Christian Association	1875	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3458	do	Y. M. C. A. Library, Central Branch.	1854	Y. M. C. A.		C.	Fr.	B.
3459	Phœnixville	Public Library	1862	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3460	Pittsburg	Allegheny County Law Library		Law			F.	R.
3461	do	Bishop Bowman Institute		Sch				
3462	do	Carnegie Library	1895	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3463	do	Catholic College of the Holy Ghost.		Col		C.		
3464	do	Engineers Society of Western Pennsylvania.	1880	Scien	R.	C.	S.	R.
3465	do	High School		Sch				
3466	do	Library Association	1848	Gen		C.	S.	B.
3467	do	Pennsylvania College for Women.	1870	Col		C.	S.	B.
3468	do	Ursuline Library	1870	Col			S.	B.
3469	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1866	Y. M. C. A.		C.	F.	R.
3470	Pottstown	Hill School		Sch.				
3471	do	Public School Library	1870	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
3472	Pottsville	Pottville Athenæum	1877	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3473	Quakertown	Richland Library Company	1796	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
3474	Reading	Berks County Law Library	1859	Law		C.	Fr.	R.
3475	do	Reading Library	1808	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3476	Ridley Park	Library Association		Gen		T.	F.	C.
3477	St. Marys	St. Mary's Benedictine Priory		Theo			Fr.	R.
3478	Scottdale	Public School Library	1890	Sch				C.
3479	Scranton	Green Ridge Library Association	1893	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3480	do	Lackawanna Institute of History and Science.	1886	Scien		C.	S.	R.
3481	do	Lackawanna Law and Library Association.	1891	Law		C.	S.	R.
3482	do	Public Library	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3483	do	St. Cecilian Academy		Sch				
3484	do	School of the Lackawanna		Sch				B.
3485	do	Welch Philosophical Society and Free Reading Room.	1861	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3486	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1868	Y. M. C. A.		C.	S.	B.
3487	Selinsgrove	Susquehanna University	1859	Col		C.		B.
3488	Sewickley	Public Library	1885	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3489	Sharon	Hall Institute		Sch				
3490	do	Public School Library	1877	Sch			Fr.	R.
3491	Sharpsville	do		Sch			F.	B.
3492	Shenandoah	High School Library		Sch				
3493	do	Public School Library	1879	Gen			F.	B.
3494	Shippensburg	Cumberland Valley State Normal School.		Sch				R.
3495	Slipperyrock	State Normal School	1889	Sch			Fr.	B.
3496	South Bethlehem	Bishopthorpe School		Sch				
3497	do	Lehigh University	1877	Col	O.	C.	F.	R.
3498	South Hermitage	John McAlly Library	1878	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3499	State College	Pennsylvania State College		Col		C.	F.	R.
3500	Steelton	Library Association	1884	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3501	Sugargrove	Hopkins Library of Sugar Grove Seminary.	1884	Sch		C.		B.
3502	Susquehanna	Susquehanna Library	1859	Gen			S.	B.
3503	Swarthmore	Swarthmore College	1864	Col		C.	F.	B.
3504	do	Delphic Literary Society	1873	Col. Soc		C.	F.	C.
3505	do	Friends' Historical Library	1871	Hist		C.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
140,000	.....	25,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Gregory B. Keen	3451
8,500	20,000	726	.....	.....	.....	.....	$1,000	.....	Thomas L. Montgomery	3452
4,000	3,000	50	200	.....	400	.....	225	.....	Mrs. J. R. Danforth	3453
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Henrietta Kutz, principal.	3454
73,000	4,500	7,590	2,900	250,000	.....	.....	11,750	.....	W. C. Wilson	3455
1,800	1,500	.....	500	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	Dr. Hannah T. Croasdale.	3456
4,000	.....	260	.....	7,752	.....	.....	78	.....	L. Voute	3457
5,110	530	222	200	3,414	2,500	.....	309	.....	J. H. Bosworth	3458
2,000	.....	30	.....	1,000	.....	.....	300	.....	Henry T. Leister, superintendent.	3459
30,000	.....	500	.....	.....	18,326	.....	.....	.....	.....	3460
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3461
21,374	800	21,374	.....	41,992	38,499	.....	40,000	.....	Edwin H. Anderson	3462
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3463
2,750	.....	100	75	.....	.....	.....	2,500	.....	Daniel Carhart, secretary.	3464
2,639	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3465
21,000	.....	50	131	10,023	.....	.....	2,347	$6,000	R. A. Lee	3466
2,500	100	250	50	.....	.....	.....	220	.....	R. J. De Vore	3467
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. M. Ursula	3468
1,800	200	100	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Griggs, general secretary.	3469
3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3470
2,520	.....	115	.....	25,000	.....	.....	100	2,000	Mrs. Sallie R. Custer	3471
3,393	900	91	250	3,374	1,180	.....	541	.....	B. N. Hyde	3472
1,815	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3473
4,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Edward Yeager	3474
6,000	.....	200	.....	900	.....	.....	1,535	.....	Albert R. Denham	3475
1,030	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	Henry H. Keeler	3476
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3477
1,000	.....	100	.....	2,000	.....	.....	100	.....	E. L. Stoner	3478
1,587	.....	132	.....	12,483	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emma R. Thompson	3479
1,083	1,064	645	743	.....	.....	.....	2,100	.....	Chas. LeRoy Wheeler	3480
3,500	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Herman Osthaus, secretary.	3481
26,239	4,510	2,548	1,750	149,769	3,448	.....	10,634	.....	Henry J. Carr	3482
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3483
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thos. M. Cann	3484
3,500	400	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	488	.....	D. C. Powell	3485
2,750	500	50	.....	2,150	1,900	.....	750	.....	.....	3486
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thos. C. Houtz	3487
2,290	.....	300	.....	7,698	510	$500	700	.....	Miss Elizabeth Knapp	3488
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3489
1,763	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	J. W. Mason	3490
1,020	.....	110	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. F. Osborne, superintendent.	3491
3,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3492
3,700	.....	235	.....	15,000	.....	.....	609	.....	Wm. T. Trezise	3493
1,800	300	40	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Jos. E. Barton	3494
1,400	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Albert E. Maltby	3495
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3496
73,851	24,092	326	867	789	27,500	.....	5,590	469,436	W. H. Chandler, director	3497
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	5,000	Rev. Robt. Gamble	3498
10,651	.....	1,239	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,928	.....	Geo. W. Atherton	3499
2,200	350	18	28	1,690	986	.....	150	.....	L. E. McGinnes	3500
1,400	150	50	50	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	G. W. Jude	3501
4,000	.....	140	.....	5,475	.....	.....	241	.....	Mrs. M. H. Baynton	3502
11,650	2,000	510	200	.....	.....	.....	625	10,000	Sarah M. Nowell	3503
1,133	15	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	33	.....	Joseph A. Willis	3504
2,188	1,000	146	50	.....	.....	.....	125	.....	Arthur Beardsley	3505

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	PENNSYLVANIA—con.							
3506	Tarentum	I. O. O. F. Library	1870	I. O. O. F.	R.	C.	S.	B.
3507	Tidioute	Tidioute Library	----	Gen	----	----	F.	B.
3508	Torresdale	Institute of the Sacred Heart	1846	Col	----	C.	----	B.
3509	Towanda	Susquehanna Collegiate Institute.	1853	Sch	----	C.	----	B.
3510	----do	Towanda Library	1878	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
3511	Troy	High School Library	1870	Sch	----	C.	F.	B.
3512	Uniontown	Book Club Library	1850	Soc	----	----	S.	B.
3513	Villamaria	St. Mary's Library	1875	Social	----	C.	----	B.
3514	Villanova	Villanova College	----	Col	----	C.	----	----
3515	Warren	Public Library	1871	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3516	Washington	Citizens' Library	1870	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3517	----do	Trinity Hall Library	----	Sch	----	C.	----	R.
3518	----do	Washington Female Seminary	----	Sch	----	----	Fr.	B.
3519	----do	Washington and Jefferson College	1800	Col	----	C.	----	B.
3520	Waynesburg	Waynesburg College	1860	Col	----	T.	Fr.	R.
3521	West Chester	Birmingham Library	1795	Gen	----	----	----	B.
3522	----do	Chester County Law and Miscellaneous Library.	1862	Law	----	----	----	R.
3523	----do	Darlington Seminary for Young Ladies.	----	Sch	----	----	----	----
3524	----do	Friends' Library Association	1880	Gen	----	C.	S.	B.
3525	----do	Library Association	1872	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3526	----do	Public School Library	1854	Sch	----	----	----	B.
3527	----do	State Normal School	1871	Sch	----	----	S.	B.
3528	West Sunbury	West Sunbury Academy	----	Sch	----	----	----	----
3529	Westtown	Westtown School	1825	Sch	----	C.	----	B.
3530	Wilkesbarre	Law and Library Association	1850	Law	----	C.	S.	R.
3531	----do	Osterhout Free Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3532	----do	Wyoming Historical and Geological Society.	1858	Scien	----	----	F.	R.
3533	----do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1871	Y. M. C. A.	----	C.	F.	B.
3534	Williamsport	Dickinson Seminary	----	Sch	----	----	----	----
3535	----do	Public School Library	1880	Gen	----	----	F.	B.
3536	----do	Y. M. C. A. Library	----	Y. M. C. A.	----	C.	F.	B.
3537	Wyncote	Chelten Hills School	----	Sch	----	----	----	B.
3538	Yardley	Yardville Library	1845	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3539	York	Cassat Library of York Collegiate Institute.	1873	Sch	----	C.	----	B.
3540	----do	United Library Association	1879	I. O. O. F.	----	C.	S.	C.
3541	----do	York County Law Library	1868	Law	----	----	Fr.	R.
	RHODE ISLAND.							
3542	Anthony	Free Library	1872	Gen	----	----	F.	B.
3543	Apponaug	----do	1886	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
3544	Arlington	Arlington Public Library	1895	Gen	----	C.	F.	B.
3545	Ashaway	Free Library	1870	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3546	Ashton	Library Association	1871	Gen	----	C.	S.	B.
3547	Auburn	Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3548	Barrington Center	----do	1880	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
3549	Block Island	Island Free Library	1875	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
3550	Bristol	Rogers Free Library	1877	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3551	Carolina	Public Library	1881	Gen	----	C.	F.	B.
3552	Central Falls	Free Public Library	1882	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
3553	Centerdale	Union Free Library	1869	Gen	O.	----	F.	B.
3554	Chepachet	Manton Library Association	----	Gen	----	T.	S.	B.
3555	Crompton	Free Library	1876	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3556	East Greenwich	----do	1867	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3557	East Providence	Natchemoket Free Library	----	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
3558	East Providence Center.	East Providence Free Library	1819	Gen	----	T.	F.	B.
3559	Exeter	Manton Free Library	1882	Gen	----	T.	F.	C.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,000	200	75	15	1,000	.....	.....	$51	.....	Jno. F. Humes, secretary	3506
3,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3507
1,000	200	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. J. Keller	3508
1,000	100	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	40	.....	E. E. Quinlan	3509
2,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	115	.....	Ulilla Hoyt Tracy	3510
1,900	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3511
2,000	.....	175	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Alex. D. Ewing	3512
5,000	200	.....	.....	150	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	3513
7,500	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3514
8,374	.....	524	.....	48,144	.....	.....	1,826	$7,000	Mary Charlotte Weiss	3515
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	10,000	Miss Antoinette Craft.	3516
2,500	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. W. Smith	3517
1,700	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	M. C. Dampman	3518
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	900	.....	W. C. McClelland	3519
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$100	100	.....	A. B. Miller, president	3520
2,908	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Julia A. Cooper	3521
2,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	60	.....	A. M. Holding	3522
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3523
1,057	.....	37	.....	.....	.....	.....	53	.....	Julia A. Cooper	3524
3,460	.....	179	.....	9,725	.....	.....	673	1,100	Rachel L. Price	3525
1,100	200	800	160	.....	900	.....	455	.....	Addison Jones, superintendent.	3526
7,000	.....	248	20	6,117	.....	.....	465	.....	G. M. Philips	3527
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3528
5,060	.....	133	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. W. Dewees	3529
8,000	.....	350	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	Jos. D. Coons, secretary and treasurer.	3530
23,632	.....	2,137	.....	71,569	.....	.....	16,000	375,000	Hannah P. James	3531
6,000	4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,700	10,000	H. E. Hayden, corresponding secretary.	3532
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,260	.....	22	585	E. B. Buckalew, general secretary.	3533
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3534
4,000	1,000	200	50	.....	.....	.....	90	.....	W. W. Kelchner, principal.	3535
3,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. J. Harder, general secretary.	3536
1,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3537
3,254	288	182	96	10,680	.....	.....	287	3,250	Miss Harriet W. Comly	3538
2,500	.....	10	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. T. Jeffers	3539
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	D. Philip Heckert, treasurer.	3540
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	M. A. Millis	3541
2,771	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Edgar B. Peck, secretary.	3542
2,700	.....	200	.....	4,300	.....	.....	225	.....	Nellie A. Williams	3543
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	500	550	.....	J. Ernest Hammond, secretary.	3544
3,000	1,200	335	500	6,214	.....	.....	245	.....	H. F. Larkin	3545
2,057	.....	47	2	.....	.....	.....	270	.....	G. W. Adams	3546
2,138	100	387	14	7,658	.....	600	929	.....	Flora M. Kendall	3547
8,250	.....	220	.....	6,593	.....	.....	512	.....	Mrs. Emma S. Bradford	3548
2,400	250	85	50	1,062	.....	100	200	.....	Edward P. Chomplin	3549
12,254	.....	272	.....	18,921	.....	800	1,600	.....	Geo. U. Arnold	3550
2,378	.....	213	.....	1,162	.....	.....	.....	.....	Imogene A. Crandall	3551
6,700	.....	628	.....	15,632	.....	1,200	1,346	.....	J. W. Freeman	3552
3,300	152	228	60	3,028	.....	125	253	.....	Frank C. Angell	3553
1,100	200	10	10	36	.....	.....	180	.....	Chas. Potter	3554
4,616	.....	173	.....	7,317	.....	.....	710	.....	Annie M. Livsey	3555
4,300	.....	300	.....	4,500	.....	.....	634	8,500	Francis A. Loomis	3556
4,021	50	227	6	11,452	.....	.....	700	.....	.....	3557
3,658	.....	219	.....	2,882	.....	.....	387	.....	H. H. Dexter	3558
2,800	200	100	20	1,000	.....	.....	125	.....	P. H. Edwards	3559

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	RHODE ISLAND—con.							
3560	Hope	Hope Library	1877	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3561	Hope Valley	Langworthy Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3562	Howard	Sockanosset School		A. & R.				
3563	....do	State Prison Library		A. & R.		T.		B.
3564	Jamestown	Philomenian Library	1849	Gen			F.	B.
3565	Johnston	Olneyville Free Library	1875	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3566	Kingston	College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	1890	Col		C.	F.	R.
3567	....do	Free Library		Gen			F.	B.
3568	Lakewood	Old Warwick and Lakewood Free Library.	1881	Gen			F.	B.
3569	Little Compton	Free Public Library	1878	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3570	Lonsdale	Library and Reading Room	1849	Soc		C.	S.	B.
3571	Manville	Manville Library	1872	Gen	R.		F.	B.
3572	Natick	Free Library	1887	Gen			F.	B.
3573	Newport	Middletown Free Library	1876	Gen		T.	F.	B.
3574	....do	Newport Historical Society	1853	Hist		C.	F.	R.
3575	....do	Peoples' Library	1870	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3576	....do	Post Library (Fort Adams)		Gar		T.	F.	B.
3577	....do	Redwood Library	1747	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
3578	....do	Y. M. C. A Library		Y.M.C.A.	R.	C.	S.	B.
3579	Pascoag	Ladies' Pascoag Library		Gen		C.	S.	C.
3580	Pawtucket	Free Public Library		Gen	R.		F.	B.
3581	Peacedale	Narragansett Library Association.	1852	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3582	Phenix	Pawtuxet Valley Free Library Association.	1884	Gen	R.	C.	F.	C.
3583	Pontiac	Free Library		Gen		T.	F.	B.
3584	Providence	Academy of the Sacred Heart	1873	Sch		C.	S.	B.
3585	....do	Brown University	1767	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3586	....do	Brownson Lyceum	1878	Soc	R.	C.	F.	B.
3587	....do	Butler Hospital for the Insane	1850	A. & R				R.
3588	....do	Davis's Circulating Library	1847	Gen	R.		S.	C.
3589	....do	English and Classical School		Sch		C.		B.
3590	....do	Friends School	1819	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
3591	....do	Gregory's Circulating Library	1881	Gen	R.		S.	C.
3592	....do	High School		Sch				R.
3593	....do	La Salle Academy		Sch				
3594	.... do	Providence Athenæum	1836	Soc	O.	C.	S.	B.
3595	....do	Providence Public Library	1874	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3596	....do	Rhode Island Historical Society	1822	Hist	O.	C.		R.
3597	....do	Rhode Island Medical Society		Med	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
3598	....do	State Law Library	1868	Law		T.	F.	R.
3599	....do	State Normal School	1872	Sch		T.		B.
3600	....do	Union for Christian Work	1868	Gen		C.	F.	C.
3601	....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1853	Y. M. C. A		C.	Fr.	B.
3602	....do	Young Woman's Tea Room Library.	1884	Social	R.	C.	S.	C.
3603	Riverside	Free Public Library	1879	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3604	Saylesville	Sayles Free Library	1886	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3605	Slatersville	Slatersville Library	1848	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3606	Summit	Free Library	1892	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3607	Tiverton	Whitridge Hall Free Library	1875	Gen			F.	B.
3608	Tiverton Four Corners.	Union Public Library	1814	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3609	Valley Falls	Valley Falls Library	1874	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3610	Warren	George Hale Free Library	1871	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3611	Warwick	League Library	1885	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3612	Westerly	High School		Sch				
3613	....do	Public Library	1894	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3614	Wickford	Free Library	1890	Gen			F.	B.
3615	Woonsocket	Harris Institute	1866	Gen		C.	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,201	.....	140	.....	140	.....	.....	.....	.....	Joseph MacDonald	3560
3,780	.....	362	.....	5,178	26	.....	$575	.....	Laura S. Yeaw	3561
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3562
2,000	.....	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Nelson Viall, warden	3563
3,805	.....	190	.....	4,378	.....	.....	121	.....	Mrs. L. C. Hammond	3564
7,000	.....	300	.....	20,000	.....	.....	950	.....	Mrs. Harriet H. Richardson.	3565
4,530	13,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. J. Watson	3566
5,000	.....	128	100	3,199	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. W. Coe	3567
3,155	.....	.....	.....	4,481	.....	.....	225	.....	George Fisher	3568
1,600	.....	72	.....	750	.....	.....	65	.....	.....	3569
3,537	.....	121	.....	3,535	.....	.....	401	.....	Annie Toner	3570
2,334	.....	121	.....	1,521	.....	.....	125	.....	Wm. Deane Aldrich	3571
2,153	.....	158	.....	4,118	.....	$100	250	.....	Webster Knight	3572
1,518	.....	57	.....	506	.....	.....	71	.....	D. M. Chase	3573
1,702	3,710	205	627	.....	.....	.....	1,189	.....	R. Hammett Tilley	3574
29,200	3,263	386	82	34,407	1,413	.....	4,424	.....	David Stevens	3575
2,500	.....	5	.....	600	400	.....	.....	.....	Geo F. E Harrison	3576
41,778	.....	442	106	13,291	.....	.....	3,039	$52,040	Richard Bliss, first lieutenant and regimental quartermaster, Second Artillery.	3577
1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Samuel Jessup, general secretary.	3578
1,398	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Fred. A. Gory, secretary.	3579
14,765	.....	948	.....	47,000	.....	.....	7,240	1,000	Mrs. Minerva A. Sanders.	3580
6,239	300	461	35	11,640	398	.....	777	10,700	Herbert W. Fison	3581
4,600	.....	250	.....	10,271	.....	.....	513	.....	Geo. E. Sheldon	3582
2,000	200	50	20	50	10	.....	100	.....	Richard Russell	3583
3,040	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	78	.....	A. E. Sinnott	3584
90,000	20,000	3,812	1,000	5,500	.....	.....	7,197	56,699	H. L. Koopman	3585
1,123	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Joseph H. Swift	3586
2,000	100	20	100	.....	.....	.....	60	.....	W. A Ginton, superintendent	3587
6,750	500	300	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Albert F. Davis	3588
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Goff & Rice, principals	3589
6,934	100	58	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3590
5,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. Gregory	3591
4,400	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	David W. Hoyt, principal	3592
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3593
57,073	6,700	1,455	377	45,369	.....	.....	8,111	42,200	Jos. Le Roy Harrison	3594
75,559	.....	4,251	.....	115,743	33,373	.....	.....	.....	Wm E. Foster	3595
15,000	35,000	500	1,000	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	Amos Perry	3596
12,000	6,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	Geo. D. Hersey	3597
21,000	.....	1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	.....	J. Harry Bongartz	3598
2,500	300	50	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Emma E Brown	3599
4,759	.....	256	.....	13,133	.....	.....	1,301	3,900	Zeph. Brown, treasurer	3600
4,173	.....	68	.....	1,502	.....	.....	300	100	Heman L. Faeder	3601
1,000	.....	100	.....	2,977	.....	.....	607	.....	Mary G. Huntsman	3602
2,800	.....	107	.....	4,147	.....	.....	375	.....	M. W. Blodget	3603
1,040	125	62	.....	1,018	.....	.....	50	.....	Alvin C. Robbins	3604
2,400	700	.....	.....	2,000	.....	.....	143	.....	Archibald M. Clarke	3605
1,600	.....	125	.....	1,312	.....	.....	138	.....	A. E. Nichols	3606
3,415	.....	420	.....	2,135	50	.....	179	.....	Mary J. Seabury	3607
1,307	.....	88	.....	1,120	.....	.....	75	.....	Esther J. Manchester	3608
2,000	300	75	55	1,954	.....	.....	162	.....	Anna Earle	3609
5,000	.....	.....	.....	12,600	.....	.....	695	.....	Isabelle W. Baker	3610
2,524	500	209	75	5,049	120	100	375	.....	May A. Sarle	3611
1,150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3612
8,015	2,500	2,113	500	26,905	.....	.....	200	.....	Ethan Wilcox	3613
1,819	.....	116	.....	4,361	.....	.....	300	.....	Philander J. Thomas, treasurer.	3614
14,086	.....	317	.....	30,442	.....	.....	1,700	.....	Anna Metcalf	3615

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	SOUTH CAROLINA.							
3616	Aiken	Shinn Library of Schofield School.	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	C.
3617	Anderson	Patrick Military Institute	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3618	Cedar Springs	South Carolina Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind.	.....	A. & R.	....	.....	....	....
3619	Charleston	Avery Institute	1868	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3620	.....do	Charleston Female Seminary	1870	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3621	.....do	Charleston Library Society	1748	Gen	O.	.....	S.	B.
3622	.....do	Charleston Orphan Home	.....	A. & R.	....	T.	....	C.
3623	.....do	College of Charleston	.....	Col	O.	C.	....	R.
3624	.....do	Medical Society of South Carolina in Roper Hospital.	1891	Med	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3625	.....do	Military Academy	1890	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3626	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1870	Y. M. C. A.	....	.....	S.	B.
3627	Clemson College	Clemson Agricultural College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3628	Clinton	Nellie Scott Library of Thornwell Orphanage.	1875	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3629	Columbia	Benedict College	1870	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3630	.....do	City School Library	1884	Sch	....	.....	....	B.
3631	.....do	Columbia Theological Seminary	1831	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3632	.....do	South Carolina College	1805	Col	O.	T.	Fr.	R.
3633	.....do	State Library	.....	State	....	.....	F.	R.
3634	Conway	Borroughs School	.....	Sch	....	.....	F.	B.
3635	Darlington	St. John's School	1889	Sch	....	C.	F.	C.
3636	Duewest	Associate Reformed Theological Seminary.	1839	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3637	.....do	Euphemian Literary Society.	1839	Col. Soc	O.	T.	S.	C.
3638	.....do	Philomathean Society	1842	Col. Soc	....	C.	F.	B.
3639	Georgetown	Winyah Indigo Society Library	1735	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
3640	Greenville	Furman University	1852	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3641	Newberry	Newberry College	1857	Col	....	.....	Fr.	B.
3642	Orangeburg	Claflin University	1869	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
3643	Society Hill	Society Hill Library	1822	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3644	Spartanburg	Converse College	1890	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3645	.....do	Wofford College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3646	Williamston	Williamston Female College	1872	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3647	Yorkville	Baptist High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
	SOUTH DAKOTA.							
3648	Aberdeen	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3649	.....do	Public School Library	1887	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3650	Brookings	South Dakota Agricultural College.	1883	Col	....	.....	F.	B.
3651	Canton	Augustana College	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3652	East Pierre	Pierre University	1883	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3653	Madison	State Normal School	1883	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
3654	Mitchell	Dakota University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3655	Redfield	Redfield College	1887	Col	R.	C.	F.	B.
3656	Sioux Falls	Public Library	1886	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3657	.....do	Sioux Falls University	.....	Col	....	C.	Fr.	C.
3658	.....do	South Dakota Penitentiary	.....	A. & R.	....	.....	Fr.	C.
3659	Spearfish	State Normal School	1885	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
3660	Vermillion	University of South Dakota	1883	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3661	Yankton	Yankton College	1881	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
	TENNESSEE.							
3662	Athens	Grant Memorial University	1870	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3663	Bellbuckle	Webb School	1886	Sch	R.	C.	S.	B.
3664	Bristol	King College	1869	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3665	.....do	Sullins College Library	1880	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3666	Brownsville	Longfellow Literary Society	1885	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3667	Chattanooga	Chattanooga College	1889	Col	R.	C.	S.	R.
3668	.....do	University School of Chattanooga	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3669	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1886	Y. M. C. A.	R.	C.	S.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,200	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Robert Benson	3616
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John B. Patrick, superintendent.	3617
1,375	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3618
1,000	200	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	$25	.....	M. A. Holmes, principal	3619
2,500	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	70	.....	.....	3620
45,000	.....	200	.....	19,254	.....	.....	1,200	.....	.....	3621
3,771	172	140	17	2,925	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. R. Irving, principal	3622
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. Boaz	3623
3,000	600	102	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	T. Privlean Whaley, M. D.	3624
6,000	500	50	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Asbury Coward, superintendent.	3625
2,200	.....	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3626
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3627
5,000	1,000	480	200	2,200	.....	.....	120	.....	Rev. Wm. P. Jacobs	3628
2,360	1,000	360	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. B. Guernsey	3629
1,650	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	E. S. Dreher, superintendent.	3630
20,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	$11,000	D. J Brimm	3631
31,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	James Woodrow	3632
40,000	.....	.....	.....	4,000	.....	.....	550	.....	Mrs. Caroline Le Conte	3633
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	Rev. W. S. Stokes	3634
1,262	100	100	.....	6,000	.....	.....	100	.....	L. C. Glenn	3635
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Hood	3636
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	H. C. Bradley	3637
2,000	.....	250	.....	575	250	.....	127	.....	J. Augustus Black	3638
5,000	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Thos. B. Hamley	3639
5,000	300	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	75	75,000	Chas. Manly	3640
7,000	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3641
1,700	1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. M. Dunton	3642
2,200	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. M. Coker, secretary and treasurer.	3643
2,000	1,800	50	68	.....	.....	.....	1,500	.....	Miss Leslie Stude	3644
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3645
3,000	1,000	100	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. Lander, president	3646
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3647
2,050	.....	300	.....	16,802	.....	$900	1,100	.....	C. E. Reed	3648
1,000	115	75	.....	315	703	.....	.....	.....	H. L. Andrews	3649
4,108	5,000	494	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John M. Parkinson	3650
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3651
1,600	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Wm. M. Blackburn	3652
1,600	300	60	30	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	W. H. H. Beadle, president.	3653
1,400	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3654
1,500	100	400	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3655
1,500	100	200	50	2,500	.....	.....	250	.....	J. M. Glidden, secretary	3656
1,000	400	500	400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Gertrude L. Morris	3657
1,570	.....	.....	.....	5,593	.....	.....	381	.....	N. E. Phillips, warden	3658
7,646	949	1,090	337	3,000	.....	.....	1,700	.....	Laura Robins	3659
3,377	500	353	300	500	750	.....	.....	.....	I. W. Price	3660
5,412	2,600	320	.....	.....	.....	.....	305	2,500	G. G. Wenzlaff	3661
3,000	2,000	50	40	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. C. Ferguson	3662
2,700	365	120	45	.....	.....	.....	605	.....	W. R. Webb	3663
5,000	2,000	350	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. R. Pepper	3664
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	.....	D. S. Hearon	3665
1,000	600	25	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. A. Folk, president	3666
1,750	150	30	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3667
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3668
7,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Frank R. George	3669

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	TENNESSEE—cont'd.							
3670	Clarksville	Clarksville Female Academy	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3671	.....do	Southwestern Presbyterian University.	1879	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3672	Columbia	Columbia Atheneum Library	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3673	Como	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3674	Culleoka	Culleoka Academy	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3675	.....do	Culleoka Reading Club	1871	Sch	O.	T.	S.	C.
3676	Dickson	Dickson Normal School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3677	Fountain City	Holbrook Normal College	1893	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3678	Franklin	Battle Ground Academy	1889	Sch	....	.....	S.	B.
3679	.....do	Wall and Mooney's School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3680	Grandview	Grand View Normal School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3681	Grassy Cove	Grassy Cove Academy	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3682	Harriman	American Temperance University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3683	Hiwassee College	Hiwassee College	1849	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3684	Huntingdon	Southern Normal University	1891	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
3685	Jackson	Free Library Association	1884	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3686	.....do	Memphis Conference Female Institute.	1842	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3687	.....do	Southwestern Baptist University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3688	Knoxville	Lawson McGhee Library	1886	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3689	.....do	Southern Library Association	1896	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
3690	.....do	University of Tennessee	1807	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3691	Lebanon	Cumberland University	1842	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3692	Maryville	Maryville College	1888	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3693	Memphis	Bar and Law Library Association	1874	Law	....	.....	S.	R.
3694	.....do	Christian Brothers' College	1872	Col	....	T.	....	B.
3695	.....do	Clara Conway Institute	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3696	.....do	Cossitt Library	1888	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3697	.....do	Higbee School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3698	.....do	Le Moyne Normal School	1878	Sch	....	.....	F.	B.
3699	.....do	I. O. O. F. Hall and Library Association.	1847	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
3700	Milligan	Milligan College	1882	Col	....	.....	Fr.	R.
3701	Mossycreek	Carson and Newman College	.....	Col	....	.....	S.	B.
3702	Nashville	Central Tennessee College	1866	Col	....	.....	S.	B.
3703	.....do	College for Young Ladies	....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3704	.....do	Fisk University	1869	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3705	.....do	Howard Library Company	1885	Gen	....	C.	F.	R.
3706	.....do	Masonic Library Association	1880	Masonic	R.	C.	S.	R.
3707	.....do	Roger Williams University	1867	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3708	.....do	St. Cecilia Academy	1890	Col	....	C.	S.	R.
3709	.....do	Tennessee State Library	1854	State	....	.....	F.	R.
3710	.....do	University of Nashville, Peabody Normal College.	1787	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
3711	.....do	Vanderbilt University	1875	Col	....	.....	Fr.	R.
3712	.....do	Ward Seminary	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3713	Pulaski	Martin Female College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3714	Rogersville	Synodical Female College	1849	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3715	Rugby	Hughes Free Public Library	1883	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3716	Sevierville	Murphy College	1895	Sch	....	C.	....	....
3717	Sewanee	University of the South	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3718	Spencer	Burritt College	1852	Col. Soc	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3719	Sweetwater	Sweetwater Seminary for Young Ladies.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3720	Tusculum	Greeneville and Tusculum College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3721	Washington College	Washington College	1798	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
3722	Waverly	Southern Methodist Institute and University.	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3723	Winchester	Mary Sharp College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
	TEXAS.							
3724	Abilene	Simmons College	1891	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3725	Austin	Institution for the Blind	.....	A and R	....	.....	....	....
3726	.....do	St. Edward's College	1889	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3727	.....do	Supreme Court Library	1846	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
3728	.....do	Texas State Library	1876	State	....	T.	F.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,000										3670
10,000									Rev. Robt. Price, D. D.	3671
10,205										3672
1,000										3673
1,000										3674
1,200									Jonas T. Amis	3675
1,000										3676
3,000	500	200	50				$125		J. J. Crumley, president.	3677
1,225							250		W. D. Mooney	3678
1,400										3679
1,200										3680
1,200										3681
1,000										3682
2,450									H. B. Wilson	3683
3,000	1,500						900		J. A. Baber, president	3684
2,000	100			200					S. A. Mynders	3685
6,300	1,000	150							Howard B. Key	3686
3,500	450									3687
9,169		338		12,288	9,926		2,935		Mary Louise Davis	3688
1,100									Miss Minnie Shanton	3689
14,000	6 100	1,141	800	4,036			1,200	$20,000	Edwin Wiley	3690
15.000	1,000	75	100				275		W. P. Bone	3691
10,000		300							Chas. Marstan	3692
10,000							2,000		E. A. Cole, secretary	3693
3,015	300	50	25						Brother Constantius	3694
1,000										3695
10.000				33.000			7,220		Mell Nunnally	3696
2,300										3697
2,000				500						3698
4,500	20			3,024					Miss Jennie Davis	3699
1,640	575	200	110				200		J. P. McConnell	3700
3,000		300					300			3701
3,986	578	75	25				125		M. W. Dogan	3702
1,000										3703
5,500		300		2,000			355	1,750	Josephine Beard	3704
9,000									Jos. S. Carels	3705
3,000							2,000		B. R. Phillips	3706
5,167	700	179	150	828			50		A. M. Townsend	3707
5,000	60	100	60				120		Sister Angela	3708
34,500	5,000	750					720		Mrs. Irene Ingram	3709
12,000	5,000	500	200	500	21,563		1,500		Elizabeth R. Clark	3710
15,000		700	100	1,400			1,250		Wm. J. Vaughn	3711
1,500									J. D. Blanton	3712
1,000									Rev. S. N. Barker	3713
1,200	500	50	75				60		Wm. M. Graybill, president.	3714
7,000		25		1,988			59		M. S. Percival	3715
1,500									J. C. Eckles	3716
34,000										3717
3,864	308	300		2,468	1,695		462		W. N. Billingsley, president.	3718
1,000										3719
7,500	500									3720
2,000	150	100	75						James T. Cooter	3721
2,000										3722
1,000										3723
2,000		500					1,000		Geo. O. Thatcher	3724
3,400										3725
2,000	500	50	100						P. P. Klein, C. S. C., president.	3726
10,600	200	200	35				1,150		Chas. S. Morse	3727
12,852	3,231	678	145				2,000		Eugene Diggs	3728

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	TEXAS—continued.							
3729	Austin	Tillotson College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3730	.....do	University of Texas	1884	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3731	Belton	Baylor Female College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3732	Brackettville	Post Library, Fort Clark	.....	Gar	....	T.	Fr.	B.
3733	Brenham	Blinn Memorial College	.....	Sch	....	....	....	....
3734	Brownsville	Incarnate Word Academy	.....	Sch	....	....	....	....
3735	Brownwood	Howard Payne College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3736	College Station	Agricultural and Mechanical College.	1880	Col	....	T.	Fr.	B.
3737	Commerce	East Texas Normal College	1896	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3738	Dallas	Central Academy	1885	Sch	R	C.	Fr.	B.
3739	Ennis	Public School Library	1888	Sch	....	T.	S.	B.
3740	Fort Worth	Fort Worth University	.....	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3741	Galveston	Court of Civil Appeals	1892	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
3742	.....do	Public Library	1882	Gen	R	T.	F.	B.
3743	.....do	St. Mary's University	1885	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3744	.....do	Ursuline Academy	1847	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3745	Georgetown	Southwestern University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3746	Houston	Houston Lyceum Library	1854	Gen	....	....	S.	B.
3747	Huntsville	Peabody Memorial Library of Sam Houston Normal Institute.	1879	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3748	.....do	Prison Library	1881	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3749	Marshall	Wiley University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3750	Oak Cliff	Central Academy	.....	Sch	....	....	....	....
3751	San Antonio	St. Louis College	.....	Col	....	....	....	B.
3752	.....do	St. Mary's College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3753	Sherman	Austin College	1876	Col	....	....	Fr.	R.
3754	.....do	Mary Nash College (formerly Sherman Institute).	1877	Col	....	C.	S.	B.
3755	.....do	North Texas Female College	.....	Sch	....	....	....	....
3756	Sulphur Springs	Eastman College	1895	Col	....	....	F.	R.
3757	Tehuacana	Trinity University	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3758	Waco	Add-Ran Christian University	1876	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3759	.....do	Baylor University	1845	Col	....	C.	F.	R.
3760	Walnut Springs	Central College	.....	Sch	....	....	....	....
3761	Weatherford	Weatherford College	1889	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3762	Whitewright	Grayson College	1886	Col	....	C.	....	B.
	UTAH.							
3763	Logan	Agricultural College of Utah	.....	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3764	.....do	Brigham Young College	.....	Col	....	C.	....	....
3765	Mount Pleasant	Wasatch Academy	.....	Sch	....	....	....	....
3766	Provo City	Brigham Young Academy	.....	Sch	....	....	....	....
3767	Salt Lake City	All Hallowes College	1890	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3768	.....do	Firemen's Library	1873	Social	....	C.	F.	B.
3769	.....do	Latter-day Saint's College	.....	Col	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
3770	.....do	Pioneer Library Association	1891	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3771	.....do	Salt Lake College	1884	Col	....	....	....	B.
3772	.....do	University of Utah	1869	Col	....	T.	F.	R.
3773	.....do	Utah State Library	.....	State	....	T.	F.	R.
	VERMONT.							
3774	Barre	Barre Library Association and E. E. French's Barre Library.	.....	Gen	R.	.....	S.	B.
3775	.....do	Goddard Seminary	1879	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
3776	Bellows Falls	Rockingham Free Public Library	1888	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
3777	Bennington	Free Library	1865	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3778	Bradford	Merrill Library of High School	.....	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3779	.....do	Wood's Public Library	1894	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3780	Brandon	Ladies' Book Club	1864	Social	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3781	Brattleboro	Free Library	1882	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3782	.....do	Retreat Library	1870	A. and R.	....	C.	....	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1,400	300	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Fred R. Bush	3729
15,000	.....	.....	.....	12,000	.....	.....	$3,000	.....	James B. Clark	3730
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3731
1,608	.....	20	.....	15,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	Clarence R. Edwards, first lieutenant, Twenty-third Infantry.	3732
1,060	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3733
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3734
1,200	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3735
4,674	593	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Charles Puryear	3736
2,500	400	1,000	200	.....	.....	.....	800	.....	W. L. Mayo, principal	3737
1,020	180	20	15	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	Waldeman Malcolmson	3738
1,309	100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	180	.....	H. F. Triplett, superintendent.	3739
1,200	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Mrs. O. L. Fisher	3740
5,250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	H. M. Knight	3741
6,500	1,500	54	450	25,651	547	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Mary C. Felton	3742
2,000	1,000	200	50	70	130	.....	.....	.....	A. Cook, S. J	3743
1,500	600	60	3	.....	.....	.....	5	.....	Mother Mary Joseph	3744
1,500	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3745
5,000	.....	120	.....	800	.....	.....	298	.....	Mrs. Margaret H. Foster	3746
7,000	500	500	500	.....	.....	.....	1,800	.....	H. C. Pritchett, principal.	3747
2,500	.....	79	.....	7,540	7,912	.....	297	$175	Rev. W. L. Kennedy	3748
1,200	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3749
1,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3750
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3751
2,000	150	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Bro. Edward	3752
6,000	1,000	15	100	.....	.....	.....	40	.....	D. F. Eagleton	3753
2,000	500	500	100	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	A. Q. Nash, secretary	3754
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3755
1,000	200	15	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. P. Eastman	3756
2,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3757
2,109	400	165	.....	.....	.....	.....	110	.....	A. C. Easley, secretary and treasurer.	3758
5,940	450	250	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Eugene Wood	3759
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3760
2,500	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. L. Crow	3761
3,400	200	250	200	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3762
2,900	2,278	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3763
2,500	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3764
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3765
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3766
2,000	500	200	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Hugh E. Ryan	3767
1,200	4,000	200	500	1,300	2,000	.....	50	.....	W. H. Bywater	3768
1,568	400	23	50	162	.....	.....	.....	.....	Willard Done, president	3769
10,213	.....	50	.....	13,362	12,000	.....	838	.....	Christopher Diehl, secretary.	3770
1,500	100	120	25	.....	.....	.....	170	.....	Wm. H. Tibbals, Ph. D.	3771
16,501	10,124	287	271	.....	4,620	.....	100	.....	G. I. Coray	3772
7,000	.....	100	50	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	L. P. Palmer	3773
3,200	75	175	.....	2,872	.....	.....	392	.....	Louise L. Boyce	3774
2,051	400	100	50	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	3775
6,181	.....	433	.....	18,432	.....	.....	1,018	.....	Mrs. E. J. Plantier	3776
5,761	1,000	150	.....	3,611	.....	.....	132	.....	Mary B. Merrill	3777
2,000	400	200	50	954	150	.....	150	2,500	C. H. French, principal.	3778
2,300	.....	100	.....	1,300	.....	.....	82	.....	Annie C. Spalding	3779
2,700	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Miss Margaret Forbes	3780
10,000	.....	400	.....	24,000	.....	$1,200	1,900	15,000	A. C. Davenport, treasurer.	3781
2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. E. Lawton	3782

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	VERMONT—cont'd.							
3783	Brookfield	Town Library	1792	Gen	R.			C.
3784	Burlington	Fletcher Free Library	1874	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3785	do	Parish Library (Congregational)		Gen		C.	F.	C.
3786	do	St. Mary's Academy		Sch				
3787	do	University of Vermont	1791	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3788	do	Vermont Episcopal Institute	1855	Theo		C.	Fr.	
3789	Cavendish	Fletcher Free Library	1870	Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
3790	Chelsea	Public Library	1892	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3791	Danville	Ladies' Library Association	1880	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3792	Fairhaven	Public Library	1887	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3793	Grafton	do		Gen		T.	F.	B.
3794	Guilford Center	Guilford Free Library	1891	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3795	Hartford	Hartford Library	1892	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3796	Ludlow	Black River Academy	1895	Sch		C.		B.
3797	do	Florence Memorial Library	1892	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3798	Manchester	Burr and Burton Seminary	1829	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
3799	Middlebury	Ladies Library	1866	Gen		C.	S.	C.
3800	do	Middlebury College	1800	Col		C.	Fr.	B.
3801	do	Sheldon Art Museum	1881	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
3802	Montpelier	Kellogg-Hubbard Library		Gen	O.		F.	B.
3803	do	Montpelier Public Library	1885	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3804	do	State Library	1825	State		T.	Fr.	R.
3805	do	Washington County Grammar and Montpelier Union School.		Sch		T.		B.
3806	Morrisville	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3807	Newbury	Village Library	1868	Gen		C.	S.	B.
3808	North Craftsbury	Craftsbury Academy	1879	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3809	Northfield	Free Public Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3810	do	Norwich University	1819	Col		C.		B.
3811	Norwich	Norwich Library	1880	Gen		C.	Fr.	B.
3812	Peacham	Juvenile Library Society	1810	Gen			S.	B.
3813	do	Peacham Academy		Sch				
3814	Pittsford	Maclure Library	1879	Gen		T. & C.	F.	B.
3815	Post Mills Village	Peabody Library	1866	Gen	O.		S.	C.
3816	Poultney	Public Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3817	do	Troy Conference Academy	1837	Sch		C.	Fr.	R.
3818	Proctor	Free Library	1881	Gen		C.	S.	B.
3819	Proctorsville	Fletcher Library (branch)		Gen	R.		F.	B.
3820	Randolph	Ladies' Library	1870	Gen	R.		S.	C.
3821	Randolph Center	State Normal School	1840	Sch		C.	S.	B.
3822	Rutland	Baxter Memorial Library	1890	Gen	O.	C.	F.	R.
3823	do	Free Library	1886	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3824	do	High School		Sch		T.		R.
3825	do	Rutland English and Classical Institute.		Sch				
3826	St. Albans	Vermont Central Railroad Library Association.	1852	Gen		C.	S.	C.
3827	St. Johnsbury	St. Johnsbury Atheneum	1871	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3828	Saxtons River	Vermont Academy		Sch	O.	C.		B.
3829	Springfield	Town Library	1879	Gen			F.	B.
3830	Strafford	Harris Library	1855	Gen	O.		F	C.
3831	Thetford	Latham Memorial Library	1876	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3832	do	Thetford Academy		Sch				
3833	Vergennes	Vergennes Library	1876	Gen	R.	T.	S.	C.
3834	Wallingford	Gilbert Hart Library	1894	Gen	O	T.	F.	B.
3835	Waterbury	Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3836	Wells River	Library Association	1848	Gen	O.	C.	S.	B.
3837	West Rutland	West Rutland Library		Gen	R.	T.	F.	C.
3838	Williamstown	Social Library	1801	Social				C.
3839	Windsor	Library Association	1882	Gen		C.	F.	B.
3840	Woodstock	Norman Williams Public Library	1883	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
	VIRGINIA.							
3841	Arvonia	Seven Islands School		Sch				
3842	Ashland	Randolph-Macon College	1832	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3843	Bellevue	Bellevue High School		Sch		C.		B.
3844	Blacksburg	Virginia Polytechnic Institute		Col		C.	Fr.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,000	.....	50	.....	500	.....	.....	$55	.....	Cassius Peck	3783
30,000	.....	663	460	48,762	20,000	.....	3,350	$10,000	.....	3784
1,022	.....	10	.....	122	.....	.....	40	1,000	Effie Moore	3785
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3786
49,922	.....	2,621	1,776	4,345	.....	.....	3,875	.....	Thomas R. Barnum	3787
5,000	2,000	50	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Arthur C. A. Hall	3788
3,136	.....	.....	.....	5,000	.....	$141	261	2,000	E. G. White	3789
1,100	.....	150	.....	4,479	.....	50	191	.....	Geo. L. Stow	3790
1,100	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Alice Durant Dole	3791
3,100	.....	262	.....	15,348	.....	600	600	.....	.....	3792
2,100	.....	43	.....	2,560	.....	.....	100	.....	Miss Laura A. Phelps	3793
1,000	.....	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. F. L. Wellman	3794
3,000	.....	200	.....	4,400	100	.....	266	4,024	Chas. N. Cone, treasurer	3795
1,500	100	1,500	100	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....	F. L. Bugbee, principal	3796
1,790	.....	144	.....	5,645	.....	.....	273	.....	D. F. Coledge	3797
1,000	.....	15	.....	.....	.....	.....	10	125	E. Herbert Bosford	3798
4,000	.....	100	.....	2,000	.....	.....	210	.....	Emma L. Higby	3799
17,750	.....	450	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. B. Wright	3800
4,000	3,500	500	175	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	Henry S. Sheldon	3801
5,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	15,000	Mary E. Macomber	3802
6,070	400	439	.....	13,969	.....	.....	1,294	.....	Evelyn S. Lease	3803
32,000	.....	1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,750	.....	T. L. Wood	3804
2,000	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. H. Lucia	3805
1,513	200	200	150	7,328	25	.....	301	600	F. Gleed Fleetwood	3806
1,400	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	52	200	Frances M. Atkinson	3807
1,200	.....	25	.....	1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	R. C. Moodie, principal	3808
1,290	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	50	200	.....	Wm. L. Hazen	3809
10,000	2,000	200	75	250	.....	.....	250	.....	H. R. Roberts	3810
2,014	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Sarah J. Burton	3811
1,648	.....	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	364	1,000	Anna E. Renfrew	3812
1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3813
3,500	.....	655	.....	6,192	.....	91	1,819	900	Bertha M. Shaw	3814
5,000	500	75	.....	300	.....	.....	100	2,000	Harvey Dodge	3815
1,119	20	1,119	.....	9,622	.....	915	1,030	.....	Addie Kilborn	3816
2,904	.....	132	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. W. Dunton, principal.	3817
4,000	200	79	12	4,070	.....	.....	210	.....	James T. Glasson	3818
2,055	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	270	2,000	S. E. Emery	3819
1,500	.....	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	James Hutchinson	3820
3,000	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	.....	Edward Conant	3821
20,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Walter H. Pomeroy	3822
9,724	.....	804	.....	56,391	.....	.....	3,175	1,992	Mary L. Titcomb	3823
1,426	112	30	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. C. Thompson, principal.	3824
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3825
2,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	1,000	A. Coote, president	3826
14,296	.....	586	.....	27,513	.....	.....	.....	.....	Louise L. Bartlett	3827
3,850	.....	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	205	.....	Charlotte Harrington	3828
6,900	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	425	2,584	Mrs. F. E. Damon	3829
4,000	200	200	20	1,300	.....	.....	75	800	Marian C. Hatch	3830
3,000	.....	68	.....	.....	.....	.....	127	2,000	Margaret Fletcher	3831
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3832
2,950	300	50	30	2,000	100	.....	300	.....	Rev. H. R. Titus	3833
2,100	200	75	50	10,000	.....	352	380	.....	Wm. C. Mason	3834
1,500	100	.....	.....	2,271	.....	.....	79	.....	Miss Jasmine A. Straw	3835
1,175	100	50	50	1,400	.....	.....	119	.....	Mrs. Kate D. Lee	3836
1,160	.....	200	.....	4,270	.....	350	350	.....	Geo. M. Hascall	3837
2,640	.....	40	.....	700	.....	.....	47	.....	George Beckett	3838
7,800	2,000	302	100	7,924	.....	.....	953	.....	Rev. Edward N. Goddard	3839
9,766	.....	459	.....	15,424	.....	.....	2,686	.....	Mrs. O. B. Jaquith	3840
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3841
9,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	336	1,600	Richard Irby	3842
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. R. Abbot, principal	3843
2,000	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. A. Perry	3844

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	VIRGINIA—continued.							
3845	Bristol	Southwest Virginia Institute	1884	Col		C.		B.
3846	Burkeville	South Side Female Institute	1890	Col				B.
3847	Charlottesville (University Station).	University of Virginia	1819	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3848	do	Leander McCormick Observatory.	1885	Scien	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
3849	Danville	Roanoke Female College		Col		C.		B.
3850	Dayton	Shenandoah Institute		Sch				
3851	Emory	Emory and Henry College	1840	Col		T.	S.	B.
3852	Farmville	State Normal School	1884	Sch		C.		B.
3853	Floyd	Oxford Academy		Sch				B.
3854	Fort Defiance	Augusta Military Academy		Sch				
3855	Fortress Monroe	Post Library	1868	Gar		C.	F.	B.
3856	do	United States Artillery School	1824	Gov		C.	F.	B.
3857	Hampden Sidney	Hampden-Sidney College	1783	Col		C.		B.
3858	do	Union Theological Seminary	1824	Theo	O.	C.		R.
3859	Hampton	Hampton Institute	1880	Sch		C.	F.	B.
3860	Hollins	Alumnæ Library of Hollins Institute.	1880	Gen			Fr.	B.
3861	Lexington	Virginia Military Institute	1839	Col			S.	B.
3862	do	Washington and Lee University	1800	Col	O.	C.		B.
3863	Lynchburg	Randolph-Macon Woman's College.	1893	Col		C.		B.
3864	Millerschool	Miller School	1878	Sch				B.
3865	National Soldiers' Home.	National Soldiers' Home		Gen	O.		F.	B.
3866	Norfolk	Law Library	1886	Law	R.	T.	S.	B.
3867	do	Norfolk Mission College		Sch				B.
3868	do	Public Library	1870	Gen	R.	C.	S.	B.
3869	Onancock	Margaret Academy	1880	Sch	O.	C.	Fr.	R.
3870	Petersburg	Benevolent Mechanics' Association.	1868	Gen		C.	Fr.	B.
3871	do	Southern Female College		Col		C.		
3872	do	University School		Sch				
3873	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1875	Y. M. C. A	R.	C.	S.	C.
3874	Richmond	Grand Lodge A. F. & A. M	1778	Masonic		C.		R.
3875	do	Richmond College	1832	Col	O.	C.		
3876	do	Richmond Theological Seminary	1867	Theo		C.		B.
3877	do	Rosemary Public Library		Gen	R.	C.	Fr.	B.
3878	do	Southern Historical Society		Hist		C.	S.	R.
3879	do	State Law Library		Law				B.
3880	do	Virginia Historical Society	1831	Gen	O.		S.	B.
3881	do	Virginia State Library	1820	Gov		T.	F.	R.
3882	do	Woman's College		Col		C.		
3883	do	Y. M. C. A. Library		Y. M. C. A			S.	B.
3884	Salem	Roanoke College	1853	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
3885	Staunton	Augusta County Law Library Association.	1850	Law	R.		F.	R.
3886	do	Virginia Female Institute		Sch		C.		B.
3887	do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1876	Y. M. C. A		C.	S.	B.
3888	Theological Seminary.	Theological Seminary	1828	Theo	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3889	Williamsburg	College of William and Mary	1693	Col		C.	F.	B.
3890	Winchester	Episcopal Female Institute		Col		C.		
	WASHINGTON.							
3891	Colfax	Colfax College		Col		C.		
3892	Coupeville	Puget Sound Academy	1886	Sch		C.	Fr.	B.
3893	Ellensburg	State Normal School		Sch				
3894	Olympia	Olympia Lodge I. O. O. F. Library	1890	Gen		C.		B.
3895	do	Tacoma Free Library	1872	Soc	O.	C.	F.	B.
3896	do	Washington State Library	1854	Gen			Fr.	B.
3897	Pullman	Agricultural College	1892	Col		T.		B.
3898	Seattle	Academy of the Holy Names		Sch				
3899	do	Public Library	1891	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3900	do	University of Washington		Col		T.	F.	R.
3901	Spokane	Academy of the Holy Names		Sch				

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

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9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,000	.....	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	$50	.....	Sam'l D. Jones, president	3845
2,000	1,500	20	100	.....	.....	.....	10	.....	R. W. Cridlin	3846
21,330	600	4,136	99	6,472	.....	.....	1,450	$450	F. W. Page	3847
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Ormond Stone	3848
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Rev. C. F. James, president.	3849
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3850
8,300	.....	.....	.....	800	100	$160	160	.....	C. G. Hounshell	3851
2,500	200	283	.....	.....	.....	.....	300	.....	Miss N. Morton	3852
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John K. Harris	3853
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3854
1,900	200	12	80	811	95	.....	115	.....	John W. Pullman	3855
11,251	237	233	37	400	1,000	.....	.....	.....	Louis V. Caziare	3856
10,000	5,000	.....	.....	1,200	.....	.....	300	.....	H. R. McIlwain	3857
15,000	4,000	100	.....	1,500	.....	.....	450	8,000	Chas. F. Rankin	3858
7,934	.....	500	.....	7,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	L. E. Herron	3859
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	153	.....	Miss Mattie L. Cocke	3860
9,412	4,913	405	100	.....	.....	.....	410	.....	Col. R. A. Marr	3861
25,000	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	850	10,000	Annie R. White	3862
1,000	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	Wm. W. Truitt	3863
3,000	.....	80	.....	685	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Margaret S. Gordon.	3864
10,273	.....	.....	61	48,300	268	.....	.....	.....	Julius Bréesen	3865
2,000	.....	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	J. Sydney Smith	3866
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. B. Work, principal	3867
8,000	.....	618	.....	10,320	.....	.....	2,124	.....	Wm. Henry Sargeant	3868
1,575	400	75	100	.....	150	.....	75	.....	Frank P. Brent	3869
4,500	2,500	358	40	2,855	1,500	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Ida L. Gray	3870
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3871
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3872
2,000	.....	450	.....	1,200	300	.....	.....	.....	L. W. Hudgins	3873
2,000	500	50	300	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	Geo. W. Carrington	3874
12,370	300	203	30	2,000	800	.....	1,139	20,700	C. H. Ryland	3875
5,000	500	150	50	400	200	.....	202	3,220	George Rice Hovey	3876
5,660	.....	660	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3877
1,000	500	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	B. A. Brock	3878
13,000	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. W. Turner	3879
8,000	5,000	250	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3880
60,000	5,000	563	78	.....	.....	.....	3,000	.....	W. W. Scott	3881
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3882
3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	S. K. McKee	3883
20,000	.....	380	220	.....	.....	.....	380	.....	W. F. Morehead	3884
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John M. Kinney	3885
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. J. E. B. Stuart	3886
2,500	.....	50	.....	4,556	.....	.....	100	.....	Geo. A. Overdorf	3887
16,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	C. Walker, dean	3888
8,020	300	425	56	1,488	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	3889
1,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3890
1,000	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3891
1,030	350	60	20	.....	.....	.....	66	.....	C. E. Newberry	3892
1,812	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3893
1,019	100	119	.....	325	.....	.....	.....	1,000	O. B. Frisch	3894
1,500	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	250	.....	J. T. Otis	3895
17,874	4,926	1,296	1,471	.....	.....	.....	3,550	.....	Geo. A. Kennedy	3896
3,832	1,300	504	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	E. A. Bryan	3897
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3898
12,635	1,000	495	200	77,240	5,765	7,864	8,556	.....	C. W. Smith	3899
5,500	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. E. B. Smith	3900
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3901

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	WASHINGTON—cont'd.							
3902	Spokane	City Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	S.	B.
3903	.....do	Gonzaga College	.....	Col	....	.....	....	....
3904	Tacoma	Annie Wright Seminary	1884	Sch	....	.....	Fr.	R.
3905	.....do	City Library	1888	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3906	.....do	Masonic Library	1892	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3907	.....do	Puget Sound University	1890	Col	R.	C.	F.	B.
3908	Vancouver	Public Library	1890	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3909	.....do	Public School Library	1889	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
3910	Walla Walla	Whitman College	1859	Col	....	C.	....	B.
	WEST VIRGINIA.							
3911	Bethany	Bethany College	1841	Col	....	.....	....	B.
3912	Buckhannon	West Virginia Conference Seminary.	1891	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3913	Charleston	West Virginia Historical and Antiquarian Society.	1890	Hist	....	.....	F.	R.
3914	Glenville	State Normal School	1884	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	R.
3915	Harpers Ferry	Roger Williams Library of Storer College.	1868	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3916	Lewisburg	Lewisburg Female Institute	1893	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3917	Morgantown	West Virginia University	1868	Gen	....	C.	S.	B.
3918	Romney	West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and Blind.	.....	A. and R.	....	.....	....	....
3919	Salem	Salem College	.....	Col	....	.....	....	....
3920	Wheeling	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
	WISCONSIN.							
3921	Appleton	Appleton Library of Lawrence University.	1854	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3922	.....do	Ryan High School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3923	.....do	Third Ward High School	1885	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
3924	Ashland	Vaughn Public Library	1887	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3925	Bayfield	Public Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3926	Beaverdam	Williams Free Library	1884	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3927	Belleville	Free Library	1893	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3928	Beloit	Beloit College	1847	Col	O.	C.	Fr.	B.
3929	.....do	Public Library	1895	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3930	Berlin	.....do	1890	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
3931	Black River Falls	City Library	1870	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
3932	Boscobel	High School	1877	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
3933	Chippewa Falls	Public Library	1894	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3934	.....do	Public School Library	1890	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
3935	Columbus	Library Association	1876	Soc	R.	C.	S.	B.
3936	Darlington	Public School Library	1880	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
3937	Delafield	St. John's Military Academy	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3938	Delavan	Wisconsin School for the Deaf	1852	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
3939	Depere	Public Library	1881	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3940	Eau Claire	.....do	1870	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3941	Florence	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3942	Fond du Lac	Free Public Library	1877	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3943	Fort Atkinson	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3944	.....do	Public Library	1892	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3945	Franklin	Mission House Library	1860	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
3946	Galesville	Gale College	.....	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
3947	Grand Rapids	T. B. Scott Free Public Library	1890	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
3948	Greenbay	Public Library	.....	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3949	Hayward	Free Library	1887	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3950	Hillside	Hillside Home School	1887	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3951	Janesville	Public Library	1882	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3952	Kenosha	Kemper Hall	.....	Sch	....	.....	....	....
3953	.....do	Public Library	1895	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3954	La Crosse	.....do	1888	Gen	O.	.....	F.	B.
3955	Madison	Department of Public Instruction Library.	.....	Gen	....	T	Fr.	R.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
3,500	.....	650	.....	10,000	10,000	$1,000	$1,600	.....	Emma Driscoll	3902
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3903
1,000	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Mrs. Sarah K. White	3904
4,558	2,500	982	1,431	35,986	.....	.....	2,578	.....	Herbert Bashford	3905
5,186	354	5	308	3,194	342	.....	342	.....	Allen C. Mason	3906
1,000	300	200	35	.....	.....	.....	230	$800	Prof. C. W. Darrow	3907
1,500	200	100	20	5,900	.....	400	400	.....	G. E. Beeson	3908
1,500	350	250	100	.....	.....	.....	115	.....	C. W. Shumway, superintendent.	3909
5,200	4,000	78	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. A. Bratton	3910
3,000	2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	A. C. Pendleton	3911
2,092	.....	80	.....	.....	.....	.....	80	.....	.....	3912
5,360	486	337	125	.....	.....	.....	1,200	.....	M. L. Downtain	3913
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	390	.....	.....	3914
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	N. C. Brackett	3915
1,025	1,200	38	54	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3916
11,289	3,862	274	704	271	.....	.....	21	.....	Clara Hough	3917
1,524	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3918
1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3919
14,347	.....	938	.....	58,345	12,908	6,980	6,980	.....	.....	3920
14,487	.....	460	.....	4,751	.....	.....	510	10,298	Zelia A. Smith	3921
1,510	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3922
2,000	12	.....	.....	1,437	500	300	300	.....	W. F. Winsey	3923
3,800	.....	.....	.....	15,333	.....	.....	5,000	60,000	Janet M. Green	3924
1,300	.....	.....	.....	3,800	.....	600	600	.....	J. Andreas	3925
6,038	744	289	30	23,967	.....	1,027	1,669	10,000	Mary Doolittle	3926
1,400	100	116	.....	4,000	125	133	143	.....	Wm. Sharman	3927
20,960	.....	1,246	466	4,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chas. A. Bacon	3928
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,400	3,400	.....	Mrs. Nina Northrop	3929
1,200	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Horace Miner	3930
1,598	.....	78	.....	4,000	.....	150	200	.....	Mrs. M. J. Gunn	3931
1,200	200	100	25	.....	.....	.....	75	.....	F. W. Meisnest, principal.	3932
3,055	.....	631	.....	19,400	.....	.....	1,675	.....	Maude A. Earley	3933
2,100	.....	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	R. L. Barton	3934
2,500	500	80	.....	1,000	.....	.....	100	.....	M. Adams, secretary	3935
1,500	.....	.....	.....	4,000	.....	100	100	.....	James Madison Stevens, principal High School.	3936
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3937
2,456	.....	110	.....	.....	.....	.....	130	.....	John W. Swiler, superintendent.	3938
1,800	200	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	350	.....	E. F. Parker	3939
6,300	.....	2,446	.....	38,287	.....	.....	3,000	.....	.....	3940
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3941
13,868	1,087	711	100	31,232	.....	.....	2,600	.....	Emma E. Rose	3942
1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3943
1,500	70	100	.....	9,052	.....	.....	330	.....	Sue C. Nichols	3944
5,360	350	300	.....	1,000	.....	.....	225	.....	Walter Jarvis	3945
2,500	500	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. George, president	3946
2,910	340	276	125	9,401	.....	.....	519	6,103	Mrs. U. B. Raymond	3947
4,800	.....	555	.....	38,714	517	.....	1,900	15,000	.....	3948
2,000	.....	.....	.....	6,700	.....	368	380	.....	Miss Christine Nelson	3949
2,000	.....	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	Ellen C. Lloyd-Jones	3950
10,000	.....	.....	.....	30,000	.....	3,000	3,000	.....	Mrs. Louise L. Best	3951
5,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3952
1,750	.....	.....	.....	1,693	.....	.....	2,400	.....	Clara P. Barnes	3953
14,000	.....	800	.....	44,000	.....	.....	2,483	33,000	Annie E. Hanscome	3954
6,000	500	1	200	.....	.....	.....	150	.....	J. Q. Emery	3955

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	WISCONSIN—cont'd.							
3956	Madison	Free Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3957	.....do	State Historical Society	1853	Hist	....	T.	F.	R.
3958	.....do	University of Wisconsin	1850	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3959	.....do	Wisconsin State Library	1836	Law	....	T.	F.	R.
3960	.....do	Woodman Astronomical Library	1884	Scien	....	C.	F.	R.
3961	Manitowoc	James Library Association	1868	Gen	O.	C.	Fr.	C.
3962	Menasha	High School	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
3963	Mendota	Wisconsin State Hospital	1860	A. and R.	....	T.	....	C.
3964	Menomonie	High School	1889	Sch	....	C.	....	R.
3965	....do	Memorial Free Library	1891	Gen	O.	C.	F.	B.
3966	Merrill	T. B. Scott Free Library	1891	Gen	....	C.	F.	B.
3967	Milton	Milton College	1867	Col	....	C.	F.	B.
3968	Milwaukee	Concordia College	1881	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3969	.....do	East Side High School	1870	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
3970	.....do	German-English Academy	1851	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3971	.....do	Grand Lodge F. & A. M	1843	Masonic	R.	C.	Fr.	R.
3972	.....do	Law Library Association	1860	Law	R.	C.	....	B.
3973	.....do	Marquette College	1864	Col	....	C.	Fr.	R.
3974	.....do	Milwaukee and Downer Colleges	1855	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3975	.....do	Milwaukee Turn Verein	1852	Social	....	.....	....	B.
3976	.....do	National German-American Teachers' Seminary.	1851	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
3977	.....do	Public Library	1878	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
3978	.....do	Public Museum	1883	Scien	R.	T.	Fr.	R.
3979	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	.....	.....	.....
3980	Milwaukee (Station B).	Theological Seminary of the Evangelical-Lutheran Synod of Wisconsin.	1868	Theo	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3981	Mineral Point	Free Public Library	1894	Gen	...	C.	F.	B.
3982	Monroe	Public Library	1876	Sch	....	C.	F.	B.
3983	Mount Calvary	St. Lawrence College	1856	Col	....	.....	....	C.
3984	National Home	Northwestern Branch N. H. D. V. S.	1868	Gar	....	C.	....	B.
3985	Neenah	Public Library	1884	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3986	Oconomowoc	.....do	1893	Gen	R.	C.	F.	B.
3987	Oshkosh	High School	1869	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
3988	.....do	Public Library	.....	Gen	....	T.	F.	B.
3989	.....do	State Normal School	1871	Sch	....	T.	S.	B.
3990	Platteville	.....do	1866	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
3991	Plymouth	Hub Club Library	1876	Gen	....	C.	....	.....
3992	Prairie du Chien	Sacred Heart College	1880	Col	....	C.	....	R.
3993	Racine	Home School	.....	Gen	....	.....	....	R.
3994	.....do	Racine College	1853	Col	....	C.	....	B.
3995	.....do	Y. M. C. A. Library	1878	Y.M.C.A	....	.....	S.	B.
3996	Ripon	Public Library	1885	Gen	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3997	.....do	Ripon College	1854	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
3998	River Falls	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
3999	.....do	State Normal School	1875	Sch	....	T.	....	R.
4000	St. Francis	Catholic Normal School and Pio Nono College.	1871	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
4001	.....do	Seminary of St. Francis	1860	Theo	....	C.	S.	B.
4002	Sheboygan	Public Library	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
4003	Sinsinawa	St. Thomas Aquinas College	1852	Col	....	.....	....	R.
4004	Sparta	Free Library	1860	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
4005	Stevens Point	High School	1885	Sch	....	.....	Fr.	B.
4006	....do	State Normal School	1894	Sch	....	T.	Fr.	B.
4007	Tomah	City Library	.....	Gen	....	C.	S.	C.
4008	Two Rivers	Joseph Mann Public Library	1891	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
4009	Washburn	Public Library and Reading Room	1890	Gen	O.	T.	F.	B.
4010	.....do	Public School Library	.....	Sch	....	C.	Fr.	B.
4011	Watertown	Northwestern University	1865	Col	....	C.	Fr.	B.
4012	.....do	Sacred Heart College	1872	Col	O.	C.	S.	B.
4013	Waukesha	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
4014	Waupun	Hilleyer Library	1858	Gen	R.	.....	S.	C.
4015	.... do	State Prison Library	1871	A. and R.	....	T.	....	C.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
14,561	.....	.....	.....	55,509	.....	$2,500	$2,500	.....	Georgia R. Hough	3956
90,000	87,000	4,534	2,441	.....	40,000	.....	14,278	.....	Isaac S. Bradley	3957
36,800	10,000	3,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Walter M. Smith	3958
28,776	.....	1,130	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,500	.....	John R. Berryman	3959
2,400	2,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	210	$7,500	.....	3960
2,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Henry Mulholland, secretary.	3961
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3962
2,771	.....	105	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	P. H. O'Malley	3963
1,000	150	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. E. Hoyt, superintendent.	3964
5,349	102	246	3	21,308	.....	.....	.....	.....	Stella Lucas	3965
3,813	50	250	.....	14,351	500	420	944	7,000	Janet P. Russell	3966
4,681	.....	116	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3967
1,683	300	75	60	600	.....	.....	150	.....	Otto Hallstaldt	3968
3,700	.....	700	.....	700	2,000	.....	175	.....	A. J. Rogers, principal	3969
1,450	250	.....	.....	500	300	.....	365	.....	Emil Dapprich	3970
1,518	5,000	50	600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	John W. Laflin, secretary.	3971
6,500	.....	500	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,610	.....	Wm. W. Wight	3972
9,150	1,020	50	.....	.....	100	.....	50	.....	A. Laur	3973
4,041	754	57	108	.....	.....	.....	115	.....	L. M. Prescott	3974
4,264	.....	.....	.....	1,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	Phil. W. Schaefer	3975
1,450	250	.....	.....	500	300	.....	365	.....	.....	3976
85,094	8,000	6,620	583	324,463	.....	35,519	35,519	.....	Miss Thresa West	3977
5,953	.....	87	133	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. Nehrling	3978
2,050	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3979
1,800	2,000	100	150	.....	300	.....	50	.....	E. A. Notz	3980
1,817	20	416	20	.....	.....	.....	315	.....	Mary R. Gundry	3981
3,558	500	220	75	16,112	970	.....	722	.....	K. A. Smock	3982
1,000	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	50	.....	P. Alphonsus, rector	3983
7,529	629	804	177	30,054	.....	.....	1,271	.....	Moses Harris	3984
5,787	.....	607	.....	20,495	.....	865	900	.....	Robt. Shiells	3985
1,840	.....	88	2	1,050	.....	.....	670	.....	Miss Clara Weber	3986
1,505	500	275	50	964	.....	.....	256	.....	R. H. Halsey, superintendent.	3987
2,514	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,000	2,000	.....	M. A. Olcott	3988
7,600	500	900	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,582	.....	Adelle Hamilton	3989
4,800	800	1,175	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3990
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,465	.....	Hugo Sattler	3991
10,000	100	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3992
4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3993
10,000	1,000	25	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Arthur Piper	3994
1,207	.....	109	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3995
1,897	.....	176	.....	2,482	.....	.....	454	.....	Mrs. H. P. Cody	3996
8,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	600	.....	C. Dwight Maub	3997
1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	H. L. Wilson, principal	3998
2,700	.....	576	.....	.....	.....	.....	616	.....	Lillian Currier	3999
1,582	270	132	28	764	.....	.....	.....	.....	J. M. Kasel	4000
12,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	F. Schulze	4001
6,210	.....	1,219	.....	7,142	.....	.....	625	.....	Frances Gerend	4002
3,500	200	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4003
3,342	.....	.....	.....	7,196	.....	310	310	.....	Jennie Scouten	4004
1,118	248	114	128	876	.....	.....	146	.....	H. A. Simonds	4005
3,000	200	1,500	100	8,000	.....	.....	3,000	.....	T. B. Pray	4006
1,200	25	160	.....	.....	.....	.....	156	.....	Mrs. Rockwood	4007
1,780	300	105	.....	3,784	.....	.....	560	.....	John N. Davidson	4008
1,200	.....	300	.....	.....	.....	1,100	1,000	.....	L. N. Clausen	4009
1,115	.....	150	100	.....	.....	100	250	.....	Miss Florence V. Williams.	4010
2,698	500	110	.....	500	.....	.....	300	.....	Dr. J. H. Ott	4011
5,000	800	300	400	600	.....	.....	50	.....	J. O. Keeffe	4012
1,700	.....	250	.....	.....	.....	.....	170	.....	H. L. Terry	4013
5,300	2,500	100	.....	5,500	.....	.....	432	.....	L. D. Hinkley	4014
1,200	.....	500	.....	23,400	.....	.....	450	.....	W. G. Bancroft	4015

Public, society, and school libraries in the United

	Location.	Name of library.	Date of founding.	Class.	Own or rent building.	Supported by taxation or corporation.	Free or subscription.	Circulating, reference, or both.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	WISCONSIN—cont'd.							
4016	Wauwatosa	Harwood Public Library	1886	Gen	O.		F.	B.
4017	Westbend	Public School Library	1886	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
4018	West Depere	School District Library	.....	Sch	....	T.	F.	B.
4019	West Superior	Superior Public Library	1888	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
4020	Whitewater	Public Library	1884	Gen	R.	C.	S.	C.
4021	.....do	State Normal School	1868	Sch	....	C.	....	B.
4022	Winnebago	Northern Hospital for the Insane	.....	Gen	....	T.	....	B.
	WYOMING.							
4023	Cheyenne	High School	.....	Sch	....	T.	....	B.
4024	.....do	Wyoming State Law Library	.....	Law	....	.....	....	....
4025	Laramie	Public Library	1887	Gen	R.	T.	F.	B.
4026	....do	University of Wyoming	1891	Col	....	.....	F.	B.

States of 1,000 volumes and over in 1896—Continued.

Volumes.	Pamphlets.	Volumes added during year.	Pamphlets added during year.	Books issued during year for home use.	Books issued for use within library.	Receipts. From taxation.	Receipts. Total income.	Amount of endowment fund.	Name of librarian.	
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
2,394	.....	163	.....	7,500	.....	.....	$756	.....	Mrs. Agnes B. Roddis	4016
1,000	.....	100	.....	3,000	.....	$65	68	.....	L. E. Amidon	4017
1,000	.....	10	.....	6,000	.....	.....	50	.....	.....	4018
10,253	753	1,736	430	45,923	.....	7,000	7,124	.....	Mrs. Delia L. Freestone	4019
1,400	.....	125	.....	.....	.....	.....	235	.....	.....	4020
3,700	400	817	50	.....	.....	.....	1,150	.....	Albert Salisbury	4021
2,100	.....	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	W. A. Gordon, superintendent.	4022
1,200	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	100	100	.....	J. O. Churchill	4023
15,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4024
3,500	200	.....	40	9,980	1,200	100	100	.....	Etta M. Roach	4025
4,085	3,000	810	350	1,000	.....	.....	900	.....	Grace Raymond Hebard	4026

CHAPTER IX.

LIBRARY LEGISLATION IN THE UNITED STATES.[1]

I.—Legislation for the incorporation of library associations, societies, etc.
II.—(*a*) School district libraries; (*b*) Township libraries; (*c*) Free public libraries supported by the State; (*d*) Recent State library laws.
III.—Résumé of library legislation.
IV.—State library laws.

I.

LEGISLATION FOR THE INCORPORATION OF LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS, SOCIETIES, ETC.

The library, like every other institution of organized society, is dependent upon legislation for its existence and development. The progress of library development at first was very slow. It has grown from very small beginnings. It is an outgrowth of a demand of the people. In the beginning, the existence of the library was recognized by legislation. In the next place, the preservation of the library was a special object of legislation. As an example, the library of the Rev. Thomas Bray, D. D., founder of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, may be mentioned. The legislative assembly of South Carolina, on November 16, 1700, passed an act in behalf of this library. In 1715 North Carolina passed a similar law for the preservation of a library sent over by Dr. Thomas Bray to the town of Bath, for the use of the inhabitants of the parish of St. Thomas in Pamlico.

In 1731 a movement began which resulted in the formation of the Philadelphia Library Company, called "the mother of all North American subscription libraries." This company was incorporated in 1742, some ten years after its organization. In 1741 the Charleston, S. C., Library Company was organized, but did not receive its charter of incorporation until 1755.

From 1776 to 1826 many libraries were established which, though city institutions or otherwise limited, were in a general way important factors in the library movement, and were necessary and logical steps toward the free public library. The earliest legislation regarding libraries took the form of general laws which provided for the incorporation of cooperative library associations, generally known as proprietary, social, subscription, or even public libraries. There is now in a number of the States a general law providing for the incorporation of such libraries, namely: Colorado, California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, New Jersey, New York, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and there may be some others in which similar provisions prevail.

These libraries were intended to be free, and in fact many of them were substantially free public libraries. They were not supported by public taxation. As another evidence of the interest that the people manifested in this movement, libraries of a certain size were exempted from taxation. This is an indirect though often an efficient way of legislating for libraries. The libraries of associations, societies, or corporations, together with the buildings owned by such associations, are exempt from taxation in the following States: Arizona, California, Colorado, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming—in all twenty-two. The increased interest in the subject is still further shown by legislative enactment in the following States: District of Columbia, Illinois, Kansas, Massachusetts, New Jersey, West Virginia, Wisconsin, by which private libraries of a certain value are exempt from attachment as well as from taxation. Many libraries began under such encouragement.

[1] Compiled by Henderson Presnell, A. M.

II.

(a) DISTRICT LIBRARIES.

In this chapter it is proposed to discuss mainly the development of legislation regarding school district libraries. Governor DeWitt Clinton, of New York, in his message to the legislature in 1826, made a recommendation for the establishment of district libraries. In 1835 a law was passed by the legislature of that State establishing school district libraries. These are not to be understood as libraries for the schools, but for the people in the districts corresponding generally in areas with the school districts. In each district the voters were authorized to levy a tax amounting to the sum of $20 with which to start a library, and $10 annually thereafter for the support of the same.

In 1838 a law was passed appropriating the sum of $55,000 annually from the income of the United States deposit fund. This fund at the expiration of three years might be used for the purchase of books, or for the payment of teachers' salaries, if the district so decided. In 1843 a special library fund was granted by law to the school districts for the purchase of school apparatus and the payment of teachers under certain conditions

These school-district libraries increased in number until 1853, when they contained an aggregate of 1,604,210 volumes. This, says one writer, "was the high-water mark," for, according to the report of the State superintendent of public instruction for 1895, there was a general decrease until 1884, when the number of volumes reported in these libraries was only 701,437. From 1885 to 1891 there appears to have been a gradual improvement. From 1853 to 1894 the State expended on district libraries alone the sum of $1,706,144.36.

The example of New York was followed by a number of other States, which also passed laws for the establishment of school-district libraries. Among these States were Massachusetts and Michigan in 1837, Connecticut in 1839, Iowa and Rhode Island in 1840, Indiana in 1841, Maine in 1844, Ohio in 1847, Wisconsin in 1848, Oregon in 1854, Kansas and Virginia in 1870, New Jersey in 1871, Minnesota and Kentucky in 1873, Colorado in 1876. This system did not prove a success in all of these States; in fact it did not prove an entire success in any of them, for the concurrent testimony from all is that the scheme was a failure. The want of success is attributed to various reasons. First, because the unit (the district) was too small; second, the amount of money annually raised in each district was insufficient; third, the number of volumes in each was too small to secure anything like public interest in the care, preservation, or circulation of the books.

Out of the failure of this system the States which enacted laws for the encouragement of the school district libraries learned from experience that additional legislation was necessary. Hence many of the States subsequently passed statutes providing for township libraries. That is, the town was made the unit, and local taxation became the means of support, in whole or in part, for these libraries.

(b) TOWNSHIP LIBRARIES.

The Massachusetts general court in 1848 passed an act authorizing the city of Boston to levy a tax of $5,000 for the establishment of a free public library. This was a special act affecting only Boston, but it was the initial step. In 1851 this act was made to apply to all the towns and cities in the State. The act of 1848 for Boston is really the germ out of which has grown much of the library legislation in this as well as other countries. Mr. Fletcher, in his "Public libraries in America," says:

"The first step in the movement for establishing public libraries * * * seems to have been taken by the Hon. Josiah Quincy, jr., mayor of Boston, in October, 1847. He proposed to the city council, and they passed, a request to the legislature that Boston be allowed to lay a tax to establish a free library. The legislature assented the same winter, and this was probably the beginning of such legislation in any part of the world. In 1851, other cities and towns claiming the same permission, the law was made general. The interest in libraries excited throughout England by the parliamentary investigation[1] already referred to (of which I shall say more presently), was perhaps the immediate cause of similar legislation in that country, but the leaders of the movement there confessed that the idea came to them from America."

New Hampshire, on July 7, 1849, passed a general law for free public libraries in all the towns of the State. It was the first law of its kind known in the history of library legislation. There is an interesting feature connected with library legislation in this State which it is well enough to mention. The town of Peterboro, in 1833,

[1] In 1847 a parliamentary commission was appointed; in 1850 commission made a report.

established a free public library which is still in existence. This library was maintained for many years in whole or in part by municipal authority, and is entitled to the credit of being one of the first, if not the first, public library in the United States supported by public taxation. Under date of August 7, 1875, the Commissioner of Education at Washington, D. C., wrote in a letter to the late Prof. Albert Smith, of this town:

"The first free public library supported or aided by taxation of which this Bureau has any account was established at Wayland, Mass., and was opened to the public in August, 1850. The second, at New Bedford, Mass., was opened in March, 1853. If the Peterboro town library was free to the inhabitants of the town prior to August, 1850, whether supported by municipal taxation or by the income of invested bonds, it furnishes the first example of a free library, and we shall be glad to give it the credit." In another letter, of August 12, 1875: "So far as any data are at present known to us, your library is the earliest of its kind. Should we obtain information of an earlier enterprise of the same kind, you will be duly informed."

(*c*) FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES SUPPORTED BY THE STATE.

The legislation in New Hampshire and Massachusetts had the effect of stimulating the movement in other States, and general library laws were passed as follows:

Maine adopted a general library law in 1854; Vermont in 1865; Ohio in 1867; Colorado, Illinois, New York, and Wisconsin in 1872; Indiana and Iowa in 1873; Texas in 1874; Connecticut and Rhode Island in 1875; Michigan in 1876; Nebraska in 1877; California, Minnesota, and New Jersey in 1879; Montana in 1883; New Mexico in 1884; Missouri in 1885; Kansas and Wyoming in 1886; North and South Dakota and Pennsylvania in 1887; Washington in 1890, and Mississippi (embodied in a municipal law) in 1892.

In the District of Columbia,[1] Delaware, Kentucky, Nevada, North and South Carolina, and Oregon there has been no general library legislation. Provision is made by the Government for State libraries in the Territories. These libraries are for the use of the legislatures and the courts. In Kentucky general library legislation is now pending.

It may not be out of place here to call attention to the subject of school libraries. Two States are selected, and the legislation from these may be taken as typical of legislation with regard to this subject in other States. The provision invariably takes one of two forms, namely:

1. Permission is given to the school district (almost always our local educational unit) to tax itself for the purpose of securing a school library, or

2. The fund which is created by the State may be distributed to districts that have secured a certain number of books, or have taxed themselves to procure such books.

It will be observed that there are some general principles upon which the States have encouraged the formation of school libraries, but there have been different methods of operating them to secure the object for which they were founded. For instance, the two adjoining States of Michigan and Wisconsin deal with the subject in a somewhat different way.

In Michigan a "township library shall be maintained in each organized township, which shall be the property of the township, but be in charge of the township board of school inspectors." But then it is added that "any school district by a two-thirds vote at any annual meeting may establish a district library, which shall be entitled to its just proportion of books from the library of any township in which it is situated, and also to its equitable share of any library moneys remaining unexpended in such township at the time of the establishment of such district library, or shall afterwards be raised by tax or apportionment."

In Wisconsin "the treasurer of each town (not township) may withhold annually from the money secured from the State school fund for the several school districts an amount equal to 10 cents for each person of school age residing in the town for the purchase of books for a school library." Under this law more than one-half of the districts in Wisconsin have been supplied with helpful libraries. "Year by year," quoting the State superintendent, "as teachers and pupils learn to use these libraries to better advantage, they are becoming of greater value as educational agencies."

The States which passed these laws evidently recognized the principle that lies at the foundation of all legislation for free public libraries, that the library is and should be an essential part of the system of public education of the State, and, as such, should be maintained by public taxation; that it is the duty of the State to educate its citizens, and for that purpose public schools should be maintained. The public laws of many of the States had already recognized this principle. Here we see clearly set forth that the public library should complement the public school and be maintained in the same way as the public school.

[1] Since the above was written Congress has passed a general library law.

An efficient school system is hardly possible without the public library. From what has been said we see the tendency in library legislation. Encouragement and help on the part of the State has become more and more prominent. From 1849 to 1889 the laws enacted in many of the States granted to the cities, towns, and communities nothing more than the right to establish and maintain public libraries. Permissive laws were unsatisfactory, and mandatory ones began to take their place.

About the year 1890 a new era began to dawn. The State becomes more than a passive agent; it takes action; it begins to manifest interest in the establishment of these libraries; it appropriates money for their support by appointing library commissions and providing, in some cases, for instruction in library economy, management, etc. Henceforth the establishment and maintenance of the public library is declared to be a proper object of municipal expenditure. Massachusetts, on May 28, 1890, passed such a law; New York, April 27, 1892; New Hampshire, March 22, 1893; Maine, March 31, 1893; Connecticut, June, 1893; Wisconsin, April 19, 1895, and the District of Columbia March 18, 1896. Kentucky and New Jersey have such laws pending, so that most of the States now recognize fully the importance of making the library free, and are already carrying out the idea so beautifully set forth by Mr. George Ticknor in his letter to Edward Everett in 1851, which is as follows:

"I would establish a library which differs from all free libraries yet attempted—I mean one in which any popular book tending to moral and intellectual improvement shall be furnished in such number of copies that many persons can be reading the same book at the same time; in short, that not only the best books of all sorts, but the present literature of the day, shall be made accessible to the whole people when they most care for it, that is, when it is fresh and new. I would therefore continue to buy additional books of this class almost as long as they are asked for, and thus, by following the popular taste—unless it should demand something injurious—create a real appetite for healthy reading. The appetite once formed will take care of itself. It will, in a great majority of cases, demand better and better books."

(*d*) RECENT STATE LIBRARY LAWS.

The following observations and suggestions on this subject have been contributed by Mr. Frank C. Patten, librarian of the Helena public library, Helena, Mont.:

The new educational movement for public libraries is everywhere a very rapidly growing one. These libraries are fast increasing in size and usefulness as well as in number. For the promotion of the best interests of this great movement experience shows that a good State library law is a very important factor. Such a law, by laying out a plan, encourages the establishment and promotes the growth of public libraries. It is easier in any community to awaken interest in a library project if there is set forth in the State law a way of organizing the library that has proved successful elsewhere. The West is not behind in other educational good works, and it need not be in the matter of library legislation.

Every year several of the States either make new library laws or make amendments to existing laws. The advance in library legislation in the last few years is as marked as is the growth of libraries. The following are believed to be the

BEST RECENT STATE LIBRARY LAWS.

Massachusetts, 1890.—To be obtained from State librarian, Boston, who is chairman of Massachusetts library commission.

Illinois, act amended 1891.—To be obtained from librarian Public Library, Chicago.

New York, 1892.—To be obtained from State librarian, Albany.

Connecticut, 1893.—To be obtained from Miss Carolina M. Hewins, librarian Public Library, Hartford, who is secretary of Connecticut public library committee.

New Hampshire, act amended 1895.—To be obtained from State librarian, Concord, who is a member of State board of library commissioners.

Wisconsin, 1895.—To be obtained from secretary State Historical Society, Madison, who is a member of the State library commission.

Michigan, 1895.—To be obtained from State librarian, Lansing.

In attempting the enactment of any new library legislation or of any amendments to existing laws a clear idea should be had of the essentials of a good State library law. The following provisions are in line with the dictates of experience in those States where most attention is given to public libraries:

(1) A SURE AND STEADY REVENUE.

The law should provide that, on the petition of, say, twenty-five taxpayers, the rate of taxation for public library support in any city, town, or other political unit shall be submitted to vote at general or special election. The rate should not be changed without another vote. This plan provides for what is of the utmost importance, a sure and steady library revenue, not subject to changes of city council

action. Under such a plan there need be no limit of rate placed in the State law, as no city will vote to tax itself too high for library support. A small place will, in fact, often fail to realize that in order to raise money enough to accomplish the object the tax must be at a much higher rate than in a large place. In Illinois the tax is in some places as high as 3 mills on the dollar.

(2) CAREFUL AND CONSECUTIVE MANAGEMENT.

In order to remove public library management from the influence of party politics the library and its property should be wholly left to the control of trustees selected from citizens of recognized fitness for such duties. Experience seems to show that in cities the proper board of trustees can best be secured by appointment of the mayor and confirmation by the council. Probably the best way is to provide for seven trustees, two to be appointed each year (one the fourth year) for a term of four years. This number is large enough to be representative and small enough to avoid the great difficulty in securing a quorum if the number is large. The length of term in connection with yearly appointment secures the much-needed continuity of management, and yet there is sufficient change of officers so that the board will not be too far removed from the public will.

(3) A STATE CENTER FOR LIBRARY INTERESTS.

Within a very few years each of several States has provided for a State library commission, to be in some sense the head of public library interests for the State. By having small traveling libraries of fifty or one hundred volumes each to lend for a few months to localities that have no libraries, and by having a little State aid to distribute wisely, the commission is able to encourage communities to do more for themselves in the matter of a library than they otherwise would. The commission gives advice concerning organization and administration whenever it is asked, and a yearly report is made of their work and of library progress in the State. The State library commission has proved to be a useful agency wherever tried, and the plan seems likely to spread throughout the country. The most complete State system has been provided in New York, where all center in the State library at Albany as headquarters. The library system of New York seems to be working very successfully.

New Hampshire was the first State to pass a compulsory law (1895) obliging each town to provide a public library.

The following outline gives the

IMPORTANT PROVISIONS FOR A STATE LIBRARY LAW.

General.—Purpose of public library broadly stated, perhaps in the form of a definition. It may include loan, reference, reading room, museum, lecture, art, and allied educational features. It may have branches. Mode prescribed for changing form of organization of a library to conform to new law.[1]

Establishment of public libraries.—Any political body authorized to levy and collect taxes may establish the library itself alone, or conjointly with other such bodies, by vote at any election. Vote of electors given for special tax or bonds to provide rooms or grounds and buildings.

Maintenance.—By annual rate of taxation voted by electors to continue until changed by vote.

Management.—Wholly in hands of trustees constituting a board so formed as to be independent of party political control. Appointment by mayor and confirmation by council a good plan in cities. Membership to change gradually—one or two changes each year. Term of trustees not less than three years. Number of trustees not less than five. All property to be acquired, held, managed, or transferred by trustees. Requests and donations to the library to be held and managed for the public good by the trustees.

Protection.—Penalties for theft, mutilation, overdetention, and disturbance.

State publications.—All publications of the State to be distributed free to public libraries.

State library commission.—A body to be at the head of public library interests of the State, preferably to have the management of the State library and to center its work in that institution. The State university library might be a good center for the work. Members might be appointed by governor and confirmed by senate for a term of five years—one appointment each year.

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[1] Libraries for schoolrooms to be composed of reference books, books for supplementary reading, class duplicates, and books for teachers should be provided for in the public school law. School funds should be used and school authorities should manage these libraries. The business of lending books for home use is better and more economically managed by a public library organization.

What may be done by the commission.—Give advice and instruction in organization and administration. Receive reports from all public libraries of the State and render report. Manage the distribution of State aid. Manage system of traveling libraries.

Counties or school districts may wish to establish and maintain libraries, and a law should be worded as to allow it. It is probably most convenient to have the library year correspond with the calendar year. It is well to have the trustees appointed and the report of the library made at a different time of the year from either the spring or fall elections. The library is thus more likely to be freed from the influences of party politics. To have a library treasurer is probably the better plan, but library money may be kept in the hands of the city or town treasurer as a separate fund, and be paid out by order of the board of trustees only.

Special conditions peculiar to each State often dictate modifications of any general plan for a State law. Anyone interested in the matter for his own State could read the general articles upon the subject and the various State laws, and then, with the assistance of the best legal talent to be obtained, frame an act appropriate to conditions of his State.

III.

RÉSUMÉ OF LIBRARY LEGISLATION.

Alabama and *Arkansas* have no legislation on libraries.

Arizona, in its school laws passed in 1885, permits school trustees in townships where there are a hundred school children to use $50 of the school fund and any donations they may receive for the purchase of books for the school libraries, which are to be free to the teachers and pupils and to residents on the payment of such sums as may be prescribed by the trustees.

California, in 1854, adopted a district library law similar to that of the State of New York. In 1878 a law was passed modeled after the Illinois statutes (see statutes of California). In 1880 an act was passed authorizing towns and cities to levy and collect taxes as in all other cases for the maintenance and establishment of public libraries and reading rooms. See page 533 of this Report.

Colorado.—In 1872 Colorado enacted a law modeled after the Illinois plan, but the towns and cities did not take advantage of this law. In 1893 an act was passed authorizing the school board in any district to levy a tax not to exceed one-tenth of 1 mill, the proceeds of which shall be used exclusively for the purchase of books for a library, to be open to the public under such rules as the district board may prescribe. The laws now in force are given on page 536 of this Report.

Connecticut.—In 1839 Connecticut passed a school library law, and a town library law in 1869. The public library laws of 1875 and 1876 permit towns and cities to establish libraries, but make no provision for their support by taxation. In 1881 a law was passed permitting towns to levy a tax of 2 mills on the dollar of valuation, the funds thus raised to be used for the support of public libraries; the fines for penal offenses may also be applied for the same purpose. In 1893 a law was passed making the State board of education a State library committee. This committee has the entire control of the public libraries of the State. (See p. 321 of the Public Acts of the General Assembly of Connecticut, 1893.) A full text of the law is given on page 538 of this Report.

Delaware.—The only library legislation in Delaware is an act to establish a State library.

District of Columbia —A bill authorizing a municipal appropriation for the support of a public free library was passed by the House of Representatives on March 9, 1896. This bill carried an amendment assessing the cost of maintenance on the District and exempting Government property. On March 11 the Senate refused to concur in the amendment and the bill was laid over for conference of the two Houses. The bill, a copy of which may be found on page 539 of this Report, became a law June 3, 1896.

Florida.—In 1895 the legislature of Florida provided for the division of any county or counties into convenient school districts, and that any incorporated town or city might constitute a school district, and that money might be raised by taxation for the purchase of school libraries and text-books, for the salaries of teachers, and for other educational purposes. This act also provides that the school commissioners may perform all acts reasonable and necessary for the promotion of the educational interests of the county or district and for the general diffusion of knowledge among its citizens.

Georgia.—This State has no general legislation on the subject of public libraries. The law requires that "money derived from fines for nonattendance at the county institutes shall be used in purchasing teachers' libraries for the counties in which the fines are collected." In this way an attempt has been made to gather under the

county superintendent of education a library in each county in the State, but as the law has but recently been put in operation, very little has been done as yet toward a collection of books.

Idaho.—Idaho has no direct mandatory legislation as to public libraries; still there is a permissive act which gives the school districts the right to make purchases of library material to an amount not exceeding 25 per cent of the school fund for any one year.

Illinois.—In 1872 Illinois enacted a law with minute details for the establishment, government, and management of public libraries, and this law has been substantially copied by many of the Western States. It provides for a board of nine directors, an independent body nominated by the mayor and approved by the city council. This board has exclusive control of the library, with power to erect or lease buildings, etc. Towns and villages may levy a tax for the support of public libraries, the tax not to exceed 2 mills on the dollar. Cities of less than 100,000 inhabitants, 1 mill; cities over 100,000 inhabitants, one-fifth of a mill. The full text of this law may be found on page 540 of this Report.

Indiana.—In 1871 Indiana passed a law making provision for public libraries. This law is claimed to be one of the simplest and most concise of any legislation up to that date. In 1873 the library association law was extended so that the towns and cities were authorized to have libraries. In 1883 the old library legislation was so extended that the trustees of the town where a library was desired might levy a tax of not less than one-fourth nor more than three-fourths of a mill on the dollar of assessed valuation for the support of the same. The money thus raised was to be paid over to the officers of the library for the purchase of books and library equipment. See page 541 of this Report.

Iowa.—In 1840 Iowa enacted a district library law. In 1873 a town library law, embodying a single section, was enacted authorizing any city or town to levy a tax of 1 mill on the dollar of valuation for the support of a free public library.

Kansas.—On February 28, 1870, Kansas passed an act for the establishment of district school libraries. This proved unsatisfactory, as usual, and a free public library law was passed in 1886.

Kentucky.—In 1875 Kentucky adopted a general library law, but little progress was made under that law. A bill prepared by the alumnæ of the Louisville high school providing for the establishment of a State library commission is now pending in the Kentucky legislature. It provides for the appointment by the governor of five commissioners who shall serve during 1896, without salaries, and shall make a careful study of libraries in other States, extending their inquiries into organization, maintenance, legislation, State systems, educational results of the work of libraries, and any other matters pertaining to the modern library movement. Not later than January 15, 1897, the commission shall make a report in writing to the governor, embodying the results of their inquiry and recommending such plans and legislation as in their judgment will best promote the educational interests of the people of the State through libraries. (A copy of this bill could not be obtained.)

Louisiana.—There is no library legislation in Louisiana, except that which pertains to the State library and to library associations. See library laws, page 546 of this Report.

Maine.—In 1854 Maine passed an act that provides that any town or city may raise by taxation $1 on each ratable poll for the establishment of a free public library, and 25 cents annually thereafter for its maintenance. Under this law nothing was done, from the fact that the allowance was so meager that without aid from private individuals nothing could be done. By an act approved March 21, 1893, it was provided that any town may establish a free public library therein for the use of its inhabitants, and provided suitable rooms therefor, under such regulations for its government as the inhabitants from time to time may prescribe. See library laws, page 548 of this Report.

Maryland.—The Maryland Code, article 77, section 87, provides as follows: "For further encouragement of education, district school libraries should be established in each schoolhouse district, under the care of the teacher as librarian. For this purpose the sum of $10 per annum is ordered to be paid by the board of county school commissioners, out of the city school funds, to any schoolhouse district as library money as soon as the people of the district raise an equal amount annually." See library laws, page 549 of this Report.

Massachusetts.—Massachusetts began in 1851 with a law similar to that of Maine. In 1859 a larger tax was allowed, and in 1866 a law was enacted similar to that of New Hampshire, allowing any city or town to raise any sum which it deemed necessary. An act in 1870 "for the establishment of districts for maintaining street lamps," granting power to "maintain street lamps, establish and maintain libraries, and maintain sidewalks." The law of 1890 provides for a library commission. Massachusetts seems to be the only State that has made and published a compilation of its library laws. The historical value of this compilation justifies its republica-

tion. On page 549 of this Report will be found the library legislation of Massachusetts from 1798 to 1890.

Michigan.—Michigan stands alone in having in the first constitution of the State the following clause: "The legislature shall also provide for the establishment of at least one library in every township." A school-district library law was enacted in 1859. This plan proved a failure, as it had done in all the other States which adopted it. In 1877 a free public library law, similar to that of Illinois, was passed. In 1881 an act was passed authorizing the qualified voters of any school district in which a district library "may hereafter be established, to vote a district tax for the support of said library," the tax to be levied and collected in the same manner as other township and school-district taxes. See library laws, page 566.

Minnesota.—Minnesota passed a district library law in 1867. In the same year a law was passed exempting libraries and their buildings from taxation, and in 1875 an act was passed for their protection. See library laws, page 568.

Missouri.—In 1885 Missouri passed a public library law very similar in character to that of Illinois. This law was prepared by Mr. Crunden, of the St. Louis Public Library, and follows the Illinois law, with slight variations. The law regarding district libraries is given on page 568.

Mississippi.—In 1892 Mississippi enacted a general library law (embodied in the municipal laws).

Montana.—In 1883 Montana passed a general library law, modeled after the Illinois plan. It provided that the municipal authorities of any incorporated town or city may establish a free public library, and may levy a tax for its support not exceeding 1 mill on the dollar of assessed valuation. The law provides that the question of establishing a library must first be submitted to the voters of the district for acceptance or rejection.

Nebraska.—In 1877 Nebraska enacted a general library law, also modeled after the Illinois plan, but going more minutely into details. See library laws, page 568.

New Hampshire.—As has been noted elsewhere the first free public library (supported by municipal authority) was established in New Hampshire in 1833. This State enacted the first general free public library law in 1849. This law is very simple in form, and its main features remain unchanged. Any town may raise and appropriate money for establishing and maintaining a library without limitation as to amount and as to management (the money to be raised by ordinary taxation). In 1877 an act was passed for the protection of public libraries, and in 1891 the public statutes of New Hampshire, chapter 8, sections 21 to 26, provides a law for the support of free public libraries by the State. See page 571.

New Jersey.—New Jersey, following the example of many other States, has modeled her library laws after Illinois. An act was passed in 1884 which provides that upon the approval of a majority of voters at a special election it shall be the duty of the authorities to levy a tax of one-third of a mill on the dollar of assessed valuation for a public library fund. The board of trustees, composed of the mayor, superintendent of public instruction, and five others appointed by the mayor is made a corporate body to serve without pay. The act further empowers three or more persons to organize a corporation for the purpose of establishing a free public library. See school library laws, page 572.

New Mexico.—New Mexico, under an act of 1884 with regard to municipal corporations, allows the council or trustees of any city or incorporated town to appropriate money for a public library, provided the annual appropriation shall not exceed 1 mill on the dollar of assessed valuation, and the law further provides that no appropriation shall be made until the proposition has been submitted to a popular vote.

Nevada.—So far as can be learned, Nevada has no library legislation of any kind.

New York.—As has been noted fully elsewhere, New York passed a district public library law in 1835. In 1838 the general assembly appropriated $55,000 annually for the support of these libraries. As elsewhere, however, these district libraries proved a failure. Under a provision of the school law in 1847, there were a number of free libraries supported indirectly by taxation. In 1872 a public library law was passed providing that upon the written petition of the majority of all the taxable inhabitants of any village, town, or city, its common council, board of trustees, or town auditors, may establish and maintain a free public library, each qualified voter being required to pay $1 for the foundation, and 50 cents annually thereafter for its maintenance. In 1885 the law was amended so as to include public reading rooms with or without libraries. It is not known that a single library was established under this law. In 1886 a law was passed to encourage the growth of free circulating libraries in the cities. On May 13, 1887, an act was passed providing for libraries in towns and cities of less than 30,000 inhabitants. In 1892, an act for the encouragement of common school and public libraries was passed and approved by the governor on May 14. See library laws, page 572.

North Carolina.—This State has no recent legislation other than that pertaining to

the State library. On page 576 will be found the laws in full, beginning in 1715, and including all legislation in regard to libraries.

North Dakota.—In 1890 the legislature of North Dakota passed a law for the establishment and maintenance of a law library for the State University. In 1891 a law was passed for the purchase of reference and pedagogical books for a State educational library in the office of the superintendent of public instruction. In the same year a law was passed for the establishment of district school board libraries. For library laws, see page 584.

Ohio.—The first public library laws in Ohio were passed in 1867. Other laws were enacted in 1873 and 1875. Under the school library law of 1853 the State had an experience similar to that of New York, and in 1868 it was a question what to do with the books of the school libraries of the State. The present free public library law authorizes towns and cities to raise money by taxation for the establishment and maintenance of libraries. The law further provides that in cities of 20,000 inhabitants and over, the board of education may appoint a library commission of three who shall have entire control of the library, its administration, appointment of officers, etc., and even the levying of taxes for the support and increase of the library, but this commission is amenable to the board of education. See library laws, page 585.

Oregon.—The only information obtained from this State is the following regarding school libraries, taken from the school laws of 1893:

"SECTION 37*a*. The directors of school districts are hereby allowed to purchase from time to time, with the common school fund for their districts, such books of reference and apparatus as the interests of the school demand; and the books of reference and apparatus shall be kept at the schoolhouse during each term of school, for the use of the teachers and pupils: *Provided*, That the yearly expenditures therefor shall not exceed $50 in districts receiving $500 or over from the common school fund, and 10 per centum thereof in districts receiving less than $500 therefrom."

Pennsylvania.—Pennsylvania has a district library law passed in 1864, and a general library law for the incorporation of library associations was passed in 1874. A law has been passed by the legislature appropriating all taxes on dogs for the support and maintenance of public libraries now organized, provided the library company shall provide and maintain a free reading room for the town, city, or borough where established. See library laws, page 587.

Rhode Island.—In 1867 Rhode Island gave the towns power to establish public libraries, and in 1869 a law was passed empowering two towns to combine and form a library jointly. In 1875 a free public library law was passed. Any town or city may levy a tax of 2½ mills on the dollar of valuation for the establishment of a library, and two-tenths of a mill annually thereafter for the maintenance of the same.

South Carolina.—On November 16, 1700, the legislative assembly passed an act looking to the preservation of the library of the Rev. Thomas Bray, D. D., founder of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. There has been no other legislation, except for the State library.

Tennessee.—There is no legislation in this State regarding public libraries. There are in Tennessee, as in a number of other States, general acts for the incorporation and protection of libraries.

Texas.—Texas enacted a law in 1874 which provides that any incorporated town or city may establish a free public library and may make such regulations and grant such parts of its revenues for the maintenance and increase thereof as the municipal government of the town may determine.

Utah.—On March 9, 1896, the legislature of Utah passed a bill which provides that the common council of a city or town may levy a tax for the establishment and maintenance of free public libraries. See page 590 for legislation in full.

Vermont.—In 1865 Vermont established a law similar to that of New Hampshire, and in 1867 modeled a law after that of Maine. It provides 50 cents per poll annually for the maintenance of the library. In 1869 a library association law was passed. In 1884 the general library law was amended by raising the legal limit of expenditure from $1 to $3 per poll for the establishment of a library, leaving the tax per poll at 50 cents thereafter for the maintenance of the same. On November 9, 1894, a law was passed creating a library commission. Section 1 of that act reads as follows:

"The governor shall appoint five persons, residents of the State, who shall constitute a board of library commissioners. The governor shall designate the chairman thereof. One member of said board shall be appointed for the term of five years, one for four years, one for three years, one for two years, and one for one year, and thereafter the term of office of the commissioners shall be five years. All vacancies of said board, whether occurring by expiration of term or otherwise, shall be filled by the governor."

Washington.—So far as learned, there has been no general library legislation in Washington.

West Virginia.—Nothing reported from this State.

Wisconsin.—In 1868 Wisconsin passed a law permitting towns and cities to raise by taxation annually $150 for the purchase of books. In 1872 a law was enacted similar to that of Illinois, by which towns and cities were authorized to levy a tax of 1 mill on the dollar for the establishment and support of free public libraries. In 1876 an excellent law, prepared by the American Library Association, was passed for the establishment and maintenance of libraries in towns and villages. The substance of the law is as follows:

"The common council of every city not exceeding in population 50,000 inhabitants, and the village board, or board of trustees, of every village, and the town board of every town containing over 2,000 inhabitants, shall have power to establish and maintain a public library and reading room, and for such purposes may annually levy, and cause to be collected as other general taxes are collected, a tax not exceeding 1 mill on each dollar of taxable property of such city, town, or village, or may set aside and appropriate a sum not to exceed 10 per cent of the money received in any year for license issued for vending or dealing in spirituous, vinous, or fermented liquors, to constitute a library fund, which fund shall be kept by the treasurer separate and apart from other money of the city, town, or village, and to be used exclusively for such purposes: *Provided*, That no tax shall be levied without the same first be submitted to a vote and be approved by a majority of the votes cast at such election in such city, town, or village on such question."

For the government of such free public libraries the law provides for a board of nine directors who shall be appointed by the mayor, president of the town council, or chairman of village trustees, and approved by the general council of the city or town, the said directors to serve without compensation. The law of 1895, appointing a library commission, will be found on page 596.

Wyoming.—The public library law of Wyoming, as it appears in the revised statutes of 1887, reads as follows:

"SECTION 684. When the county commissioners of any county have received proper and sufficient guarantees, whether in the form of conveyances or bonds of citizens, or associations or corporations, that a suitable place shall be permanently furnished for the protection and use of a public library, as a condition precedent to their own action, under the provisions of this section it shall be their duty to levy annually a tax of not less than one-eighth of a mill nor more than one-half of a mill on the dollar on all taxable property in the county for the establishment and maintenance of a public library to be located at the county seat of such county."

The law also provides that the county commissioners may appoint three trustees to constitute a library board, the same to have entire charge of the organization and management of the library. The law further provides that no part of the library fund shall be expended for sectarian or professional books, and that not more than 25 per cent of said fund shall be expended for works of fiction, but that the books purchased "shall be of a kind best suited to inform the mind and improve the character of the reader." For library laws of the State, see page 597.

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IV.

STATE LIBRARY LAWS.

An effort has been made to collect the library laws of the various States and Territories. The success of this effort may be judged from what appears in the pages which follow. This effort, it is hoped, may be the means of stimulating States which heretofore have taken no action with regard to library legislation. The

information from many of the States is fragmentary and not altogether satisfactory, but it is given for what it is worth. In other States it appears that the library laws have never been compiled, so that it would require an extensive search to ascertain what laws regarding public libraries have been enacted.

Massachusetts seems to be the only State that has published a compilation of her library laws. This compilation is of great historical value, and is given in full as a sample for other States desiring to make a compilation of their library laws. The laws of North Carolina are given at great length, as much on account of their quaintness as on account of the light which they throw upon the early history of the State.

The more recent public library laws of several of the States are given as samples for other States that may be contemplating the establishment of public libraries. It may also be seen from this compilation what progress has been made in the several States regarding the establishment and maintenance of public libraries.

The courtesy of the various State officials who have so kindly and promptly replied to letters of inquiry is hereby acknowledged.

ARIZONA.

[Sections 95 and 96 of the school laws of the Territory of Arizona, as approved March 10, 1887, and amended by the sixteenth legislative assembly.]

SECTION 95. Boards of school trustees in cities and in districts containing one hundred or more census children may use the school fund, together with such moneys as may be added thereto by donation, in the purchase of books for school libraries: *Provided*, That the amount so expended from the school fund in one year shall not exceed fifty dollars: *And provided further*, That no warrant shall be drawn by the county school superintendent on the order of any board of trustees in payment for any books unless such order is accompanied by an itemized bill showing the books and the price of each in payment for which the order is drawn.

SEC. 96. Libraries are under the control of the board of trustees, and must be kept, when practicable, in the schoolhouses. The libraries shall be free to all pupils of a suitable age belonging to the school, and any resident of a district may become entitled to its privileges by the payment of such annual or monthly fee as may be prescribed by the trustees. The trustees shall be held accountable for the proper care and preservation of the library, and they shall report to the county school superintendent, when required, all library statistics on blanks furnished by the superintendent of public instruction for that purpose.

CALIFORNIA.

STATE LIBRARY.

SECTION 2292. The State library is under the control of a board of trustees, consisting of five members, elected by the legislature in joint convention assembled, and holding their office for the term of four years.

SEC. 2293. The powers and duties of the board are as follows:

1. To make rules and regulations, not inconsistent with law, for their government and for the government of the library.
2. To appoint a librarian.
3. Whenever necessary, to authorize the librarian to appoint an additional deputy.
4. To sell or exchange duplicate copies of books.
5. To keep in order and repair the books and property in the library.
6. To draw from the State treasury at any time all moneys therein belonging to the library fund.
7. To report to the governor biennially a statement of their transactions.

SEC. 2294. The librarian holds his office for the term of four years, unless sooner removed by a unanimous vote of all the trustees.

SEC. 2295. It is the duty of the librarian:

1. To be in attendance at the library during office hours.
2. To act as secretary of the board of trustees, and to keep a record of their proceedings.
3. To purchase books, maps, engravings, paintings, and furniture for the library.
4. To number and stamp all books and maps belonging to the library, and to keep a catalogue thereof.
5. To have bound all books and papers that require binding.
6. To keep a register of all books and property added to library, and of the cost thereof.
7. To keep a register of all books taken from the library.
8. To establish and maintain a system of domestic and foreign exchange of books, and to obtain from the secretary of state such numbers of all State publications as

may be sufficient to meet the demands of the system established. [Approved March 30; in effect July 6, 1874.]

SEC. 2296. Books may be taken from the library by the members of the legislature during the sessions thereof, and by other State officers at any time.

SEC. 2297. Books taken by members of the legislature must be returned at the close of the session; and before the controller draws his warrant in favor of any member of the legislature for his last week's salary he must be satisfied that such member has returned all books taken by him and paid for any injuries thereto.

SEC. 2298. The controller, if notified by the librarian that any officer has failed to return books taken by him within the time prescribed by the rules, and after demand made, must not draw his warrant for the salary of such officer until the return is made or three times the value of the books, or of any injury thereto, has been paid to the librarian.

SEC. 2299. Every person who injures or fails to return any book taken is liable to the librarian in three times the value thereof.

SEC. 2300. The State library fund consists of the fees collected and paid into the State treasury by the secretary of state and surveyor-general. [Approved March 30; in effect July 6, 1874.]

SEC. 2301. During the session of the legislature and of the supreme court the library must be kept open every day from nine o'clock a. m. until nine o'clock p. m., and at other times, during such hours as the trustees may direct.

SEC. 2302. The annual salary of the librarian is three thousand dollars.

SEC. 2303. The annual salary of each deputy is eighteen hundred dollars.

SEC. 2304. The librarian must execute an official bond in the sum of three thousand dollars.

SEC. 2305. This chapter shall be in force and effect from and after the first day of May, eighteen hundred and seventy-two.

FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

Chapter CXXVI.

AN ACT to establish free libraries and reading rooms.

(Approved April 26, 1880.)

The people of the State of California, represented in senate and assembly, do enact as follows:

SECTION 1. For the purposes of this act cities of this State are classified as follows:

1. Cities of less than one hundred thousand population.
2. Cities of more than one hundred thousand population.

SEC. 2. The municipal authorities of any incorporated city of this State are authorized and empowered, by a resolution duly passed for that purpose, to levy and collect as in other cases annually, a tax not to exceed one mill on the dollar, for the purpose of establishing and maintaining in such city free public libraries and reading rooms and purchasing such books, journals, and other publications, purchasing and leasing such real and personal property, and erecting such buildings as may be necessary therefor.

SEC. 3. All money and revenue paid, collected, or received by authority of anything herein contained, whether by taxation, gift, devise, bequest, or otherwise, shall belong to and be known and designated as the "Library fund," and shall be paid into the proper city treasury, and there kept separate and apart from other funds, and be drawn therefrom as hereinafter provided, but only to be used and applied to the purposes herein authorized.

SEC. 4. All property, real and personal, acquired by purchase, gift, devise, bequest, or otherwise, under the provisions of or for any purpose authorized by this act, shall vest, be, and remain in the proper city, and may be protected, defended, and sued for by action at law, or otherwise, in the name of such city as in other cases.

SEC. 5. In a city of less than one hundred thousand population five trustees shall be elected at the same time and in the same manner as the other town officers are elected. They shall hold office the same length of time to carry into effect the provisions of this act.

SEC. 6. In a city of more than one hundred thousand population the mayor or chief executive officer, during his continuance in office, and eleven citizens thereof, to be appointed by the governor of this State, shall constitute the first board of trustees of any library or reading room established or acquired in such city under this act.

SEC. 7. The office of trustee shall be honorary, without salary or other compensation, and shall continue during good behavior; but for good cause a trustee may be removed from office by proceedings in the supreme court in behalf of the proper city in manner provided for the removal from office of other city officers.

SEC. 8. The trustees of any library or reading room established or acquired by

authority of this act shall take charge of the same and of all real and personal property thereunto belonging, or that may be acquired by loan, purchase, gift, devise, or otherwise. They shall meet for business purposes on the first Tuesday of each month, and at such other times as they may appoint, at a place to be provided for the purpose, and a majority of all their number shall constitute a quorum for business. They may appoint one of their number to act as president of the board, and may elect a librarian. They shall also elect a secretary, who shall keep a full statement and account of all property, money, receipts, and expenditures, and a record and full minutes in writing of all their proceedings. The secretary may certify to such proceedings or any part or portion thereof, under his hand, verified by an official seal adopted and provided by the trustees for that purpose.

SEC. 9. Such trustees by a majority vote of all their members, to be recorded in the minutes with the ayes and noes at length, shall have power:

1. To make and enforce all rules, regulations, and by-laws necessary for the administration, government, and protection of such library and reading room, and all property belonging thereto, or that may be loaned, devised, bequeathed, or donated to the same.

2. To exercise and administer any trust declared or created for such library or reading room, and to provide memorial tablets and niches to perpetuate the memories of those persons who may make valuable donations thereto.

3. To remove any trustee who may neglect to attend the meetings of the board of trustees, or who may absent himself from such meetings, or without the consent of the board, from the State for three consecutive months; and to fill all vacancies that may from any cause occur in the board.

4. To define the powers and describe the duties of any and all officers, determine the number and elect all necessary subordinate officers and assistants, and at their pleasure remove any officer or assistant.

5. To purchase necessary books, journals, publications, and other personal property.

6. To order the drawing and payment, upon properly authenticated vouchers, duly certified by the president and secretary, of money from out of the library fund for any liability or expenditure herein authorized; and generally to do all that may be necessary to fully carry into effect the provisions of this act.

7. To fix the salaries of the librarian, secretary, and other subordinate officers and assistants, and by and with the consent and approval of the legislative or other proper authority of the proper city, expressed by resolution duly passed, to purchase said real estate, erect and equip such buildings as may be necessary for such library and reading room.

SEC. 10. The orders and demands of the trustees of any such library or reading room of any city, when duly made and authenticated as above provided, shall be verified and audited by the auditing officer, and paid by the treasurer of such city out of the library fund properly belonging thereto, of which full entry and record shall be kept as in other cases.

SEC. 11. The trustees of such library or reading room on or before the first Monday of July of each year shall make an annual report to the municipal authorities of their city, giving the condition of their trust, with full statements of all property and money received, whence derived, how used and expended; the number of books, journals, and other publications on hand, the number added by purchase, gift, or otherwise during each year, the number lost or missing, the number and character of those loaned, and such other statistics, information, and suggestions as may be of general interest. A financial report showing all receipts and disbursements of money shall also be made by the secretary of the board of trustees, duly verified by his oath.

SEC. 12. The proper municipal authorities of any city wherein a public library or reading room may be established shall have power to pass ordinances for the protection of the same and all property thereto belonging, and for imposing penalties for the punishment of persons committing injury to such library or reading room, or the property or books thereof, or for failure to return any book or other property belonging thereto. They shall also have power, by a resolution duly passed for such purpose, to grant, donate, or authorize the use of, either in whole or in part, any land, square, or real estate belonging to such city or town, or dedicated to public use therein, for the purpose of erecting and maintaining a building to be used only for a public library and reading room, as herein authorized.

SEC. 13. The words "city or cities" wherever used in this act are intended to and shall include all incorporated cities and towns, and cities and counties with consolidated government, and shall be construed accordingly.

SEC. 14. An act entitled "An act to establish and maintain free public libraries and reading rooms," approved March the eighteenth, eighteen hundred and seventy-eight, is hereby repealed. All libraries and reading rooms heretofore established by authority of the last-mentioned act in any city or town, or city and county, and all

property, real and personal, thereto belonging, shall be turned over to the charge, custody, and administration of such trustees as may be continued or appointed therein respectively under the provisions of this act, with like powers and liabilities as if such library had been established under this act.

SEC. 15. This act shall take effect on the first day of May, A. D. eighteen hundred and eighty. [Code of California, p. 126.]

COLORADO.

[From Public Library Handbook, Denver, Colo.]

Colorado's library law is not in a very satisfactory condition. Statutes and parts of statutes passed at different times seem in part to contradict and in part to duplicate one another. Just what may and may not be done under the existing laws it would probably be impossible to determine except through judicial interpretation. The following digest may serve a good purpose in making it plain that our present library law is very obscure.

The establishment and maintenance of free public libraries is declared to be a proper object of municipal expenditure. The trustees of any city or incorporated town may appropriate money for a public library if at a previous election a majority of the people have voted in favor of such action: *Provided*, No such appropriation shall exceed one mill upon the dollar. Every city or incorporated town in which such a library shall be maintained shall be entitled to receive a copy of the laws, journals, and all other works published by the authority of the State after the establishment of such a library, for the use of such library, and the secretary of state is authorized to furnish the same from year to year to such city or incorporated town. (Mills's Annotated Statutes, sec. 4403, par. 76.)

The clear proceeds of certain fines and penalties may be applied to the establishment and support of a public library. (Mills, 2815.)

The council or trustees of any city or town may, if they see fit, apply any part of the clear proceeds of certain fines in aid of any library association for the benefit of the public: *Provided*, Such library association give the council or trustees such representation in its board of management as the latter may ask. (Mills, 2821.)

The city council of any incorporated city may establish and maintain a public library and reading room, and may levy a tax for such purpose of not to exceed one mill on the dollar annually; in cities of over one hundred thousand inhabitants this tax is not to exceed one-half of one mill on a dollar annually. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 1.)

When any city has established a library under the foregoing section, the mayor shall appoint six persons, who, together with the mayor, shall constitute the library board. The appointments must be approved by the city council. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 2.)

One-half of these directors hold office for one year and one-half for two years from the first of July following their appointment. The mayor shall annually thereafter appoint three directors, and shall fill all vacancies. Any director may be removed by the mayor and council for cause. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, secs. 3 and 4.)

No directors shall receive compensation. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 4.)

Each director shall give a bond of five hundred dollars. (Mills, 2819.)

The mayor is president of the board. The board elects other officers, and makes rules and by-laws, has exclusive control of the expenditure of all money, and the management of all grounds, buildings, rooms, etc., owned, leased, or set apart for library purposes. The library fund must be deposited in the city treasury. The board has power to appoint a suitable librarian and assistants and to fix their compensation. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 5.)

All libraries established under this act shall be forever free. The board may exclude any person who wilfully violates the library rules. The use of the library may be extended to persons residing outside of the city, but within the State. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 6.)

The board of directors must make an annual report to the city council. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 7.)

The city council of any city has power to pass ordinances imposing suitable penalties for the punishment of persons injuring any book or other property of the library, or for the failure to return books borrowed. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 8.)

Any person may make any gift, donation, etc., to the library, by vesting the title of the same in the library board, as special trustees. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 9.)

If fifty legal voters of any incorporated town present a petition asking that an annual tax be levied to establish and maintain a free public library, and a majority of the legal voters vote in favor of such action at the next annual election the tax

mentioned in the petition shall be collected and known as the "library fund." Such tax shall cease whenever the majority of legal voters so determine. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 10.)

At the next regular election after any town shall have voted to establish a free public library, a board of six directors shall be elected, one-half to serve one year and one-half to serve two years. The board shall have the same powers as are conferred on the library board in a city. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, sec. 11.)

The board of any school district may order a levy of not to exceed one-tenth of one mill, the proceeds of which shall be used exclusively for the purchase of books for a library which shall be open to the public. (Mills, 4032.)

Any library association can sell or lease its property in any manner it may desire to the board of directors of any public library upon the vote of the majority of its subscribers or stockholders. (Sess. Laws, 1893, Chap. CXV, secs 12 and 13.)

Public libraries are exempt from taxation. (Mills, 3766; constitution of Colorado, Art. X, sec. 4.)

The State librarian is directed to turn over to the librarian of any free public library in this State, if desired for public use therein, and to take the receipt of such librarian therefor, one copy of each and every such book, pamphlet, or periodical published by the State as can be spared, now on hand, or which shall be published by the State from time to time hereafter. (Mills, 2822.)

THE STATE LIBRARY.

The State superintendent of public instruction is ex officio librarian for the State. The State library is open to the public from ten a. m. to twelve m., and from two p. m. to four p. m. each day, except Sundays and holidays. (Mills, 2802.)

The librarian has charge of all books, etc., and keeps a regular file of all such State newspapers as may be donated. (Mills, 2803.)

He may employ an assistant librarian who shall have charge of the State library, under such regulations as may be prescribed by the State librarian or by law. The salary of the assistant librarian is one thousand dollars per annum. (Mills, 3979.)

All books sent by other States are received and properly labeled and arranged by the librarian. (Mills, 2804.)

Receipt of each book, etc., is acknowledged and a record kept. (Mills, 2805.)

The librarian makes rules and regulations. (Mills, 2806.)

Statutes, journals, legislative documents, and other books are to be exchanged with other legislative bodies and State libraries as the librarian deems proper. (Mills, 2807.)

All persons are permitted to visit the library, examine and read the books therein, and may take out any book and retain the same three weeks on depositing with the librarian, to insure its safe return, a sum of money equal to double the value of the book. State and county officers have free access to the library, but they may not obtain books for persons not engaged in public work. (Mills, 2808.)

The State librarian makes a full and complete report to the general assembly. (Mills, 2809.)

The librarian must file a bond. (Mills, 2814.)

SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

The qualified electors of any district of the third class, when assembled at any regular or special meeting, may order a sufficient levy on all the taxable property of the district to procure libraries for the schools. (Mills, 4027. See also p. 159, Mills, 4032.)

[Section 67 of the school laws of the State of Colorado as amended to date, 1893.]

SECTION 67. On or before the day designated by law for the commissioners of each county to levy the requisite taxes for the then ensuing year, the school board in each district shall certify to the county commissioners the number of mills per dollar which it is necessary to levy on the taxable property of the district to raise a special fund for any of the purposes specified in section fifty-one of this chapter, and the county commissioners shall cause the same to be levied at the same time that other taxes are levied, and the amount of such special tax which shall be assessed to each taxpayer of such district shall be placed in a separate column of the tax book, which shall be headed "Special school tax:" *Provided*, That a school board of a district of the third class shall not certify, as above, to a higher rate than fifteen mills per dollar. There shall also be a column in said tax book in which shall be designated the number of the school district in which the property is listed. This tax shall be collected in cash only, and placed to the credit of the proper district as fast as collected, and the amount placed to the credit of each district shall be reported to the secretary of such district at the end of every month, and shall be subject to the order

of the district board. It is hereby made the duty of the county assessor and county treasurer to so arrange their tax schedules and books as to conform to the above provisions: *Provided*, That the county assessor shall list all property, both real and personal, in the school district in which the same may be on the first day of May: *And provided further*, That the board of any district may order the levy of not to exceed one-tenth of one mill, the proceeds of which shall be used exclusively in the purchase of books for a library, to be open to the public, under such rules as the district board may deem needful for the proper care of the said library.

CONNECTICUT.

Below will be found the law relating to libraries passed by the general assembly of 1893, and found on page 321 of the Public Acts:

SECTION 1. Any town, borough, or city may establish a public library, the use of which, under proper regulations, shall be free to its inhabitants. Any town, borough, or city may expend such sum of money as may be necessary to provide and furnish suitable rooms or a suitable building for the library so established, or for a previously existing public library, the use of which is free to its inhabitants.

SEC. 2. Any town, borough, or city may annually expend such sum of money as shall be necessary for the proper maintenance and increase of a public library within its limits whose use is free to its inhabitants. Any town shall have power at any meeting, duly called for the purpose, to fix by a proper by-law the amount which shall be annually expended for the public library therein. The treasurer of such town shall thereafter annually pay upon the order of the officer designated by the directors or trustees managing its public library the bills incurred for the maintenance and increase of said library, not exceeding in the aggregate the sum specified in said by-law. The town clerk may deposit in a public library within his town any books other than records placed by law or otherwise in his custody.

SEC. 3. Any town, borough, or city may receive, hold, and manage any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment, increase or maintenance of a public library within its limits.

SEC. 4. In the absence of any other lawful provision for the management of a public library in any town or borough, the said town or borough shall elect a board of directors who shall manage said public library. Said board may, from time to time, make by-laws not inconsistent with the laws of this State for its own government and may adopt rules controlling the use of the library and the administration of its affairs. Said board shall have the exclusive right to expend, according to its best judgment, all money appropriated by the town or borough for the library, and shall have control of the grounds, buildings, and rooms used for the purposes of the library.

SEC. 5. The first election of directors may take place at any meeting of the town or borough called for that purpose. It shall first be determined by a by-law of the town to be adopted at this meeting what the number of directors constituting said board shall be, such number to be in all cases one divisible by three. One-third of this number shall then be elected to hold office until the next annual meeting, one-third until the second annual meeting, and the remaining one-third until the third annual meeting thereafter. At each annual meeting of said town or borough, one-third of the directors shall be elected by ballot to hold office for three years.

SEC. 6. No director of a public library elected as above provided shall receive compensation for any services rendered as director.

SEC. 7. The State board of education shall annually appoint five persons who shall be known as the Connecticut Public Library Committee.

SEC. 8. No member of said library committee shall receive any compensation for his services as such member, but the board may expend a sum not exceeding five hundred dollars annually for clerical assistance and incidental and necessary expenses incurred in the discharge of its duties.

SEC. 9. The librarian or director of any public library and the teachers of any public school may ask said committee for advice and assistance in regard to the selection and purchase of books, the cataloguing of books and any other matters pertaining to the maintenance or administration of the library, and the committee shall give advice and assistance in regard to said matters so far as it shall find it practicable to do so. The committee shall biennially make a report of its doings to the general assembly.

SEC. 10. If any town having no free public library shall establish a free public library and shall provide for the care, custody, and distribution of books and for the future maintenance and increase of such library in a manner satisfactory to said library committee, said committee is hereby authorized to expend for books to be selected by the said committee a sum not to exceed the amount expended by the said town for the establishment of such library and not to exceed two hundred dollars.

SEC. 11. The treasurer of the State shall pay the bills incurred under this act upon

the order of the secretary of the State board of education. Said board shall keep an account of all money expended under this act, and the comptroller shall annually audit said account. The provisions of sections 405 and 407 of the General Statutes shall not apply to the payment of money expended under this act.

SEC. 12. No person shall be ineligible by reason of sex to serve on the board of directors of any public library or on the Connecticut public library committee.

SEC. 13. Sections 143, 144, and 153 of the General Statutes are hereby repealed.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

AN ACT to establish and provide for the maintenance of a free public library and reading room in the District of Columbia.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That a free public library and reading room is hereby established and shall be maintained in the District of Columbia, which shall be the property of the said District and a supplement of the public educational system of said District. All actions relating to such library, or for the recovery of any penalties lawfully established in relation thereto, shall be brought in the name of the District of Columbia, and the Commissioners of said District are authorized on behalf of said District to accept and take title to all gifts, bequests, and devises for the purpose of aiding in the maintenance or endowment of said library; and the Commissioners of said District are further authorized to receive as component parts of said library collections of books and other publications that may be transferred to them.

SEC. 2. That all persons who are permanent or temporary residents of the District of Columbia shall be entitled to the privileges of said library, including the use of the books contained therein, as a lending or circulating library, subject to such rules and regulations as may be lawfully established in relation thereto.

SEC. 3. That the said library shall be in charge of a board of library trustees, who shall purchase the books, magazines, and newspapers, and procure the necessary appendages for such library. The said board of trustees shall be composed of nine members, each of whom shall be a taxpayer in the District of Columbia, and shall serve without compensation. They shall be appointed by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia and shall hold office for six years: *Provided,* That at the first meeting of the said board the members shall be divided by lot into three classes. The first class, composed of three members, shall hold office for two years; the second class, composed of three members, shall hold office for four years; the third class, composed of three members, shall hold office for six years. Any vacancy occurring in said board shall be filled by the District Commissioners. Said board shall have power to provide such regulations for its own organization and government as it may deem necessary.

SEC. 4. That the said board shall have power to provide for the proper care and preservation of said library, to prescribe rules for taking and returning books, to fix, assess, and collect fines and penalties for the loss of or injury to books, and to establish all other needful rules and regulations for the management of the library as the said board shall deem proper. The said board of trustees shall appoint a librarian to have the care and superintendence of said library, who shall be responsible to the board of trustees for the impartial enforcement of all rules and regulations lawfully established in relation to said library. The said librarian shall appoint such assistants as the board shall deem necessary to the proper conduct of the library. The said board of library trustees shall make an annual report to the Commissioners of the District of Columbia relative to the management of the said library.

SEC. 5. That said library shall be located in some convenient place in the city of Washington to be designated by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia upon the recommendation of the trustees of said library: *Provided,* That in any municipal building to be hereafter erected in said District suitable provision shall be made for said library and reading room sufficient to accommodate not less than one hundred thousand volumes.

Approved, June 3, 1896.

FLORIDA.

[Digest and compilation of the school laws of Florida, etc., 1893, page 4, sections 10 and 11, page 14, clause XII. Constitution of Florida, Article XII, Education, sections 10 and 11. School Laws of the State of Florida, 1893; clause XII of section 28.]

SECTION 10. The legislature may provide for the division of any county or counties into convenient school districts; and for the election biennially of three school trustees, who shall hold their office for two years, and who shall have the supervision of all the schools within the district; and for the levying and collection of a district school tax, for the exclusive use of public free schools within the district,

whenever a majority of the qualified electors thereof that pay a tax on real or personal property shall vote in favor of such levy. *Provided*, That any tax authorized by this section shall not exceed three mills on the dollar in any one year on the taxable property of the district.

SEC. 11. Any incorporated town or city may constitute a school district. The fund raised by section ten may be expended in the district where levied for building or repairing schoolhouses, for the purchase of school libraries and text-books, for salaries of teachers, or for other educational purposes, so that the distribution among all the schools of the district be equitable.

School Laws, etc., section 28, clause XII: Each county board of public instruction is directed * * * to perform all acts reasonable and necessary for the promotion of the educational interests of the county and the general diffusion of knowledge among the citizens.

IDAHO.

There is no direct or mandatory legislation as to libraries for the schools of the State, still there is a permissive one, giving the districts authority to make purchases not to exceed 25 per cent of the school fund for any one year.

SECTION 45. (Chapter VI of the school laws of 1893.) The trustees of the respective districts must furnish all things, not herein otherwise provided for, necessary for the use and comfort of the schools in their district, such as fuel, improvements, maps, apparatus, and library, and for such purpose may audit and allow accounts against the school fund of their district, not to exceed twenty-five per cent of the amount of such school fund in any one year.

ILLINOIS.

AN ACT to authorize cities, incorporated towns, and townships to establish and maintain free public libraries and reading rooms.

SECTION 1. (Library and library fund.) *Be it enacted by the people of the State of Illinois, represented in the general assembly*, That the city council of each incorporated city shall have power to establish and maintain a public library and reading room for the use and benefit of the inhabitants of such city, and may levy a tax of not to exceed one mill on the dollar annually, and in cities of over one hundred thousand inhabitants not to exceed one-fifth of one mill annually on all the taxable property in the city, such tax to be levied and collected in like manner with other general taxes of said city, and to be known as the "Library fund."

SEC. 2. (Nine directors to be appointed.) When any city council shall have decided to establish and maintain a public library and reading room under this act, the mayor of such city shall, with the approval of the city council, proceed to appoint a board of nine directors for the same, chosen from the citizens at large with reference to their fitness for such office; and not more than one member of the city council shall be at any one time a member of said board.

SEC. 3. (Expiration of office, etc.) Said directors shall hold office one-third for one year, one-third for two years, and one-third for three years, from the first of July following their appointment, and at their first regular meeting shall cast lots for the respective terms, and annually thereafter the mayor shall, before the first of July of each year, appoint as before three directors to take the place of the retiring directors, who shall hold office for three years, and until their successors are appointed. The mayor may, by and with the consent of the city council, remove any director for misconduct or neglect of duty.

SEC. 4. (Vacancies.) Vacancies in the board of directors, occasioned by removals, resignation, or otherwise, shall be reported to the city council, and be filled in like manner as original appointments, and no director shall receive compensation as such.

SEC. 5. (Powers, officers, etc.) Said directors shall, immediately after appointment, meet and organize by the election of one of their number president, and by the election of such other officers as they may deem necessary. They shall make and adopt such by-laws, rules, and regulations for their own guidance and for the government of the library and the reading room as may be expedient, not inconsistent with this act. They shall have the exclusive control of the expenditure of all moneys collected to the credit of the library fund, and of the construction of any library building, and of the supervision, care, and custody of the grounds, rooms, or buildings constructed, leased, or set apart for that purpose: *Provided*, That all moneys received for such library shall be deposited in the treasury of said city to the credit of the library fund, and shall be kept separate and apart from other moneys of such city, and drawn upon by the proper officers of said city, upon the properly authenticated vouchers of the library board. Said board shall have power to purchase or lease grounds, to occupy, lease, or erect an appropriate building or buildings for the use of said library; shall have power to appoint a suitable librarian and necessary assistants, and fix their compensation, and shall also have power to

remove such appointees; and shall, in general, carry out the spirit and intent of this act, in establishing and maintaining a public library and reading room.

SEC. 6. (To be free.) Every library and reading room established under this act shall be forever free to the use of the inhabitants of the city where located, always subject to such reasonable rules and regulations as the library board may adopt, in order to render the use of said library and reading room of the greatest benefit to the greatest number; and said board may exclude from the use of said library and reading room any and all persons who shall willfully violate such rules.

SEC. 7. (Annual report.) The said board of directors shall make, on or before the second Monday in June, an annual report to the city council, stating the condition of their trust on the first day of June of that year, the various sums of money received from the library fund and from other sources, and how such moneys have been expended, and for what purposes; the number of books and periodicals on hand; the number added by purchase, gift, or otherwise during the year; the number lost or missing; the number of visitors attending; the number of books loaned out, and the general character and kind of such books, with such other statistics, information and suggestions as they may deem of general interest. All such portions of said report as relate to the receipt and expenditure of money, as well as the number of books on hand, books lost or missing, and books purchased, shall be verified by affidavit.

SEC. 8. (Penalties by ordinance.) The city council of said city shall have power to pass ordinances imposing suitable penalties for the punishment of persons committing injury upon such library, or the grounds or other property thereof, and for injury to or failure to return any book belonging to such library.

SEC. 9. (Legacies and bequests.) Any person desiring to make donations of money, personal property, or real estate for the benefit of such library shall have the right to vest the title of the money or real estate so donated in the board of directors created under this act, to be held and controlled by such board, when accepted, according to the terms of the deed, gift, devise, or bequest of such property; and as to such property the said board shall be held and considered to be special trustees.

SEC. 10. (Towns, villages, and townships—submission to popular vote.) When fifty legal voters of any incorporated town, village, or township shall present a petition to the clerk of the town, village, or township (or trustee of schools in counties not under township organization), asking that an annual tax may be levied for the establishment and maintenance of a free public library in such town or township, and shall specify in their petition a rate of taxation not to exceed two mills on the dollar, such clerk (or trustee of schools in counties not under township organization) shall in the next legal notice of the regular annual election in such town or township, give notice that at such election every elector may vote "For a —— mill tax for a free public library," or "Against a —— mill tax for a free public library," specifying in such notice the rate of taxation mentioned in said petition, and if the majority of all the votes cast in such town, village, or township shall be "For the tax for a free public library," the tax specified in such notice shall be levied and collected in like manner with other general taxes of said town or township, and shall be known as the "Library fund:" *Provided*, That such tax shall cease in case the legal voters of any such town, village, or township shall so determine by a majority of votes at any annual election held therein, and the corporate authorities of such towns or villages may exercise the same powers conferred upon the corporate authorities of cities under this act.

SEC. 11. (Election of six directors.) At the next regular election after any town, village, or township shall have voted to establish a free public library there shall be elected a library board of six directors, one-third for one year, one-third for two years, and one-third for three years, and annually thereafter there shall be elected two directors, who shall hold their office for three years and until their successors are elected and qualified; which board shall have the same powers as are by this act conferred upon the board of directors of free public libraries in cities.

SEC. 12. (Emergent.) Whereas, all the libraries of Chicago were destroyed by the recent fire in that city, and large donations of books have been made to found a free library, and whereas no suitable building or organization exists to receive or preserve them, therefore an emergency exists that this law shall take effect immediately; therefore this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved March 7, 1872. In force March 7, 1872. Statutes of Illinois; Myers, 1871-72.

INDIANA.

ARTICLE IX.—*Free libraries.*

[1883, page 103. Approved March 5, 1883, and in force June 5, 1883.]

4524. (In cities and towns.) In all the cities and incorporated towns in this State the board of school trustees, board of school commissioners, or whatever board may be established by law to take charge of the public or common schools of such city

or incorporated town, shall have power, if in their discretion they deem it to be the public interest, to establish a free public library, and for the care of the books provided therefor, and for the taking from and returning to said library of such books, as the said board may deem necessary and proper, and to provide penalties for the violation thereof: *Provided*, That in any city or incorporated town where there is already established a library open to all the people no tax shall be levied for the purpose herein named.

1. (Amendment.) As enacted in 1881, the benefits of this law were confined to cities of ten thousand inhabitants, but the amendment of this section, in force June 5, 1883, extended them to all cities and incorporated towns.

2. See sections 3782–3815, R. S. 1881, and for amendments to these sections see acts 1883, page 200; acts 1885, pages 9 and 120.

[1885, page 120. Approved and in force April 2, 1885.]

4524a. (Libraries in certain cities.) Wherever the board of directors of a library heretofore situate within the limits of any incorporated town may have filed the agreement and request with the board of trustees of said town, provided for in an act entitled "An act supplementary to an act entitled an act to establish public libraries," approved February 16, 1852, approved March 8, 1883, and the board of trustees of such town may have levied a tax for the support of such library in pursuance of such request and agreement and in accordance with said act, and such town may afterwards have become incorporated as a city, the common council of such city shall have all powers to levy tax, and do all other things granted by said act above named to trustees of towns, and all the provisions of said act applicable to such library, and its relations to the town before its incorporation as a city shall, after such incorporation, be applicable to such library, and its relations to such city.

[1881, page 47. Approved and in force March 7, 1881.]

4525. (Tax to maintain.) Such board shall also have power to levy a tax of not exceeding one-third of a mill on each dollar of taxable property assessed for taxation in such city in each year; which tax shall be placed on the tax duplicate of such city, and collected in the same manner as other taxes; and, when said taxes are collected, they shall be paid over to the said board for the support and maintenance of said public library. Such board shall have power, and it shall be its duty to disburse said fund, and all revenues derived from gift or devise, in providing and fitting up suitable rooms for such library; in the purchase, care, and binding of books therefor; and in the payment of salaries to a librarian and necessary assistants.

4526. (Real estate.) Any such city in which a free public library may be established in accordance with the terms of this act may acquire by purchase, or take and hold gift, grant, or devise, any real estate necessary for, or which may be donated or devised for, the benefit of such library, and all revenues arising therefrom, and the proceeds of the same, if sold, shall be devoted to the use of said library.

[1885, page 160. Approved and in force April 8, 1885.]

4526a. (Real estate for libraries.) In any case in which the board of school trustees of any city of this State have purchased any real estate for the use of a public library of said city, under sections 4524, 4525, and 4526 of the Revised Statutes of 1881, and the revenue derived from taxation under said sections may have been or shall be insufficient to pay for such real estate, then said trustees be and they are hereby authorized to pay for the same out of any money in the treasury of such school city belonging to the special school fund thereof.

[1891, page 37. Approved and in force February 26, 1891.]

4527. (School and library tax in cities of 30,000.) In all cities of the State of Indiana where boards of school commissioners have been elected and are managing the school affairs of said city under an act of the general assembly of the State of Indiana entitled "An act providing for a general system of common schools in all cities of thirty thousand or more inhabitants, and for the election of a board of school commissioners for such cities, and defining their duties and prescribing their powers, and providing for common-school libraries within such cities," approved March 3, 1871, and the various acts of the general assembly amendatory thereof, and supplemental thereto, and in which the office of city treasurer has been or hereafter may be abolished under and by virtue of an act of the general assembly of the State of Indiana, entitled "An act concerning taxation for city and school purposes in cities containing a population of over seventy thousand, as shown by the last census of the United States; to abolish the offices of city assessor and city treasurer in such cities, and provide for the discharge of the duties of such offices, and repealing laws

in conflict therewith, approved February 21, 1885," such boards of school commissioners be, and they are hereby, authorized and empowered, in the manner and form in which they are now by law authorized to levy taxes, levy taxes for the support of the schools within such city, including such taxes as may be required for paying teachers, in addition to the taxes now authorized to be levied by the general assembly of the State of Indiana, not to exceed, however, in any one year the sum of twenty-five cents on the one hundred dollars of the taxable property, as shown by the certificate showing the assessment and valuation for taxation of all taxable real and personal and railroad property of such city, required to be delivered to said board of school commissioners by section 8 of the said act of the general assembly of the State of Indiana, approved February 21, 1885, and also to levy a tax each year not exceeding four cents on each one hundred dollars of the taxable property in said city, as shown by said certificate, for the support of free public libraries in connection with the common schools of said city, and to disburse any and all revenues raised by such tax levied for library purposes in the purchase of books and in the fitting up of suitable rooms for such libraries, salaries to librarians, and other expenses necessarily incident to the maintenance of such library; also to make and enforce such regulations as they may deem necessary for the taking out and returning to and for the proper care of all books belonging to such libraries, and to prescribe penalties for the violations of such regulations.

4527a. (County treasurer reports to board of school commissioners.) In all cities in the State of Indiana where boards of school commissioners have been elected and are managing the school affairs of said city, under and by virtue of said act of the general assembly of the State of Indiana, approved March 3, 1871, and in which the office of city treasurer has been, or may hereafter be abolished, under and by virtue of said act of the general assembly of the State of Indiana, approved February 21, 1885, as mentioned and described in the first section of this act, it shall be the duty of the county treasurer, on and after making his settlement with the county auditor on the third Monday of April, 1891, and the payment to the board of school commissioners of the amount by such settlement found to be due to it, as required by section 13 of the last above-named act, at the close of each calendar month, to make report, duly verified by his oath, to said board of school commissioners of all taxes and delinquent taxes collected within said month, and thereafter, upon demand of the treasurer of said board of school commissioners, to pay to him, for the use of said board of school commissioners, the full amount of said taxes and delinquent taxes shown by said report to have been collected. Upon such payment being made, the treasurer of the board of school commissioners shall execute to said county treasurer his receipt for the amount of money so paid, which receipt the latter shall deliver to the secretary of the board of school commissioners, who shall give him a quietus therefor, and credit said county treasurer with the amount thereof, and charge such amount to the treasurer of said board of school commissioners.

4527d. (County treasurer's credits.) Said county treasurer shall thereafter, in his settlement with the county auditor, made as required by law on the third Monday of April and the first Monday of November in each year, present such quietuses to the county auditor, who shall give such county treasurer credit therefor as against the sums with which he is chargeable upon account of the collection of such school taxes.

NOTE.—This act has a general repealing section. The act repeals the act of 1889, page 432, on the same subject.

[1891, page 35. Approved and in force February 26, 1891.]

4527e. (Bonds for library buildings.) In all cities in the State of Indiana where boards of school commissioners have been elected and are managing the school affairs of said city under an act of the general assembly of the State of Indiana, entitled "An act providing for a general system of common schools in all cities of thirty thousand or more inhabitants, and for the election of a board of school commissioners for such cities, and defining their duties and prescribing their powers, and providing for common school libraries within such cities," approved March 3, 1871, and the various acts of the general assembly amendatory thereof and supplemental thereto, such board of school commissioners be, and they are hereby, authorized and empowered to issue bonds in any sum not exceeding one hundred thousand dollars for the purpose of erecting buildings for library and school offices to be used in connection with the common schools of said city. Such bonds to bear interest not exceeding five per cent per annum, payable after eleven years from the date thereof and within twenty years from the date thereof as follows, to wit: One-tenth thereof to be paid eleven years from date, and one-tenth thereof to be paid each succeeding year until all are paid; the money obtained from the sale of such bonds shall be disbursed by said board of school commissioners in the erection of a building for the library and school offices, to be used in connection with the common schools of said city. Such bonds shall be designated "Library building bonds," and may be issued

in such denominations, and in such sums, from time to time, as the board of school commissioners may deem expedient; and each of said bonds shall upon its face designate the date of the maturity thereof: *Provided*, That at no time shall the amount of bonds so issued for such purpose by any such board exceed the sum of one hundred thousand dollars; and that said board of school commissioners shall have no power to issue any renewal thereof, but the same shall be paid at maturity, as hereinafter provided: *And provided further*, That such bonds shall not be sold for less than their par value.

4527f. (Payment of bonds.) If the board of school commissioners in any city shall exercise the powers granted to it by this act, it shall provide for the payment of said bonds as follows: At the time of the levying of the taxes for the year, which shall be collectible immediately before the maturity of the first maturing of said bonds, said board of school commissioners shall levy, in addition to the levy of taxes they may be authorized to make for other purposes, a tax upon all property subject to taxation by it, sufficient to pay the first maturing of such bonds, and apply the money raised thereby to the payment thereof; and each year thereafter said board of school commissioners shall levy such tax, and apply the proceeds thereof to the payment of the bonds successively maturing until all have been paid.

NOTE.—This act has a general repealing section.

TOWNSHIP LIBRARIES.

[1865, page 3. Approved and in force March 6, 1865.]

4529. (Township trustee in charge.) Such library shall be in charge of the township trustee, shall be deemed the property of the township, and shall not be subject to sale or alienation from any cause whatever.

4530. (Trustee's duties.) Such trustee shall be accountable for the preservation of said library; may prescribe the time of taking and the period of retaining books; assess and recover damage done to them by any person; and adopt regulations necessary for their preservation and usefulness. He shall provide bookcases; also, blank books, ruled, in which to keep an account of books taken out and returned; and report the number each year to the county superintendent. At the commencement of each school term, at each schoolhouse in the township, he shall cause a notice to be posted up, stating where the library is kept, and inviting the free use of the books thereof by the persons of the township.

4531. (Use of books.) Every family in the township shall be entitled to the use of two volumes at a time from said library, whether any member of such family shall attend school or not.

4532. (Where kept.) The trustee may deposit the library at some central or eligible place in the township, for the convenience of scholars and families, and may appoint for that purpose a librarian to have the care and superintendence thereof.

1. (Pay of librarian.) When the township trustee employs a township librarian, he has authority to make a contract to pay him so much a year. The power to appoint a librarian gives the trustee the power to secure the acceptance of such appointment by paying a sufficient, but reasonable, compensation. There is no statute fixing a fee for such work, but the same is to be paid for out of the township's general fund for ordinary township purposes. (Baldwin, attorney-general.)

4533. (When open.) The library shall be open to all persons entitled to its privileges throughout the year without regard to school sessions, Sundays and holidays excepted.

[1885, page 9. Approved and in force February 18, 1885.]

4533a. (Tax levy for library.) Any township in which there has been or may hereafter be established by private donations a library of the value of one thousand dollars or more for the use and benefit of all the inhabitants thereof, the township trustee of such township shall annually levy and collect not more than one cent on the hundred dollars upon the taxable property within the limits of such township, which shall be paid to the trustees of such library, and be applied by them to the purchase of books for said library, and may, with the consent of the board of commissioners of the county, when it shall become necessary to erect or enlarge a library building, annually, for such period as may be necessary, levy and collect not more than five cents on the one hundred dollars upon the taxable property of said township for not more than three years successively, which shall be expended by the trustees in the erection or enlargement of a library building.

1. When the Young People's Reading Circle books shall, collectively, even though they may be distributed to the several district schools in the township, amount to one thousand dollars in value, I think the trustee of such township would be warranted by the above statute in levying a tax of one cent on the one hundred dollars of taxables for the support and addition to such library. (H. D. Vories, superintendent of public instruction.)

2. If the people of the several districts, or the pupils of the several schools, should appoint trustees, in some uniform way, as they may choose, I think the intent of the above section would be fully complied with. (H. D. Vories, superintendent of public instruction.)

[1895, page 240. Approved March 11, 1895. In force ————, 1895.]

4533b. (Tax levy for large library.) In any township in which there has been or may hereafter be established by private donations a library of the value of twenty-five thousand dollars or more, including the real estate and buildings used for said library, for the use and benefit of all the inhabitants thereof, the township trustee of such township shall annually levy and collect not more than six cents on the hundred dollars on the taxable property within the limits of such township, which shall be paid to the trustees of such library and be applied by them to the purchase of books for said library and to the cost of the maintenance thereof, and said trustee may, with the consent of the board of commissioners of the county, when it shall become necessary to purchase additional ground for the extension or protection of library buildings already established by such private donation, annually levy and collect not more than five cents on the hundred dollars upon all taxable property of said township for not more than three years successively, which shall be expended by said trustees in the purchase of said property and the erection and enlargement of the library building thereon. (School Laws of Indiana, 1895, pp. 184–190.)

IOWA.

The establishment and maintenance of a free public library is hereby declared to be a proper and legitimate object of municipal expenditure; and the council or trustees of any city or incorporated town may assess, levy, and tax appropriate money for the formation and maintenance of such a library, open to the free use of all its inhabitants under proper regulations, and for the purchase of land and erection of buildings, or for the hiring of buildings or rooms suitable for that purpose, and for the compensation of the necessary employees: *Provided*, That the amount assessed, levied, and taxed in any one year for the maintenance of such a library shall not exceed one mill upon the dollar upon the assessed valuation of such city or town. Any such city or incorporated town may receive, hold, or dispose of any and all gifts, donations, devises, and bequests that may be made to such city or incorporated town for the purpose of establishing, increasing, or improving any such public library, and the city or town council thereof may apply the use, profits, proceeds, interests, and rents accruing therefrom in such manner as will best promote the prosperity and utility of such library. Every city or incorporated town in which such a public library shall be maintained shall be entitled to receive a copy of the laws, journals, and all other works published by authority of the State after the establishment of such library for the use of such library, and the Secretary of State is hereby authorized and required to furnish the same from year to year to such city or incorporated town. But no appropriation of money can be made under this section, unless the proposition is submitted to a vote of the people; and at the municipal election of such city or town the question, "Shall the city (or town council, as the case may be) accept the benefit of the provisions of this section?"

[Chapter 18, acts twenty-second general assembly.]

That all cities of the first class, organized as such since January 1, 1885, that have accepted the benefits of the provisions of section 461 of the Code of Iowa, shall, in addition to the powers conferred by said section, have power to levy and collect a tax not to exceed three mills on the dollar of the assessed valuation of such city or town to pay the interest on any indebtedness heretofore contracted, or that may hereafter be contracted or incurred, for the purchase of land and the erection of buildings for a public library, or the hiring of rooms or buildings for such purposes, or for the compensations of the necessary employees, as provided in section 461 of the code, and to create a sinking fund for the extinguishment of such indebtedness.

[Chapter 41, acts twenty-fifth general assembly.]

There shall be established and created in any city or incorporated town that has heretofore accepted or may hereafter accept the benefits of the provisions of section 461 of the Code of Iowa, a board of library trustees, consisting of nine members, to be appointed by the mayor by and with the approval of the council.

Said trustees first appointed shall hold office, viz: One-third for two years, one-third for four years, and one-third for six years from the first day of July following their appointment, and at their first meeting shall cast lots for the respective terms, reporting the result of such lot to the council; and biennially thereafter, before the first day of July, the mayor shall appoint, by and with the approval of the council,

three trustees to succeed the trustees retiring on the following first day of July, and who shall hold office for six years from such first day of July. Trustees shall hold until their successors are appointed and qualified.

Vacancies occurring in the board shall be filled by appointment by the mayor in like manner, such appointee to fill out the unexpired term for which the appointment is made. Bona fide citizens and residents of the city or incorporated town (male or female) over the age of twenty-one years are alone eligible to membership.

The removal of any trustee permanently from the city shall render his office as trustee vacant.

Members of said board shall receive no compensation for their services.

Said board of library trustees shall have and exercise the following powers: To meet and organize by the election of one of their number as president of the board, and by the election of a secretary and such other officers as the board may deem necessary; to have charge, control, and supervision of the public library, its appurtenances and fixtures and rooms containing the same, directing and controlling all the affairs of such library; to employ a librarian and such assistants and employees as may be necessary for the proper management of said library, and fix their compensation, but prior to such employment the compensation of such librarian and assistants shall be fixed for the term of employment by a majority of the members of said board voting in favor thereof; to remove such librarian, assistants, or employees by a vote of two-thirds of such board for misdemeanor, incompetency, or inattention to the duties of such employment; to select and make purchases of books, pamphlets, magazines, periodicals, papers, maps, journals, furniture, fixtures, stationery, and supplies for such library; to make and adopt, amend, modify, or repeal by-laws, rules, and regulations not inconsistent with law, for the care, use, government, and management of such library and the business of said board, fixing and enforcing penalties for the violation thereof; to have exclusive control of the expenditures of all taxes levied under section 461 of the Code of Iowa and collected for, and all moneys belonging to the library fund; also to perform and exercise such other duties and powers as may be conferred by this act or by law. Said board shall keep a record of its proceedings.

All moneys received or set apart for the maintenance of such library shall be deposited in the treasury to the credit of the library fund, and shall be kept by the treasurer separate and apart from other moneys of such city or incorporated town and paid out upon the orders of the board of library trustees, signed by its president and secretary, and countersigned by the mayor.

The board of library trustees shall, before the first day of August in each year, 461 determine and fix the amount or rate to be appropriated for one year under section of the Code of Iowa for the maintenance of such library, and cause the same so fixed to be certified to the council, and the council shall make such appropriation and levy the necessary tax for such year to raise said sum and certify the percentage or rate, not exceeding one mill on the dollar, of such tax to the county auditor, with other taxes levied by the city or incorporated town for said year under section 495 of the Code of Iowa: *Provided*, That in cities of the first class the city council may and shall levy and certify such further sum of tax as it may deem expedient to create a sinking fund and pay interest under the provisions of chapter 18, acts of the twenty-second general assembly, and acts amendatory thereof.

The board of library trustees shall also each year make to the council a report for the year ending June 30, containing a statement of the condition of the library, the number of books added thereto, the number of books circulated, the number of books not returned or lost, the amount of fines collected, and the amount of money expended in the maintenance of the library during such year, together with such further information as the board may deem important.

[Chapter 42, acts twenty-fifth general assembly.]

That where in any city of the first class incorporated under the general incorporation laws of the State, whose population according to the census of 1875 was not less than nineteen thousand, the city council of such city has heretofore levied a tax known as or called a "library tax" upon the taxable property of such city, the levy and the assessment and collection of such tax shall be and are hereby declared to be legal and valid, in all respects the same as though such tax had been fully authorized by law.

That where any of such taxes now remain uncollected, the treasurer of the county in which such city is situated is hereby authorized to collect the same as other taxes are collected. (Code of Iowa, sec. 461.)

LOUISIANA.

There shall be established a public library of the State of Louisiana, which shall be placed in the State House.

SECTION 1392. It shall be the duty of the secretary of state annually to employ a competent librarian at an annual salary of nine hundred dollars, and an assistant librarian at an annual salary of six hundred dollars, and both librarian and assistant librarian shall be required to enter into good and solvent bond in the sum of five hundred dollars with the governor of the State for the faithful performance of their respective duties.

SEC. 1393. Before the librarian shall take possession of the State library an inventory shall be taken of the books and papers, clearly setting forth all the printed books and the manuscripts which shall be placed under the care and custody of the librarian. The inventory shall be taken under the inspection of the secretary of state and State treasurer.

SEC. 1394. Two copies of said inventory shall be made, both certified to be correct by the signatures of the secretary of state, the librarian, and the State treasurer. One of said copies shall be deposited in the office of the secretary of state and the librarian shall retain the other.

SEC. 1395. All books, statutes, manuscripts, plans, maps, papers, and documents of every description belonging to the State shall be placed under the charge and responsibility of the said librarian.

SEC. 1396. In addition to the inventory required to be made, it shall be the duty of the librarian immediately after his appointment to make two exact catalogues, so as to class separately the books and documents which are to be preserved from those which are to be distributed or for sale.

SEC. 1397. The secretary of state shall establish such rules, regulations, and restrictions not inconsistent with law in relation to the library as he may deem proper, and from time to time alter and amend the same.

SEC. 1398. It shall be the duty of the librarian to attend every day, Sundays and legal holidays not excepted, and to see that the library confided to his care shall suffer no injury, and in case of neglect or inattention to his duties, the secretary of state shall forthwith remove him.

SEC. 1399. The librarian shall keep the library open daily from 8 o'clock a. m. to 9 o'clock p. m., Sundays and legal holidays not excepted.

SEC. 1400. The librarian, on retiring from office, shall be bound to account for all the books and papers which may have been mentioned in the inventory and such as he may have received since; and in case the books can not be accounted for or procured, he shall pay such sum, not exceeding the amount of the bond, as by the secretary and treasurer of state shall be deemed a sufficient compensation for the loss of such books.

SEC. 1401. Every citizen of the State shall have free access to the library, provided no book be taken out of the same, except when for the use of either branch of the legislature.

SEC. 1402. The State librarian is authorized, under the direction of the secretary of state, to exchange with the several States of the Union, or with any foreign Government, scientific institute, or person, any books of this State, such as reports of the supreme court, codes, digests, statutes, etc., for other books.

SEC. 1403. All the books of the State, those for distribution among the courts and parishes and public officers, as well as those remaining permanently in the State library, shall be placed under the control of the secretary of state, who shall direct and see that this duty is performed by the State librarian.

SEC. 1404. All books distributed to State and other officers, except to members of the legislature, shall be and remain the property of the State of Louisiana, and such books shall be for the use of the office, and shall be, by the officer receiving them, delivered over to his successor in office, except in case of the removal or resignation of such officer, he shall deliver such books forthwith to the clerk of the district court in the parish in which his said office is located, taking a receipt therefor from such successor or clerk, which said receipt or a copy thereof, duly certified by such clerk, shall be filed in the office of secretary of state by such clerk or successor so receiving the same. It shall be proper for the secretary of state to cause to be delivered all books authorized to be delivered to parish, city, or town officers to the clerk of court in and for the parish in which said offices are located, to be by such clerk delivered to such officers, and such clerk shall take a receipt for all books so delivered from the officer receiving the same, and file a certified copy thereof in the office of the secretary of state. Any person neglecting or refusing to deliver such books to his successor in office or to the clerk of the district court, as hereinbefore provided, after demand thereof made, shall be subject to a fine of fifteen dollars for each and every book so withheld, to be recovered before any justice of the peace, with costs of suit, at the complaint of such successor, or clerk, or the district attorney, to be prosecuted, on request, by the district attorney.

SEC. 1405. The secretary of state shall cause to be marked in a proper manner upon the outer cover of each book distributed the name of the State of Louisiana and for what use such book is intended. The secretary of state shall keep a

record of all books so distributed, and he shall take a receipt therefor from the person to whom the same are delivered. He shall furnish to each person hereafter elected or appointed to any office entitling such person to the receipt of any book or books within a reasonable time after the election or appointment of such person to such office a certified list, under the seal of State, of all books to which such person is entitled.

SEC. 1406. The secretary of state shall transmit free of postage to the Library of Congress, to the Smithsonian Institute, and to the governor of each State and Territory of the United States a copy of such acts, journals, documents, Revised Statutes, and such reports of the decisions of the supreme court as may be necessary to complete their sets of the same, accompanied with a request of a similar favor and like return to be made to the governor of this State of the laws, documents, and reports of the United States and of the respective States and Territories.

SEC. 1407. The remainder of said books not so distributed as aforesaid shall be deposited in the State library, five copies of which shall not be permitted to be taken from the library, the remaining copies only for the use of the members of the legislature and State officers on their receipt therefor duly given; and in such case they shall not be removed from the State buildings, but shall be returned to the library at the close of the session of the then legislature, or within one week from the date of such removal. (Revised Statutes, 1886.)

MAINE.

AN ACT to amend chapter fifty-five of the Revised Statutes relating to free public libraries.

SECTION 1. Section nine of chapter fifty-five of the Revised Statutes is amended by striking out all of said section and inserting the following:

"SECTION 9. Any town may establish a free public library therein for the use of its inhabitants and provide suitable rooms therefor, under such regulation for its government as the inhabitants from time to time prescribe, and may appropriate for the foundation and commencement of such library a sum not exceeding two dollars, and for its maintenance and increase annually a sum not exceeding one dollar, for each of its ratable polls in the year next preceding."

SEC. 2. The municipal officers in any town or city where a free public library is established shall annually, on the first day of May, certify to the State treasurer the amount of money appropriated and expended by said town or city during the preceding year for the purchase of books and documents for the use and benefit of such free public library; and the State treasurer thereupon shall pay to said town from the State treasury for the purchase of books for the use of such library a sum equal to ten per cent of the amount so expended by said town as certified by its municipal officers.

SEC. 3. Any town or city in which there is a library owned or controlled by a corporation or association may appropriate a sum not exceeding five hundred dollars yearly to procure from such library the free use of its books for all the inhabitants of the town or city under such restrictions and regulations as shall insure the safety and good usage of the books, and such library may then be considered a free public library, and said town or city shall be entitled to the benefits of the preceding section, provided that any books and documents donated by the State shall be and remain the property of said municipality.

SEC. 4. In every town and city where a free public library exists, the State librarian shall transmit to such library all laws, Maine reports, and other documents which the town or city is by law entitled to receive from the State, and the same shall be constantly kept in such library for the use and benefit of all the citizens; and the municipal officers of said town or city shall transfer to said library all the laws, Maine reports, and other documents heretofore received from the State and now in custody of any of the officers of said town or city; and the officers of said library, on or before the first day of April of each year, shall send to the State librarian a report containing a list of all books and documents purchased with the State stipend for the preceding year, and of all books and documents received from the State in said library.

SEC. 5. The State librarian is hereby authorized and directed to donate from the Maine State library to any town of less than fifteen hundred inhabitants, and having no free public library owned and controlled by the town, books purchased for that purpose not exceeding fifty per cent in value the books and documents purchased by said town for the purpose of founding a free public library therein, said donation in no case to exceed one hundred dollars.

SEC. 6. No town shall be entitled to the benefits of this provision until its legal voters, at a regularly called town meeting, have raised and appropriated not less than one hundred dollars for the purchase of books, and have provided for the care, custody, and distribution of its own books and of those to be donated by the State.

SEC. 7. The librarian or trustees of any free public library may ask the governor

and council for advice in regard to the selection of books, and may receive instruction at the State library in cataloguing, and any other matters pertaining to the maintenance or administration of the library.

Approved, March 21, 1893. (Revised Statutes, chapter 242.)

MARYLAND.

The Maryland Code, article 77, section 87, provides as follows: "For the further encouragement of education, district school libraries ought to be established in each schoolhouse district, under the care of the teacher as librarian. For this purpose the sum of ten dollars per annum is ordered to be paid by the board of county school commissioners, out of the State school fund, to any schoolhouse district as library money as long as the people of the district raise the same amount annually. The books must be selected by the board of district school trustees."

To aid in the execution of this law, the State board of education resolved some months since to publish a list of books suitable for school libraries, and requested the undersigned to prepare a list to be submitted to the board. The several members of the board furnished valuable lists, and from these, and by aid of the catalogues of the principal publishers of the country, and of published lists for public school libraries, prepared by the State superintendents of public instruction of several of the States, who kindly furnished us the results of their labor, this list has been compiled.

It is arranged under three general heads, viz: (1) Books suitable for primary grades; (2) books suitable for grammar school grades, and (3) books suitable for high school grades.

Under the first head the subdivisions are fiction and miscellaneous; under the second and third, history, biography, travels, science and natural history, fiction, poetry, and miscellaneous. A list of reference books and one of professional books for teachers are added.

We have endeavored to exclude all sectarian and partisan books.

The books for primary grades have been selected with special care, and we hope will be found to be especially interesting and instructive. We have aimed to include the works of only the best writers of each class of books.

The list gives the retail price of each book. Baltimore booksellers have agreed to furnish the books on the list to public school libraries at a discount of from 10 to 33⅓ per cent. We respectfully recommend you to deal with them. Some publishers allow a larger discount to dealers than others, and we consider the above offer fair and liberal. You can select a list of books and send it to your bookseller for net prices before purchasing.

It is recommended that libraries be kept in substantial bookcases, and that books be covered with stout paper before they are used.

This list will be furnished to district schools having libraries or proposing to purchase libraries, through the school examiner or directly from this office, upon application, inclosing 4 cents in postage stamps.—E. B. PRETTYMAN, *State superintendent of public instruction.* (School laws, 1893.)

MASSACHUSETTS.

LIBRARY LEGISLATION.

1798.

AN ACT to enable the proprietors of social libraries to manage the same.

[Chapter 45, Laws of 1798, repealed by the act of March 8, 1806.]

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same,* That any seven or more persons capable of contracting, in any towns or districts in this Commonwealth, who have or shall become proprietors in common of any library, may form themselves into a society or body politic for the express purposes of holding, increasing, preserving, and using such library, and to that end any five or more of them may apply in writing by them signed, to any justice of the peace within the county wherein the same town or district may be, stating the purposes of their meeting, and requesting him to issue his warrant for calling a meeting of the said proprietors, which justice may grant his warrant to some one of them, directing him to call a meeting of the said proprietors at the time and place and for the purposes in such warrant expressed; which proprietors shall notify such meeting by posting up the substance of said warrant in some public place in the said town or district where the said library shall be kept seven days at least before the time of said meeting.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted,* That any seven or more of the proprietors of such library, met in pursuance of such notice, shall have power to choose a moderator,

clerk, librarian, collector, treasurer, and other necessary officers and committees; which clerk shall be sworn to the faithful and impartial performance of his duties; and the said proprietors, when so incorporated, shall have power to raise such moneys by assessments on the several shares in such library as they may judge necessary for preserving and increasing the same, and for the management [of] the affairs of the corporation, to make by-laws for the due regulation of its concerns, not repugnant to the constitution and laws of this Commonwealth, and to annex and recover penalties for any breach of such by-laws, not exceeding three dollars for any one breach thereof.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted*, That the proprietors of any such library, so incorporated, shall be called and known by the name of the Proprietors of the Social Library in the town of ———, and by that name shall sue and be sued, prosecute and defend, plead and be impleaded in all actions and processes in law, and when there shall be more than one such library in any town or district the proprietors thereof shall be known and called by the name of "The Proprietors of the Second, Third, Fourth, etc. (as the case may be) Social Library in the town of ———."

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That when any such meeting shall be dissolved the proprietors may again incorporate themselves and proceed in all respects as aforesaid; and in any meetings of such proprietors there shall be allowed one vote for each share. And the proprietors of any such library shall have power to hold, to them, their successors and assigns, real or personal estate to the amount of five hundred dollars over and above the value of their books, and shall have power at any regular meeting to fix the mode and manner of calling future meetings. [Passed March 3, 1798.]

1806.

AN ACT to enable the proprietors of social libraries to manage the same.

[Passed March 8, 1806; repealed by chapter 146 of the Revised Statutes.]

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same*, That any seven or more persons, capable of contracting, in any town or district in this Commonwealth, who shall become proprietors in common of any library, may form themselves into a society or body politic for the express purposes of holding, increasing, preserving, and using such library; and to that end any five or more of them may by an application in writing, by them signed, to any justice of the peace within the same county wherein the said town or district may be, stating the purposes of their meeting, and requesting him to issue his warrant for calling a meeting of the said proprietors; and the said justice may grant his warrant to one of them, directing him to call a meeting of the said proprietors, at the time and place, and for the purposes expressed in such warrant; and said meeting shall be called by posting up the purport of said warrant in some public place in the said town or district where the said library shall be kept seven days at least before the time of said meeting; and the proprietors being thus met and organized, they may then agree and determine upon a method of calling future meetings; and in all cases votes shall be determined by counting and allowing one vote to each share; and the proprietors of any such library shall have power to possess and hold, to them, their successors and assigns, real or personal estate to any amount not exceeding five thousand dollars over and above the value of other books.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted*, That any seven or more of the proprietors of such library, met in pursuance of such notice, shall have power to choose a moderator, clerk, librarian, collector, treasurer, and such other officers as they may find necessary; and the clerk shall be sworn to the faithful performance of his duties; and the treasurer shall give bond, with sufficient surety or sureties, faithfully to account for all moneys he may receive by virtue of this act. And the said proprietors, when so incorporated and organized, shall have power to raise moneys by assessments on the several shares in such library, as they may judge necessary for preserving and increasing the same; to make by-laws for the due regulation of the concerns of the said corporation not repugnant to the constitution and laws of this Commonwealth, and to annex and recover penalties for any breach of such by-laws not exceeding three dollars for any one breach thereof.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted*, That the proprietors of any such library, so incorporated, shall be called and known by the name of the Proprietors of the Social Library in the town of ———, and by that name shall sue and be sued, prosecute and defend, plead and be impleaded in all actions and processes in law; and when there shall be more than one such library in any town or district the proprietors thereof shall be known and called by the name of the Proprietors of the Second, Third, Fourth, etc. (as the case may be), Social Library in the town of ———.

SEC. 4. *Be it further enacted*, That an act passed the third day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and ninety-eight, entitled "An act to

enable the proprietors of social libraries to manage the same," be, and hereby is, repealed: *Provided, nevertheless,* That with regard to all suits and causes of suits, and all rights existing under and by force of said act, it shall be considered as in full force.

1815.

AN ACT authorizing the establishment of law libraries.

[Chapter 177, laws of 1815.]

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same,* That in every county within this Commonwealth wherein there shall reside five or more attorneys at law regularly admitted and sworn to practice before the circuit court of common pleas it shall be lawful for any five or more of them to make application in writing to any justice of the peace within and for said county, requesting him to issue his warrant for calling a meeting of the practitioners at law within the same county to meet at some certain time and place for the purpose of organizing the establishment of a law library; and such justice shall thereupon issue a warrant under his hand and seal, directed to some practitioner at law residing within the shire town of said county, requiring him to notify the other members of the bar residing therein, either personally or by written notification posted up at some conspicuous place in the court-house in said county, at least seven days before the time of meeting as mentioned in said warrant, which meeting shall be holden at the next succeeding term of the circuit court of common pleas in said county, on some day subsequent to the second day from the commencement of its session; and the person to whom such warrant is directed shall serve the same in manner as aforesaid, and make return thereof under his hand to the justice who issued the same, or to some other justice of the peace within and for said county, whose duty it shall be to preside at said meeting in the choice of a clerk, a treasurer, and librarian, each of whom shall thereupon be sworn by the presiding officer, to the faithful discharge of their respective duties, and to hold their offices during the pleasure of the association; and the said members of the bar so notified and met, to the number of five or more, shall at their first meeting prescribe the mode of calling future meetings of said association and establish such rules and regulations as may be found necessary from time to time to carry the purposes of this act into effect not repugnant to the constitution and laws of this Commonwealth; and at all future meetings the oldest member of the bar residing within said county, who is present, shall preside.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted,* That the sum of twenty dollars, which by law is now paid into the county treasury on the admission of all practitioners at the bar of the circuit court of common pleas, shall hereafter be paid to the treasurer of every law library association in any county in this Commonwealth that shall be formed in pursuance of this act, which treasurer shall give his receipt therefor to the person paying the same, which sum so paid, as duty or excise as aforesaid, together with all bequests and donations made thereto, shall be applied, under the direction of said association, to form a law library for the use of said county, under such reasonable regulations as the said association may appoint. And the clerk of said association shall keep an exact record of all the proceedings thereof, and the said treasurer shall keep an exact account of all moneys, donations, and bequests belonging to said association, which account he shall be holden annually to settle under oath with the association, in such manner as they shall prescribe; and the librarian, as well as the treasurer and clerk, shall be answerable in an action on the case for all malfeasance or misfeasance in their respective offices to the association aforesaid, by the name of "The Law Library Association," for the county within which it is formed: *Provided, however,* That the law library aforesaid shall be kept in a shire town within the county.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted,* That the act passed on the twenty-seventh day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and ninety-six, so far as it relates to the payment of twenty dollars into the county treasury by persons admitted to practice law before the circuit courts of common pleas, as it relates to the counties in this Commonwealth in which law library associations are, or shall be, formed in pursuance of this act, and as to the receipt to be given by the county treasurer therefor, be, and the same is hereby, repealed. [Approved by the governor, March 2, 1815.]

1823.

AN ACT respecting law libraries.

[Chapter 51, laws of 1823.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the excise paid by attorneys on their admission to the supreme judicial court shall hereafter be paid and appropriated in the same

way and manner as the excise now paid by attorneys on their admission to the court of common pleas is paid and appropriated, any law to the contrary notwithstanding. [Approved by the governor, January 30, 1823.]

1825.

AN ACT in addition to an act entitled "An act in addition to an act entitled 'An act to enable the proprietors of social libraries to manage the same.'"

[Chapter 65, laws of 1825; repealed by chapter 146 of the Revised Statutes.]

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same,* That any seven settled and ordained ministers of the gospel within this Commonwealth who shall become proprietors in common of any theological library, may form themselves into a society or body politic, by the name of the "Theological Society in the Town of ———," for the express purpose of holding, increasing, preserving, and using such library; and shall have all the powers and privileges and be subject to all the duties and requirements contained in an act passed the eighth day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and six, entitled "An act to enable the proprietors of social libraries to manage the same;" and to this end any five of them may make application to any justice of the peace within the county in which the library is to be kept, stating the purposes of their meeting and requesting him to call a meeting of said proprietors; and the said justice may thereupon grant his warrant to any one of them, directing him to call such meeting accordingly; and said meeting shall be called by posting up the purport of said warrant in such public places in said county as said justice shall order; and the proprietors, thus met and organized, may then agree upon the method of calling future meetings. [Approved by lieutenant-governor, February 12, 1825.]

1829.

AN ACT in further addition to an act entitled "An act to enable proprietors of social libraries to manage the same.

[Chapter 138, laws of 1829.]

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same,* That any twenty or more persons in any town or county within this Commonwealth who shall, by writing, associate themselves for the purpose of mutual improvement and for raising the standard of common education, may become a body politic, by the name of "The Lyceum of the Town of ———," or "the County of ———" (as the case may be), by observing and pursuing the provisions of the act to which this is in addition in regard to forming proprietors of libraries into bodies politic, and being so formed shall be entitled to all the powers and capabilities to which the proprietors of said libraries are entitled by that act; and such lyceum shall have the further power to possess and hold to them, their successors, and assigns, real and personal estate not exceeding ten thousand dollars.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted,* That this act may be altered or repealed at the pleasure of the legislature. [Approved by the governor, March 4, 1829.]

1836.

SOCIAL LIBRARIES.

[Revised Statutes, 1836, chapter 41.]

SECTION 1. Any seven or more proprietors of a library may form themselves into a corporation, under such corporate name as they shall adopt, for the purpose of preserving, enlarging, and using such library; and for that purpose any justice of the peace may, on the application of five or more of such proprietors, issue his warrant to one of them, directing him to call a meeting of the proprietors at the time and place and for the purposes, expressed in the warrant; and said meeting shall be called by posting up the substance of the warrant in some public place in the town where the said library is kept, seven days at least before the time of meeting.

SEC. 2. Any seven or more of the proprietors of such library, met in pursuance of such notice, may choose a president, a clerk, who shall be sworn to the faithful discharge of his duty; a librarian, collector, treasurer, and such other officers as they may find necessary; and they may also determine upon the mode of calling future meetings.

SEC. 3. When such proprietors shall be organized as a corporation, in the manner before provided, they shall have all the powers and privileges and be subject to all the duties and liabilities of a corporation organized according to the provisions of the forty-fourth chapter, so far as the said provisions shall be applicable in such case and not inconsistent with this chapter.

SEC. 4. The treasurer shall give bond, with sufficient sureties, to the satisfaction of the proprietors, for the faithful discharge of his duties.

SEC. 5. The said proprietors may raise such money, by assessments on the several shares, as they shall judge necessary for the purposes of preserving, enlarging, and using the library; and the shares may be transferred according to the provisions of the forty-fourth chapter.

SEC. 6. The said proprietors may hold real and personal estate to any amount not exceeding five thousand dollars, in addition to the value of their books.

1837.

AN ACT authorizing school districts to establish libraries for the use of common schools.

[Chapter 147, acts of 1837; repealed by chapter 81, acts of 1849.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

SECTION 1. Each legally constituted school district in this Commonwealth is hereby athorized to raise money for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a common-school library and apparatus for the use of the children therein, under such rules and regulations as said district may adopt: *Provided,* That no greater sum than thirty dollars the first year, or ten dollars in any subsequent year, shall be expended for the purpose aforesaid.

SEC. 2. Any sum of money raised by virtue of this act at a meeting called for the purpose, shall be assessed, collected, and paid over as other school district taxes are. [Approved by the governor, April 12, 1837.]

1842.

AN ACT in relation to law library associations.

[Chapter 94, acts of 1842.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

SECTION 1. The counsellors and attorneys at law, duly admitted to practice in the courts of this Commonwealth, resident in the several counties thereof except Suffolk, are hereby constituted corporations within their respective counties, for the purpose of holding and managing the law libraries belonging to said counties, by the name of the Law Library Association for the county in which it is formed, and may adopt by-laws for that purpose: *Provided,* the same shall be approved by the justices of the court of common pleas; and the officers of such associations shall be a clerk, treasurer, and librarian, whose duties shall be defined by the by-laws, which shall be adopted and approved as aforesaid.

SEC. 2. The clerks of the several courts shall, within sixty days after this law shall take effect, call and notify the first meeting of the corporations in their respective counties, by posting up notifications thereof in some conspicuous place in the court-house of such county, to be held during the term of the court of common pleas, which shall be held next after ten days from the time of posting up such notification, at which meetings said clerks shall preside until a clerk of such association shall be chosen: *Provided,* That any inhabitant of the county shall have the right to use the books in said library, subject to such regulations as shall be prescribed by the associations, with the approval of the court of common pleas.

SEC. 3. This act may be altered, amended, or repealed by any future legislature of this Commonwealth. [Approved by the governor, March 3, 1842.]

RESOLVE concerning school district libraries.

[Resolves of 1842, chapter 74; amended by chapter 63, resolves of 1844; repealed by chapter 99, resolves of 1850.]

Resolved, That the sum of fifteen dollars, to be taken from the school funds, be, and the same is hereby, appropriated to every school district in the Commonwealth, to be expended in books for a school district library; and that the treasurer pay said sum for said purpose to the order of the mayor of every city and the selectmen of every town, for each and every school district within the same which shall have produced evidence of having raised and appropriated fifteen dollars or more for the same object. [Approved by the governor, March 3, 1842.]

1843.

RESOLVES in addition to a resolve concerning school district libraries.

[Resolves of 1843, chapter 6; amended by chapter 63 of the resolves of 1844.]

Resolved, That the provisions of the resolve of March third, eighteen hundred and forty-two, concerning school district libraries be, and the same is hereby, extended to every city and town in the Commonwealth, not heretofore divided into school districts, in such manner as to give as many times fifteen dollars to every such city or town as the number sixty is contained, exclusive of fractions, in the number of children between the ages of four and sixteen years in said city or town: *Provided*, evidence be produced to the taeasurer, in behalf of said city or town, of its having raised and appropriated, for the establishment of libraries, a sum equal to that which, by the provision of this resolve, it is entitled to receive from the school fund.

Resolved, That the treasurer be instructed, under the advice and direction of the governor and council, to make sales from time to time of notes of hand, bank stock, and other securities belonging to the school fund, to such amount as shall enable him to comply with the provisions of the above resolve, and with those of the resolve of March third, eighteen hundred and forty-two, concerning school district libraries. [Approved by the governor, March 7, 1843.]

1844.

AN ACT in addition to "An act in relation to law library associations."

[Chapter 157, acts of 1844.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by authority of the same:

SECTION 1. The counsellors and attorneys at law, duly admitted to practice in the courts of this Commonwealth, resident in either of the counties, who have omitted to organize a law library association in their respective counties, within the time and pursuant to the provisions of the act to which this is in addition, are hereby authorized to organize themselves in their counties respectively, into an association by the name of the Law Library Association for such county, under the like provisions, and with the same rights, powers, and duties, as if the said association had been organized within the time prescribed by the act to which this is in addition, passed the third day of March, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-two; and said association, when so organized, shall be deemed and taken to be a corporation, and entitled to all the privileges and subject to all the provisions applicable to law library associations, created under and pursuant to the act aforesaid; *Provided, however*, This act shall have no effect upon any association which shall not become organized within ninety days from the passing thereof.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect from and after its passage. [Approved by the governor, March 16, 1844.]

RESOLVE concerning school libraries.

[Chapter 63, resolves of 1844.]

Resolved, That the provisions of the resolve of March third, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-two, and the resolve of March the seventh, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-three be, and the same are hereby, extended to every school district of every town in the Commonwealth. [Approved by the governor, March 11, 1844.]

1845.

RESOLVES in addition to the resolves concerning school district libraries.

[Chapter 113, resolves of 1845.]

Resolved, That the provisions of the resolve of March third, one thousand eight hundred and forty-two, be extended to the Latin school, English high school, and grammar and writing schools of the city of Boston, in such manner as to give as many times fifteen dollars towards a purchase of a library or libraries for said schools as the number sixty is contained, exclusive of fractions, in the number of children belonging to said schools between the ages of seven and sixteen years, said number to be estimated by the mayor of said city, provided the said mayor shall certify to the treasurer of the Commonwealth that an equal sum of money has been raised and appropriated subsequent to the first day of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-five, for the same purpose.

Resolved, That the apportionment or distribution of the books purchased as above provided for shall be determined by the school committee of the city of Boston.

Resolved, That these resolves shall take effect from and after their passage. [Approved by the governor, March 25, 1845.]

1849.

AN ACT relating to school libraries and school apparatus.

[Chapter 81, acts of 1849.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

SECTION 1. The inhabitants of any school district, in any city or town, and of any city or town not divided into school districts, in this Commonwealth, may, at any meeting called for that purpose, raise money for the purchase of libraries and necessary school apparatus, in the same manner as school districts may now raise money for erecting and repairing schoolhouses in their respective districts.

SEC. 2. The one hundred and forty-seventh chapter of the statutes, passed in the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven, is hereby repealed. [Approved by the governor, April 5, 1849.]

1850.

REPEAL OF STATE APPROPRIATION FOR SCHOOL DISTRICT LIBRARIES.

[Chapter 99, resolves of 1850.]

Resolved, So much of the resolve of the third of March, eighteen hundred and forty-two, as appropriated to every school district in the Commonwealth fifteen dollars, "to be expended for books for a school district library," is hereby repealed. This resolve was to take effect August 1, 1850. [Approved by the governor, May 2, 1850.]

1851.

AN ACT to authorize cities and towns to establish and maintain public libraries.

[Chapter 305, acts of 1851; amended by chapter 25, acts of 1859.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

SECTION 1. Any city or town of this Commonwealth is hereby authorized to establish and maintain a public library within the same, with or without branches, for the use of the inhabitants thereof, and to provide suitable rooms therefor, under such regulations for the government of such library as may, from time to time, be prescribed by the city council of such city, or the inhabitants of such town.

SEC. 2. Any city or town may appropriate for the foundation and commencement of such library, as aforesaid, a sum not exceeding one dollar for each of its ratable polls, in the year next preceding that in which such appropriations shall be made; and may also appropriate, annually, for the maintenance and increase of such library, a sum not exceeding twenty-five cents for each of its ratable polls, in the year next preceding that in which such appropriations shall be made.

SEC. 3. Any city or town may receive, in its corporate capacity, and hold and manage any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment, increase, or maintenance of a public library within the same. [Approved by the governor, May 24, 1851.]

1856.

AN ACT in further addition to an act in relation to law library associations.

[Acts of 1856, chapter 71.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

SECTION 1. The county commissioners of the several counties are hereby authorized to pay and disburse, from the treasuries of their respective counties, to the treasurers of the law library associations now existing, or that may hereafter be duly organized therein, such a sum or sums as they may deem necessary and proper, for maintaining and enlarging the public law libraries for the use of the courts and citizens of the several counties; such sum not to exceed the amount paid into the treasury of any county by the clerks of the courts.

SEC. 2. The treasurer of any such law library association, before receiving said moneys, shall give a bond, with sureties, to the satisfaction of the commissioners, for the faithful application of the same, and that he will make a return annually to them, under oath, of the manner in which all such applications are made. [Approved by the governor, March 28, 1856.]

AN ACT in addition to an act in relation to law library associations.

[Acts of 1856, chapter 184.]

Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives, in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

The counsellors and attorneys at law duly admitted to practice in the courts of this Commonwealth, resident in either of the counties, who have omitted to organize a law library association in their respective counties, are hereby authorized to organize themselves in their counties respectively, into an association by the name of the law library association for such county, under the like provisions and with the same rights, powers, and duties, as if the said association had been organized within the time prescribed by the ninety-fourth chapter of the statutes of the year eighteen hundred and forty-two, and said association, when so organized, shall be deemed and taken to be a corporation, and entitled to all the privileges, and subject to all the provisions applicable to law library associations, created under and pursuant to the act aforesaid. [Approved by the governor, May 24, 1856.]

1858.

RESOLVE in favor of law library associations.

[Resolves of 1858, chapter 1.]

Resolved, That the secretary of the Commonwealth be, and he is hereby, authorized to furnish upon application one copy of the acts and resolves passed by the general court, and also one copy of such volumes of the special laws of the Commonwealth as he may have in his possession, not otherwise appropriated or required for the use of the Commonwealth, to the social law library located in the county of Suffolk; and also to each law library association which shall have been duly organized in conformity with the ninety-fourth chapter of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and forty-two, or the one hundred and eighty-fourth chapter of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and fifty-six. [Approved February 23, 1858.]

1859.

AN ACT to amend an act to authorize cities and towns to establish and maintain public libraries.

[Acts of 1859, chapter 25.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. The three hundred and fifth chapter of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and fifty-one, is so far amended as to allow any city or town to appropriate annually, for the maintenance and increase of a public library within the same, a sum not exceeding fifty cents for each of its ratable polls in the year next preceding that in which such appropriation shall be made.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect from and after its passage. [Approved February 14, 1859.]

AN ACT in addition to the acts in relation to law library associations.

[Acts of 1859, chapter 172.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. The several county treasurers shall, on the first day of January in every year, pay to the treasurers of the county law library associations now existing, or that may hereafter be duly organized in their respective counties, one-quarter part of all the sums which said treasurers may have respectively received from the clerks of the courts during the preceding year; provided such quarter part in any year does not exceed the sum of one thousand dollars; and if said quarter should exceed one thousand dollars, then said treasurers shall pay one thousand dollars, and all sums so paid to the treasurers of the law library associations shall be applied to maintain and enlarge the public law libraries for the use of the courts and citizens in the several counties.

SEC. 2. Nothing in this act contained shall be construed to prevent county commissioners from authorizing other payments from the county treasuries, under the seventy-first chapter of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and fifty-six. [Approved April 5, 1859.]

1860.

General Statutes, 1860, Chapter 33.

LAW LIBRARIES.

[See 1871, chapter 387.]

Section 1. Law library associations heretofore organized in any county except Suffolk shall remain corporations in the same manner as if organized under this chapter.

Sec. 2. The attorneys at law admitted to practice in the courts of the Commonwealth and resident in a county for which there is no law library association may organize themselves by the name of the law library association for such county, and when so organized shall be a corporation for the purpose of holding and managing the law library belonging to the county, and may adopt by-laws for that purpose, subject to the approval of the justices of the superior court.

Sec. 3. The clerk of the courts in any county in which no association has been organized, upon the application of seven attorneys at law resident therein, may call a meeting for the purpose of such organization by posting up notifications thereof in some convenient place in any court-house of the county; which meeting shall be holden during the term of the superior court commencing next after ten days from the time of posting up such notification. The clerk shall preside at such meeting until a clerk of the association is chosen.

Sec. 4. The officers of such association shall be a clerk, treasurer, and librarian, whose duties shall be defined by the by-laws.

Sec. 5. Every inhabitant of a county in which such association is organized may use the books in the library, subject to such regulations as may be prescribed by the association with the approval of the superior court.

[Section 6, amended by chapter 215, acts of 1863, and chapter 156, acts of 1874.]

Sec. 6. County treasurers shall annually, on the first day of January, pay to the county law library associations in their respective counties one-quarter part, not exceeding one thousand dollars, of all sums which said treasurers have received from the clerks of the courts during the preceding year; and they may also pay such further sums, not exceeding the amount paid into the respective county treasuries by the clerks of the courts, as the county commissioners deem necessary and proper. All sums so paid shall be applied to maintain and enlarge such libraries for the use of the courts and citizens.

Sec. 7. The treasurer of a law library association, before receiving said money, shall give a bond with sureties, to the satisfaction of the commissioners, for the faithful application thereof, and that he will make a return annually to them, under oath, of the manner in which all such applications are made.

TOWN AND CITY LIBRARIES.

[See 1866, 222; 1871, 26.]

Sec. 8. Each town and city may establish and maintain a public library therein, with or without branches, for the use of the inhabitants thereof, and provide suitable rooms therefor, under such regulations for its government as may from time to time be prescribed by the inhabitants of the town or the city council.

[Section 9, repealed by chapter 222, acts of 1866.]

Sec. 9. Any town or city may appropriate money for suitable buildings or rooms, and for the foundation of such library a sum not exceeding one dollar for each of its ratable polls in the year next preceding that in which such appropriation is made; may also appropriate annually, for the maintenance and increase thereof, a sum not exceeding fifty cents for each of its ratable polls in the year next preceding that in which such appropriation is made, and may receive, hold, and manage, any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment, increase, or maintenance of a public library within the same.

SOCIAL LIBRARIES.

[Public library corporations. See 1872, 217.]

Sec. 10. Seven or more proprietors of a library may form themselves into a corporation, under such corporate name as they may adopt, for the purpose of preserving, enlarging, and using such library; with the powers, privileges, duties, and liabilities of corporations organized according to the provisions of chapter sixty-eight, so far as the same may be applicable, and may hold real and personal estate to an amount not exceeding five thousand dollars in addition to the value of their books.

SEC. 11. Upon application of five or more such proprietors, a justice of the peace may issue his warrant to one of them, directing him to call a meeting of the proprietors at the time and place and for the purposes expressed in the warrant. The meeting shall be called by posting up the substance of the warrant in some public place in the town where the library is kept seven days at least before the time of the meeting, at which, if not less than seven of the proprietors meet, they may choose a president, a clerk who shall be sworn, a librarian, collector, treasurer, and such other officers as they may deem necessary, and may determine upon the mode of calling future meetings.

SEC. 12. The treasurer shall give bond with sufficient sureties, to the satisfaction of the proprietors, for the faithful discharge of his duties.

SEC. 13. Such proprietors may, by assessments on the several shares, raise such money as they judge necessary for the purposes of preserving, enlarging, and using the library.

1863.

AN ACT relating to the county law library associations.

[Chapter 215, acts of 1863; repealed by chapter 156, acts of 1874.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. The sixth section of the thirty-third chapter of the General Statutes is so far amended that the several county treasurers shall pay to the county law library associations the whole amount received from the clerks of the courts during the preceding year, provided the same does not exceed four hundred dollars. And in case the same exceeds four hundred dollars, they shall pay over in addition thereto one quarter part of the surplus, *provided, however*, that the whole amount paid to said association in any county in any one year shall not exceed one thousand dollars.

SEC. 2. This act shall not be deemed to prevent the county commissioners from allowing any further payment as provided in the said sixth section of the said thirty-third chapter of the General Statutes.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved April 29, 1863.]

1866.

AN ACT in relation to town libraries.

[Acts of 1866, chapter 222, incorporated in section 40, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Any town may, at a legal meeting, grant and vote money for the establishment, maintenance, or increase of a public library therein, and for erecting or providing suitable buildings or rooms therefor, and may receive, hold, and manage any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment, increase, or maintenance of any such library.

SEC. 2. Section nine of chapter thirty-three of the General Statutes is hereby repealed.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved May 9, 1866.]

1867.

AN ACT for the preservation of books and other property belonging to public libraries.

[Acts of 1867, chapter 69; repealed by chapter 42, acts of 1872.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

Whoever willfully and maliciously writes upon, injures, defaces, tears, or destroys any book, plate, picture, engraving, or statute belonging to any law, town, city or other public library, shall be punished by a fine of not less than five dollars nor more than one thousand dollars for every such offense. [Approved March 16, 1867.]

RESOLVE for the distribution of the annual reports to public libraries.

[Resolves of 1867, chapter 36.]

Resolved, That after the current year it shall be the duty of the secretary of the Commonwealth to furnish each public library organized under the laws of this Commonwealth, on the application of the librarian thereof, with the annual reports described in the General Statutes as the "Public Series." [Approved April 22, 1867.]

1869.

AN ACT in addition to an act concerning dogs.

[Chapter 250, acts of 1869; incorporated in section 107, chapter 102, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Moneys received by the treasurer of any county under the provisions of chapter one hundred and thirty of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and sixty-seven, and not expended in the payment of damages done by dogs, in accordance with the provisions of said act, shall be paid back to the treasurers of the several cities and towns of said county, in the month of January of each year, in proportion to the amount paid by said city or town to said county treasurer; and the money so refunded shall be expended for the support of public libraries or schools, in addition to the amount annually appropriated by said city or town for those purposes. In the county of Suffolk moneys received by any treasurer of any city or town under the provisions of said act, and not expended in accordance with the provisions of the same, shall be appropriated by the school committee of said city or town for the support of the public schools therein established.

SEC. 2. The last clause of section twelve of chapter one hundred and thirty of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and sixty-seven is hereby repealed.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved May 10, 1869.]

1870.

AN ACT to authorize the establishment of districts, for maintaining street lamps, and for other purposes.

[Acts of 1870, chapter 332; incorporated in sections 37–40, chapter 27, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc, as follows:

SECTION 1. Any town, at a legal meeting, having an article in the warrant for the purpose, may authorize a village or district in such town containing not less than one thousand inhabitants, the limits of which shall be accurately defined, to organize under such name as may be authorized by such town, for the purpose of erecting and maintaining street lamps, establishing and maintaining libraries, building and maintaining sidewalks, and employing and paying watchmen and police officers, or any of such purposes.

SEC. 2. The provisions of sections thirty-five, thirty-six, thirty-nine, forty-three, forty-four, forty-five, and forty-seven of chapter twenty-four of the General Statutes, and chapter two hundred and fifty-seven, of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and sixty-five, shall, so far as applicable, apply to such districts.

SEC. 3. The officers of such districts, in addition to a clerk and prudential committee, may be a treasurer, and such other officers as the district may decide to elect; and all of such officers shall hold their offices for one year, and until others are chosen and qualified in their stead.

SEC. 4. Such districts may adopt such by-laws as they may deem proper, to define the duties of their officers, and the manner of calling meetings of the districts.

SEC. 5. Such districts may sue and be sued in the name of the inhabitants of such districts. [Approved June 10, 1870.]

1871.

AN ACT in relation to depositing books in public libraries.

[Acts of 1871, chapter 26; incorporated in section 11, chapter 40, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. The city government of the several cities, and the selectmen of the several towns in this Commonwealth, in which may now or hereafter be public libraries, owned and maintained by said cities and towns, are hereby authorized to place in the public libraries, for the use of the inhabitants, such books, reports, and laws as have been or may be received from the Commonwealth.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved February 17, 1871.]

AN ACT to provide for furnishing certain documents to the law library societies in each county.

[Acts of 1871, chapter 387; incorporated in section 8, chapter 40, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. In addition to the volumes now required by law to be furnished to the law library societies in each county, the sergeant-at-arms shall, immediately after their publication, distribute, as far as practicable, to such societies one volume each of the following documents, viz: Legislative documents (senate and house), journal of the senate, journal of the house, and the manual of the general court.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved May 26, 1871.]

1872.

AN ACT for the preservation of books and other property belonging to public libraries.

[Acts of 1872, chapter 42; incorporated in section 79, chapter 203, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Whoever wilfully and maliciously or wantonly and without cause writes upon, injures, defaces, tears, or destroys any book, plate, picture, engraving, or statute belonging to any law, town, city, or other public library, shall be punished by a fine of not less than five dollars nor more than fifty dollars, or by imprisonment in the jail not exceeding six months, for every such offense.

SEC. 2. Chapter sixty-nine of the acts of the year one thousand eight hundred and sixty-seven is hereby repealed. [Approved February 26, 1872.]

AN ACT to provide for the formation of library corporations.

[Acts of 1872, chapter 217; incorporated in sections 16–19, chapter 40, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Three or more persons within this State who shall have associated themselves together by an agreement in writing, such as is described in section seven of chapter two hundred and twenty-four of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and seventy, with the intention to constitute a corporation, under any name by them assumed, for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a public library, with or without reading rooms connected therewith, shall become a corporation upon complying with the provisions of sections eight, nine, ten, and eleven of said act, and shall remain a corporation with all the powers, rights, and privileges belonging to any corporations organized under the provisions of said act, and subject to all the duties, restrictions, and liabilities set forth in all general laws which now are or hereafter may be in force applicable to such corporations.

SEC. 2. Any name may be assumed by such corporation not previously in use by any existing corporation or association, and shall contain therein the word "library." Upon filing the certificate named in section eleven of said act with the indorsement of the commissioner of corporations thereon, and the payment of the fees named in section fifty-nine of said act, the secretary of the Commonwealth shall sign and issue to such corporation a certificate in the form prescribed and having the same force and effect named in said eleventh section of said act.

SEC. 3. Any existing library association under general law may, by complying with the provisions of section twelve of said act and payment of the fees aforesaid, obtain of the secretary of the Commonwealth the certificate therein prescribed.

SEC. 4. Corporations formed under the provisions of this act may hold real and personal estate necessary for the purposes of their organization to the amount named in their agreements of association not exceeding fifty thousand dollars, exclusive of books, papers, collections in natural history, and works of arts; may receive and hold for the purposes aforesaid any grants, donations, or bequests under such conditions and rules as may be prescribed in such grants, donations, and bequests: *Provided*, The same are not inconsistent with the provisions of law. And so long as any corporation formed under this act shall allow the inhabitants of the city or town wherein the same is located free access to and use of its library, such city or town may annually appropriate and pay to the said corporation established therein money to aid in supporting its library.

SEC. 5. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved April 17, 1872.]

AN ACT to amend an act to provide for the formation of library corporations.

[Acts of 1872, chapter 326; incorporated in section 20, chapter 40, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Nothing contained in the provisions of chapter two hundred and seventeen of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and seventy-two shall be construed to require library corporations, formed under the same, to have a capital stock when it is otherwise provided in the agreement of association.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved May 4, 1872.]

1873.

AN ACT to authorize towns and cities to appropriate money toward defraying the expenses of maintaining libraries.

[Acts of 1873, chapter 306; incorporated in section 10, chapter 27, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

Any city or town may appropriate and pay such sum annually as it may see fit toward defraying the expenses of maintaining any library within such city or town

to which the inhabitants are allowed free access for the purpose of using the same on the premises. [Approved May 23, 1873.]

1874.

AN ACT relating to the county law library associations.

[Acts of 1874, chapter 156; repealed by chapter 89, acts of 1881.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. The sixth section of the thirty-third chapter of the General Statutes is so far amended that the several county treasurers shall pay to the county law library associations the whole amount received from the clerks of courts during the preceding year: *Provided,* The same does not exceed one thousand dollars; and in case the same exceeds one thousand dollars they shall pay in addition thereto one-quarter part of the surplus: *Provided, however,* That the whole amount paid to said association in any county in any one year shall not exceed two thousand dollars.

SEC. 2. This act shall not be deemed to prevent the county commissioners from allowing any further payment as provided in the said sixth section of the said thirty-third chapter of the General Statutes.

SEC. 3. Chapter two hundred and fifteen of the acts of eighteen hundred and sixty-three is repealed.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved April 9, 1874.]

1880.

AN ACT to authorize towns to establish and maintain public reading rooms.

[Acts of 1880, chapter 111.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Any town which now maintains in whole or in part a public library therein, for the use of the inhabitants thereof, or which may hereafter do so, may, at a legal meeting, grant and vote money for the establishment and maintenance of a public reading room, in connection with said library, and for the use of the inhabitants of said town, to be under the control and management of the board of trustees of said library, or of such other persons as have control and management of said library; and such town may receive, hold, and manage any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment or maintenance of any such reading room.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved March 17, 1880.]

1881.

AN ACT relative to law library associations.

[Acts of 1881, chapter 89; incorporated in section 6, chapter 40, Public Statutes.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Section six of chapter thirty-three of the General Statutes is hereby amended so as to read as follows: County treasurers shall annually pay to the county law library associations, in their respective counties, all sums paid into the county treasuries by the clerks of the courts during the year, but not exceeding fifteen hundred dollars in any one year; and they may also pay such further sums from the county treasury as the county commissioners deem necessary and proper. All sums so paid shall be applied to maintain and enlarge such libraries for the use of the courts and citizens. This act shall apply to all sums paid into the county treasuries by the clerks of the courts from and after the first day of January, eighteen hundred and eighty-one.

SEC. 2. Chapter one hundred and fifty-six of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and seventy-four is hereby repealed.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved March 16, 1881.]

1882.

THE PUBLIC STATUTES, CHAPTER 40.

LAW LIBRARIES.

SECTION 1. Law library associations heretofore organized in any county, except Suffolk, shall be subject to the provisions of this chapter relating to such corporations.

SEC. 2. The attorneys at law admitted to practice in the courts of the Commonwealth, and resident in a county for which there is no law library association, may organize themselves by the name of the Law Library Association for such county; and, when so organized, shall be a corporation for the purpose of holding and

managing the law library belonging to the county, and may adopt by-laws for that purpose, subject to the approval of the justices of the superior court.

SEC. 3. The clerk of the courts in any county in which no such association has been organized may, upon the application of seven attorneys at law resident therein, call a meeting for the purpose of such organization by posting up notifications thereof in some convenient place in any court-house of the county; which meeting shall be held during the term of the superior court commencing next after ten days from the time of posting up such notification. The clerk shall preside at such meeting until a clerk of the association is chosen.

SEC. 4. The officers of such an association shall be a clerk, treasurer, and librarian, and their duties shall be defined by the by-laws.

SEC. 5. Every inhabitant of a county in which such association is organized may use the books in the library, subject to such regulations as may be prescribed by the association with the approval of the superior court.

[Section 6 amended by chapter 246, acts of 1882.]

SEC. 6. County treasurers shall annually pay to the law-library associations in their respective counties all sums paid into the county treasuries during the year by the clerks of the courts, to an amount not exceeding fifteen hundred dollars in any one year; and said treasurers may also pay such further sums as the county commissioners may deem necessary and proper. All sums so paid shall be applied to maintain and enlarge such libraries for the use of the courts and of citizens.

SEC. 7. The treasurer of a law library association, before receiving any money from the county treasury, shall give a bond, with sureties, to the satisfaction of the commissioners, for the faithful application of such money, and that he will make a return annually to them, under oath, of the manner in which such application has been made.

SEC. 8. Each law library association shall be entitled to receive from the sergeant-at-arms one copy of each of the following volumes immediately after their publication, namely, legislative documents (senate and house), journal of the senate, and journal of the house.

TOWN AND CITY LIBRARIES.

SEC. 9. Any town or city may establish and maintain a public library therein, with or without branches, for the use of the inhabitants thereof, and may provide suitable rooms therefor, under such regulations for its government as may from time to time be prescribed by the inhabitants of the town or by the city council.

SEC. 10. Any town may, at a legal meeting, grant and vote money for the establishment, maintenance, or increase of a public library therein, and for erecting or providing suitable buildings or rooms therefor; and may receive, hold, and manage any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment, increase, or maintenance of any such library.

SEC. 11. The city government of a city or the selectmen of a town in which there is a public library, owned and maintained by such city or town, may place in such library, for the use of the inhabitants, such books, reports, and laws as have been or may be received from the Commonwealth.

SOCIAL LIBRARY CORPORATIONS.

SEC. 12. Seven or more proprietors of a library may form themselves into a corporation under such corporate name as they may adopt, for the purpose of preserving, enlarging, and using such library, and with the powers, privileges, duties, and liabilities of corporations organized according to the provisions of chapter one hundred and five, so far as the same may be applicable, and such corporation may hold real and personal estate to an amount not exceeding five thousand dollars in addition to the value of its books.

SEC. 13. Upon application of five or more of such proprietors, a justice of the peace may issue his warrant to one of them, directing him to call a meeting of the proprietors at the time and place and for the purposes expressed in the warrant. The meeting shall be called by posting up the substance of the warrant in some public place in the town where the library is kept, seven days at least before the time of the meeting, at which time, if not less than seven of the proprietors meet, they may choose a president, a clerk, who shall be sworn, a librarian, a collector, a treasurer, and such other officers as they may deem necessary, and may determine upon the mode of calling future meetings.

SEC. 14. The treasurer shall give bond, with sufficient sureties, to the satisfaction of the proprietors, for the faithful discharge of his duties.

SEC. 15. Such proprietors may, by assessments on the several shares, raise such money as they judge necessary for the purposes of preserving, enlarging, and using the library.

PUBLIC LIBRARY CORPORATIONS.

SEC. 16. Three or more persons within this Commonwealth who associate themselves together by an agreement in writing, such as is described in section sixteen of chapter one hundred and six, with the intention of forming a corporation, under any name by them assumed, for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a public library, with or without reading rooms connected therewith, shall become a corporation upon complying with the provisions of sections seventeen, eighteen, twenty, and twenty-one of said chapter, and shall remain a corporation, with all the powers, rights, and privileges, and subject to all the duties, restrictions, and liabilities, applicable to such corporations.

SEC. 17. Any name may be assumed by such corporation which is not in use by an existing corporation or association, and which contains the word "library." Upon filing the certificate named in section twenty-one of chapter one hundred and six, with the indorsement of the commissioner of corporations thereon, and the payment of the fees named in section eighty-four of said chapter, the secretary of the Commonwealth shall sign and issue to such corporation a certificate in the form prescribed, and having the force and effect named in said section twenty-one of said chapter.

SEC. 18. Any existing library association organized under general laws may, by complying with the provisions of section twenty-two, of chapter one hundred and six, and payment of the fees aforesaid, obtain of the secretary of the Commonwealth the certificate therein prescribed.

SEC. 19. A corporation formed under section sixteen may hold real and personal estate necessary for the purposes of its organization, to the amount named in its agreement of association, not exceeding fifty thousand dollars, exclusive of books, papers, collections in natural history, and works of art, and may receive and hold for the purposes aforesaid, any grants, donations, or bequests under such lawful conditions and rules as may be prescribed therein.

SEC. 20. Nothing contained in the four preceding sections shall be construed to require a corporation formed in accordance with the provisions thereof to have a capital stock, when a different provision is made in the agreement of association.

APPROPRIATION OF MONEY FOR LIBRARIES.

Section 10 of chapter 227 of the public statutes provides that the towns may at legal meetings grant and vote such sums as they judge necessary for maintaining any library therein to which the inhabitants are allowed free access for the purpose of using the books on the premises, and for establishing and maintaining a public reading room in connection with and under the control of the manager of such library.

THE DOG TAX.

Section 107 of chapter 102 of the public statutes provides that the money received for dog licenses and refunded to the towns shall be expended for the support of public libraries or schools.

DEFACING BOOKS, PAPERS, ETC.

Section 79 of chapter 253 of the public statutes provides that whoever wilfully and maliciously or wantonly and without cause writes upon, injures, defaces, tears, or destroys a book, plate, picture, engraving, or statue belonging to a law, town, city, or other public library, shall be punished by a fine of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars, or by imprisonment in the jail not exceeding six months.

LIBRARY CORPORATIONS.

Seven or more persons may form a corporation for the establishment and maintenance of places for reading rooms, libraries, or social meetings, under the provisions of the general law for the incorporation of associations for charitable, educational, and other purposes, contained in chapter 115 of the Public Statutes.

AN ACT in relation to law library associations.

[Acts of 1882, chapter 246.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Section six of chapter forty of the Public Statutes, providing for annual payments to the law library associations of the several counties, is amended by striking out in the fourth line thereof the words "fifteen hundred dollars," and inserting in place thereof the words "two thousand dollars." This act shall apply

to all sums paid into the county treasuries by the clerks of the courts on and after the first day of January in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-two.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved May 19, 1882.]

1883.

AN ACT to prevent the wilful detention of books, newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, or manuscripts of certain libraries.

[Chapter 77, acts of 1883.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Whoever wilfully and maliciously or wantonly and without cause detains any book, newspaper, magazine, pamphlet, or manuscript belonging to a law, town, city, or other public or incorporated library, for thirty days after notice in writing, from the librarian of such library, given after the expiration of the time which by the regulations of such library such book, newspaper, magazine, pamphlet, or manuscript may be kept, shall be punished by a fine of not less than one nor more than twenty-five dollars, or by imprisonment in the jail not exceeding six months.

SEC. 2. The notice required by the foregoing section shall bear upon its face a copy of this act.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved March 24, 1883.]

AN ACT for the better protection of property of certain libraries.

[Chapter 81, acts of 1883.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Section seventy-nine of chapter two hundred and three of the Public Statutes is hereby amended so as to read as follows: Whoever wilfully and maliciously or wantonly and without cause writes upon, injures, defaces, tears, or destroys a book, plate, picture, engraving, map, newspaper, magazine, pamphlet, manuscript, or statue belonging to a law, town, city, or other public or incorporated library, shall be punished by a fine of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars, or by imprisonment in the jail not exceeding six months.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved March 24, 1883.]

1885.

AN ACT to protect persons using public libraries from disturbance.

[Acts of 1885, chapter 225.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

Whoever wilfully disturbs persons assembled in a public library or reading room connected therewith, by making a noise or in any other manner, during the time in which such library or reading room is open to the public, shall be punished by imprisonment in the jail not exceeding thirty days, or by a fine not exceeding fifty dollars. [Approved May 12, 1885.]

1888.

AN ACT concerning the election and the powers and duties of trustees of free public libraries or of free public libraries and reading rooms, in towns.

[Acts of 1888, chapter 304.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. Every town which raises or appropriates money for the support of a free public library, or free public library and reading room that is owned by the town, shall at its annual meeting, or at a legal town meeting appointed and notified for that purpose by the selectmen, elect a board of trustees, except in cases where such library has been or may be acquired by the town, in whole or in part, by some donation or bequest containing other conditions or provisions for the elections of its trustees or for its care and management, which conditions have been accepted and agreed to by a vote of the town.

[Section 2, amended by chapter 112, acts of 1889.]

SEC. 2. Said board of trustees shall consist of any number of persons divisible by three, not exceeding nine in all, which the town may decide to elect, one-third thereof to be elected annually and to continue in office for three years, except that the town shall first elect one-third of the trustees for one year, one-third for two years, and one-third for three years, and thereafter one-third the number annually

for the term of three years. No person shall be ineligible to serve upon said board of trustees by reason of sex. Such board of trustees shall be elected by ballot, and shall organize annually by the choice of a chairman and secretary from their own number.

SEC. 3. If any person elected a member of the board of trustees, after being duly notified of his election in the manner in which town officers are required to be notified, refuses or neglects to accept said office, or if any member declines further service, or from change of residence or otherwise becomes unable to attend to the duties of the board, the remaining members shall in writing give notice of the fact to the selectmen of the town, and the two boards may thereupon, after giving public notice of at least one week, proceed to fill such vacancy until the next annual town meeting; and a majority of the ballots of persons entitled to vote shall be necessary to an election.

SEC. 4. The trustees so elected by the town shall have the entire custody and management of the library and reading room and all property owned by the town relating thereto; and all money raised or appropriated by the town for its support and maintenance, and all money or property that the town may receive by donation from any source, or by bequest, in behalf of said free public library and reading room, shall be placed in the care and custody of the board of trustees, to be expended or retained by them for and in behalf of the town for the support and maintenance of its free public library and reading room, in accordance with the conditions of each or any donation or bequest accepted by the town.

SEC. 5. In every town which shall, by a majority of the votes cast at its annual town meeting or at a legal town meeting appointed and notified for that purpose by the selectmen, so direct, the board of trustees shall, in addition to the officers named in section two of this act, elect from among their own number a treasurer, who shall give a bond to the town similar to the bond given by the town treasurer, for such an amount and with such sureties as may be satisfactory to the selectmen; and until a town directs otherwise, the town treasurer shall act as treasurer of the board of trustees.

SEC. 6. The trustees shall make an explicit report to the town at each annual town meeting of all their receipts and expenditures, and of all the property of the town in their care and custody, including a statement of any unexpended balance of money they may have, and of any bequests or donations they may have received and are holding in behalf of the town, with such recommendations in reference to the same as they may deem necessary for the town to consider.

SEC. 7. Nothing in this act shall be construed to interfere with library associations, nor with any library that is or may be organized and managed under special act of the legislature.

SEC. 8. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved May 4, 1888.]

1889.

AN ACT relating to the election, powers, and duties of trustees of free public libraries and reading rooms in towns.

[Acts of 1889, chapter 112.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

Section two of chapter three hundred and four of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and eighty-eight is hereby amended by striking out in lines two and three the words "not exceeding nine in all," so as to read as follows: Section 2. Said board of trustees shall consist of any number of persons divisible by three which the town may decide to elect, one-third thereof to be elected annually and to continue in office for three years, except that the town shall first elect one-third of the trustees for one year, one-third for two years, and one-third for three years, and thereafter one-third the number annually for the term of three years. No person shall be ineligible to serve upon said board of trustees by reason of sex. Such board of trustees shall be elected by ballot, and shall organize annually by the choice of a chairman and secretary from their own number: provided any town having a free public library which has heretofore elected a board of trustees to manage the same, consisting of a number divisible by three, and has heretofore elected annually one-third of said board for three years, may continue to elect annually one-third of said board for three years, and the trustees in office shall hold their offices until the term for which they were elected shall expire, unless the town shall vote otherwise. [Approved March 14, 1889.]

1890.

AN ACT to promote the establishment and efficiency of free public libraries.

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

SECTION 1. The governor with the advice and consent of the council shall appoint five persons, residents of the Commonwealth, who shall constitute a board of library

commissioners. The governor shall designate the chairman thereof. One member of said board shall be appointed for the term of five years, one for four years, one for three years; one for two years, and one for one year; and thereafter the term of office of the commissioners shall be five years. All vacancies on said board, whether occurring by expiration of term or otherwise, shall be filled by the governor with the advice and consent of the council.

SEC. 2. The librarian or trustees of any free public library may ask said board for advice in regard to the selection of books, the cataloguing of books, and any other matters pertaining to the maintenance or administration of the library; and the board shall give such advice in regard to said matters as it shall find practicable. The board shall make a report of its doings to the general court in January of each year, and fifteen hundred copies of said report shall be printed as one of the public document series.

SEC. 3. Said board is hereby authorized and directed to expend, upon the application of the board of library trustees of any town having no free public library owned and controlled by the town, a sum not exceeding one hundred dollars for books for any such town entitled to the benefits of this act; such books to be used by said trustees for the purpose of establishing a free public library, and said commissioners shall select and purchase all books to be provided as aforesaid.

SEC. 4. No town shall be entitled to the benefits of this act until such town has accepted the provisions hereof at a regularly called town meeting, and has elected a board of library trustees as provided in chapter three hundred and four of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and eighty-eight, and until said trustees shall have provided, in a manner satisfactory to the board of commissioners, for the care, custody, and distribution of the books furnished in accordance with this act.

SEC. 5. Any town accepting the provisions of this act shall annually appropriate from the dog tax or shall otherwise annually provide for the use and maintenance of its free public library, a sum not less than fifty dollars if its last assessed valuation was one million dollars or upward, or a sum not less than twenty-five dollars if said valuation was less than one million and not less than two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, or a sum not less than fifteen dollars if said valuation was less than two hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

SEC. 6. No member of the board of commissioners shall receive any compensation, but the board may expend a sum not exceeding five hundred dollars annually for clerical assistance and incidental and necessary expenses in the discharge of its duties; and all sums expended under the provisions of this act shall be paid from the treasury after the bills therefor have been approved by the board and sent to the auditor of the Commonwealth, who shall certify to the governor and council the amount due, as in case of all other bills and accounts approved by him under the provisions of law.

SEC. 7. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved May 28, 1890.] (Fifty-fourth Annual Report Massachusetts Board of Education, 1889-90, pp. 271-290.)

1892.

[Acts of 1892, chapter 255.]

Be it enacted, etc., as follows:

The board of library commissioners may expend the sum of one hundred dollars for books for the free public library of any town whose valuation does not exceed six hundred thousand dollars, which maintained a free library before the passage of chapter three hundred and forty-seven of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and ninety, and which has fully complied or hereafter fully complies with the provisions of said act.

MICHIGAN.

113. SECTION 1. A township library shall be maintained in each organized township, which shall be the property of the township, and shall not be subject to sale or alienation from any cause whatever. All actions relating to such library, or for the recovery of any penalties lawfully established in relation thereto, shall be brought in the name of the township.

114. SEC. 2. All persons who are residents of the township shall be entitled to the privileges of the township library, subject to such rules and regulations as may be lawfully established in relation thereto: *Provided,* That persons residing within the boundaries of any school district in which a district library has been established shall be entitled to the privileges of such district library only.

115. SEC. 3. The township board of school inspectors shall have charge of township library, and shall apply for and receive from the township treasurer all moneys appropriated for the township library of their township, and shall purchase the books and procure the necessary appendages for such library.

116. SEC. 4. Said board shall be held accountable for the proper care and preservation of the township library, and shall have power to provide for the safe-keeping of the same, to prescribe the time for taking and returning books, to assess and collect fines and penalties for the loss or injury of said books, and to establish all other needful rules and regulations for the management of the library as said board shall deem proper or the superintendent of public instruction may advise.

117. SEC. 5. The board of school inspectors shall cause the township library to be kept at some central or eligible place in the township, which it shall determine; such board shall also, within ten days after the annual township meeting, appoint a librarian for the term of one year, to have the care and superintendence of said library, who shall be responsible to the board of school inspectors for the impartial enforcement of all rules and regulations lawfully established in relation to said library.

118. SEC. 6. Any school district, by a two-thirds vote at any annual meeting, may establish a district library, and such district shall be entitled to its just proportion of books from the library of any township in which it is wholly or partly situated, to be added to the district library, and also to its equitable share of any library moneys remaining unexpended in any such township or townships at the time of the establishment of such district library, or that shall thereafter be raised by tax in such township or townships, or that shall thereafter be apportioned to the township to the inspectors of which the annual report of its director is made.

119. SEC. 7. The district board of any school district in which a district library may be established in accordance with the provisions of this act shall have charge of such library; and the duties and responsibilities of said district board in relation to the district library, and all moneys raised or apportioned for its support, shall be the same as those of the board of school inspectors are to the township library.

120. SEC. 8. The school inspectors shall give, in their annual report to the superintendent of public instruction, such facts and statistics relative to the management of the township library and the library moneys as the superintendent of public instruction shall direct; and the district board of any school district having a library shall cause to be given in the annual report of the director to the board of school inspectors like facts and statistics relative to the district library, which items shall also be included by the said inspectors in their annual report.

121. SEC. 9. In case the board of school inspectors of any township, or the district board of any school district, shall fail to make the report required by the preceding section, or in case it shall appear from the reports so made that any township or school district has failed to use the library money in strict accordance with the provisions of law, such township or district shall forfeit its share of the library moneys that are apportioned, and the same shall be apportioned to the several other townships and districts in the county as hereinafter provided: *Provided*, That in townships where the boards thereof shall determine and report to the superintendent that the public will be better served by using the said money for general school purposes no such forfeiture shall occur.

122. SEC. 10. The superintendent of public instruction shall annually, and previous to the tenth day of May, transmit to the clerk of each county a statement of the townships in his county that are entitled to receive library moneys, giving the number of children in each of such townships between the ages of five and twenty years as shall appear from the reports of the board of school inspectors for the school year last ending; said clerk shall file such statement in his office and shall forthwith furnish a copy thereof to the county treasurer.

123. SEC. 11. The clear proceeds of all fines for any breach of the penal laws of this State and for penalties, or upon any recognizance in criminal proceedings, and all equivalents for exemptions [exemption] from military duty, when collected in any county and paid into the county treasury, together with all moneys heretofore collected and paid into said treasury on account of such fines or equivalents and not already appropriated [apportioned], shall be apportioned by the county treasurer, before the first day of June in each year, among the several townships in the county according to the number of children therein between the ages of five and twenty years, as shown by the statement of the superintendent of public instruction provided for in the preceding section, which money shall be exclusively applied to the support of the township and district libraries, and to no other purpose: *Provided*, That from and after January first, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two, such money may be used for general school purposes in any township wherein the township board thereof shall so determine.

124. SEC. 12. The qualified voters of each township shall have power, at any annual township meeting, to vote a tax for the support of libraries established in accordance with the provisions of this act, and the qualified voters of any school district in which a district library shall be established shall have power, at any annual meeting of such district, to vote a district tax for the support of said district library. When any tax authorized by this section shall have been voted, it shall be reported to the supervisor, levied, and collected in the same manner as other township and school district taxes.

125. SEC. 13. The district board of any school district may donate or sell any library book or books belonging to such district to the board of school inspectors of the township or townships in which said district is wholly or partly situated, which book or books shall thereafter form a part of the township library. [Chapter XI, school laws of 1893.]

MINNESOTA.

PAR. 239. (School library list.) The superintendent of public instruction and the presidents of the normal schools of this State are directed to prepare a list of books, to be amended from time to time, suitable for school libraries, to include books of reference, history, biography, literature, political economy, agriculture, travel, and natural science; they shall advertise in at least two leading papers for the lowest rates at which sellers will fill orders of school districts for books selected from this list, and make contracts accordingly with the lowest responsible bidder for a period not to exceed two years. (1887, c. 121, § 1.)

240. (State aid.) Any school district having purchased under this contract any one year a selection of books from the list prepared and recommended by the State superintendent of public instruction, and having provided for their care a suitable bookcase, and for their distribution by the appointment of a librarian, and by the adoption of suitable rules and regulations, and having forwarded a certified statement of the same through the county superintendent, with his endorsement, to the superintendent of public instruction, shall make requisition upon the State auditor for one-half the amount to be expended, who shall issue his warrant in favor of said district for said amount.

Provided, first, That no district shall receive more than twenty dollars upon the first statement, nor more than ten dollars upon the second statement, nor more than five dollars upon any subsequent statement.

Provided, second, That for the purposes of the provision immediately preceding, each township organization of schools shall be estimated as equal to four districts, and shall be entitled to a proportionate aid in the establishing of a school library.

Provided, third, That whenever the county superintendent shall make report to the superintendent of public instruction that upon satisfactory investigation he finds that the books of any district are not properly cared for or properly used, it shall be his duty to exclude or suspend such district from the benefits of this act. (Id., § 2.)

241. (Statement.) No more than one statement shall be made by any one district in any one school year. (Id., § 3.)

242. (Fund.) The sum of ten thousand (10,000) dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary to meet the provisions of this act, is hereby annually appropriated. (Id., § 4.) [School laws of Minnesota, 1891.]

MISSOURI.

SECTION 7979, ITEM 5. To vote such a sum as they may deem proper for the purchase of books for a district library.

SEC. 8089. (Duties, restrictions, and liability of board.) The board shall, except as herein provided, perform the same duties and be subject to the same restrictions and liabilities as the boards of other school districts acting under the general school laws of the State: *Provided, however,* That in cities as hereinafter specified the board of education shall have power to establish and maintain a library for the use of the public school district therein, and to appropriate such sums as they may deem proper for the support thereof, not to exceed in any one year two thousand five hundred dollars for cities of twenty thousand and under one hundred thousand inhabitants, and not to exceed five hundred dollars for cities of five thousand and under twenty thousand inhabitants, and not to exceed two hundred and fifty dollars for cities of one thousand and under five thousand inhabitants, the population to be determined by the last United States or municipal census. (Laws, 1893, p. 250, amended.)

NEBRASKA.

AN ACT to authorize incorporated towns and cities to establish and maintain free public libraries and reading rooms.

Be it enacted by the legislature of the State of Nebraska:

SECTION 1. The city or town council of each incorporated city or town shall have power to establish and maintain a public library and reading room for use of the inhabitants of such city or town, and may levy a tax of not more than one mill on the dollar annually, to be levied and collected in like manner as other taxes of said city or town, and to be known as the library fund.

SEC. 2. When any city or town council shall have decided by ordinance to establish and maintain a public library and reading room under this act, they shall elect a

library board of nine directors, to be chosen from the citizens at large, of which board neither the mayor nor any member of the city or town council shall be a member. Such directors, first elected, shall hold their office, three for the term of one year, three for the term of two years, and three for the term of three years, from the first day of July following their appointment, and three directors shall be chosen annually thereafter; and in cases of vacancies by resignation, removal, or otherwise the council shall fill such vacancy for the unexpired term, and no director shall receive any pay or compensation for any services rendered as a member of such board, and such directors shall give such bond as the council may require.

SEC. 3. Such directors shall, immediately after their appointment, meet and organize, by electing one of their number president, and such other officers as may be necessary. Five of such board shall be a quorum. They shall have power to make and adopt such by-laws, rules, and regulations for their own guidance and for the government of the library and reading room as they may deem expedient, subject to supervision and control of the city or town council, and not inconsistent with this act. They shall have exclusive control of expenditures of all moneys collected or donated to the credit of the library fund and of the renting or construction of any library building, the supervision, care, and custody of the grounds, rooms, or buildings, constructed, leased, or set apart for that purpose.

SEC. 4. Any tax levied or collected or funds donated thereto shall be kept for the use of such library separate and apart from other funds of said city or town and shall be drawn upon by the proper officers upon the authenticated vouchers of the library board and shall not be used or disturbed for any other purpose.

SEC. 5. The library board shall have power to purchase or lease grounds; to erect, lease, or occupy an appropriate building or buildings for the use of such library; to appoint a suitable librarian and assistants, to fix their compensation, and to remove their appointments at pleasure; and shall have power to establish regulations for the government of such library as may be deemed necessary for its preservation and to maintain its usefulness and efficiency, and to fix and impose by general rules penalties and forfeitures for trespasses or injury upon or to the library grounds, rooms, books, or other property, or failure to return any book, or for violation of any by-law or regulation; and shall have and exercise such power as may be necessary to carry out the spirit and intent of this act, in establishing and maintaining a public library and reading room.

SEC. 6. Every library and reading room established under this act shall be forever free to the use of the inhabitants of the city or town, subject always to such reasonable regulations as the library board may adopt to render said library and reading room of the greatest use to the inhabitants of said city or town, and the board may exclude from the use of the library and reading rooms any person who shall wilfully violate or refuse to comply with rules and regulations established for the government thereof.

SEC. 7. The library board shall, on or before the second Monday in June in each year, make a report to the city or town council of the condition of their trust on the first day of June in such year, showing all moneys received and expended, the number of books and periodicals on hand, newspapers and current literature subscribed for or donated to the reading-room department; the number of books and periodicals ordered by purchase, gift, or obtained during the year, and the number lost or missing; the number of visitors attending; the number of and character of books loaned or issued, with such statistics, information, and suggestions as they may deem of general interest, or as the city or town council may require, which report shall be verified by affidavit of the proper officers of said board.

SEC. 8. Any by-law or regulation established by the library board may be amended or annulled by the council of said city or town.

SEC. 9. Penalties imposed or accruing by any by-law or regulation of the library board may be recovered in a civil action before the police judge, or any justice of the peace, or other court having jurisdiction; such action to be instituted in the name of the "library board of the city or town library," and moneys collected in such action shall be forthwith placed in the city treasury to the credit of the library fund.

SEC. 10. Any person may make any donation of money or lands for the benefit of such library, and the title to property so donated may be made to and shall vest in the library board, and their successors in office, and such board shall thereby become the owners thereof in trust to the uses of the public library of such city or town.

SEC. 11. The property of such library shall be exempt from execution, and shall also be exempt from taxation as other public property.

SEC. 12. The library board shall have power to authorize any circulating library, reading matter, or work of art, of any private person, association, or corporation, to be deposited in the public library rooms, to be drawn or used outside of the rooms only on payment of such fee or membership as the person, corporation, or association owning the same may require. Deposits may be removed by the owner thereof at pleasure, but the books or other reading matter so deposited in the rooms of any

such public library shall be separately and distinctly marked, and kept upon shelves apart from the books of the public city or town library, and every such private or associate library, or other property so deposited in any public library, while so placed or remaining shall be subject to use and reading within the library room without charge by any person an inhabitant of said city or town, and entitled to the use of the free library. [Approved February 17, A. D. 1877. Laws of Nebraska, 1877.]

AN ACT regulating the State library.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the legislature of the State of Nebraska,* That the books, pamphlets, maps, and charts belonging to the State, now in the State library, or which shall hereafter be added to the same, shall constitute the State library.

SEC. 2. There shall be two divisions of the State library, one of which shall embrace all miscellaneous works, books, pamphlets, maps and charts, and the statutes and other books required by law, to be deposited in the office of the secretary of state, and shall be known as the miscellaneous division of the State library, which shall be kept under the charge of the secretary of state, and of which he shall be librarian. The other shall embrace all books of reports, and other law books, and shall be known as the law division of the State library, which shall be kept under the charge of the clerk of the supreme court, and of which he shall be librarian.

SEC. 3. The governor, secretary of state, and auditor shall constitute a board of directors of the miscellaneous division, and the judges of the supreme court shall constitute a board of directors of the law division of the State library.

SEC. 4. Each board of directors shall have power to make such rules, not inconsistent with this act, for the regulation of the division of the library under their direction as they may elect proper, and may prescribe penalties for any violations thereof, which shall be collected in the same manner as for the nonreturn or injury of any books.

SEC. 5. Books may be taken from the State library by the members of the legislature and its officers during the session of the legislature, and by the officers of the executive department of the State, and judges of the supreme court and district courts; and no other person shall be permitted to take or detain from the library more than two miscellaneous works at one time, or take the same away from the capitol.

SEC. 6. Each librarian shall cause to be kept a register of all books issued and returned at the time they shall be so issued and returned, and none of the books, except the laws, journals, and reports of this State, which may be taken from the library, shall be detained more than ten days, and all the books taken out by officers or members of the legislature shall be returned at the close of the session.

SEC. 7. If any person injure or fail to return any book taken from the library, he shall forfeit and pay to the librarian of the division to which it belongs, for the use of the library, double the value thereof, or of the set to which it belongs, if a set is broken by its loss, to be recovered in an action, in the name of the people of the State, in any court of competent jurisdiction; and before the auditor shall issue his warrant in favor of any person authorized to take books from the library for the value of his services or amount of his salary he shall be satisfied that such person has returned all books taken from the library or settled for the same; otherwise he shall deduct all accounts for the detention or injury of such books.

SEC. 8. Each librarian shall, on or before the twentieth day of December in each year, report to the governor the condition of the division under his charge, stating the number of volumes contained therein, the number of volumes purchased during the past year, and the cost thereof, the number of volumes received by donation, the number of volumes injured, or not returned, if any, and the amount received in compensation therefor, and such suggestions and further information as may be deemed by him desirable.

SEC. 9. The librarian of each division of the library shall give bond to the people of the State, in the sum of five thousand dollars each, with good and sufficient sureties, to be approved by the board of directors of their respective division, conditioned for the faithful performance of the duties of their respective offices, which bonds shall be filed in the office of the State auditor.

SEC. 10. Each librarian shall receive for his services the sum of four hundred and fifty dollars per annum, to be paid quarterly, and the State auditor is authorized to draw his warrant on the treasurer for such amounts as they become due.

SEC. 11. Two hundred dollars shall be annually paid out of the State treasury for the use of the library, one half to each division, which amount, together with the amounts received from fines and forfeitures under this act, shall be annually expended in the purchase of additional books, under the direction of the board of directors.

SEC. 12. It shall be the duty of each librarian to cause each book in his division to be labeled with a printed or stamped label containing the words, "Nebraska State Library," and also to write the same words on the thirtieth page of each volume.

SEC. 13. The directors of the law division of the State library may sell or exchange any surplus or duplicate sets of reports or law books in such division of the library, and use the money arising from such sale in purchasing other law books or reports for such library.

SEC. 14. If either librarian shall permit or allow any person not authorized by this act to remove a book from the library, he shall be liable on conviction thereof to pay a fine of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars for every book so taken.

SEC. 16. Chapter 32, entitled Library of part one (1) of the Revised Statutes, approved in 1866, and also an act entitled "An act to create the office of State librarian, and to define the duties of the same," approved June 22, 1867, are hereby repealed: *Provided, however*, That no causes of action for fines, penalties, or forfeitures, and no prosecutions for misdemeanors to which any person may have become liable under any of the provisions of the chapter or of the act hereby repealed, shall be barred or in any manner affected by this act; but such actions and prosecutions may be commenced and carried on as if this act had not been passed.

SEC. 17. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 18. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage. [Approved March 3, 1871. Laws of Nebraska, 1870-71.]

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

SECTION 21. The governor, with the advice and consent of the council, shall appoint four persons, residents of the State, who, together with the State librarian, shall constitute a board of library commissioners. The governor shall designate the chairman thereof. Two members of the board shall be appointed for the term of four years and two for two years, and thereafter the term of office of the commissioners shall be two years. All vacancies on the board shall be filled by the governor, with the consent of the council.

SEC. 22. The librarian or trustees of any free public library may ask the board for advice in regard to the selection of books, cataloguing of books, and any other matters pertaining to the maintenance or administration of the library; and the board shall give such advice in regard to the matters as it shall find practicable. The board shall make a report of its doings to the legislature biennially, which shall be printed in the report of the State librarian.

SEC. 23. The board is hereby authorized and directed to expend, upon the application of any town having no free public library owned and controlled by the town, a sum not exceeding one hundred dollars for books for such town entitled to the benefits of these provisions, such books to be used by the town for the purpose of establishing a free public library; and the commissioners shall select and purchase all books to be so provided.

SEC. 24. No town shall be entitled to the benefits of these provisions relative to free public libraries, until such town has accepted the provisions at a regularly called town meeting, and until the town shall have provided in a satisfactory manner to the board of commissioners for the care, custody, and distribution of the books furnished in accordance therewith.

SEC. 25. Any town accepting the provisions aforesaid shall annually appropriate for the use and maintenance of its free public library, a sum not less than fifty dollars if its last assessed valuation was one million dollars or upward, or a sum not less than twenty-five dollars if the valuation was less than one million and not less than two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, or a sum not less than fifteen dollars if the valuation was less than two hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

SEC. 26.[1] The board of library commissioners shall receive no compensation, but shall be allowed such reasonable sum for clerical assistance and other necessary expenses, in the discharge of its duties, as the governor and council shall determine, not exceeding five hundred dollars in any one year; and all sums expended under the provisions of this act shall be paid from the State treasury after the bills therefor have been approved by the board and by the governor and council.

CHAPTER 14, SECTION 1. The secretary of state shall procure and furnish to each public library in this State and the Soldiers' Home one copy of each history of New Hampshire organizations in the war of the rebellion which is not out of print, and has been or may hereafter be published in accordance with the provisions of existing laws.

SEC. 2. This act shall be in aid only of such libraries as are regularly open for the use of the public in the towns and cities where they may be located and which are duly designated as public libraries, entitled to receive State publications by the

[1] Section 26 printed as amended by the legislature of 1893.

governor and council, in accordance with existing laws, on the first day of February next following the publication of such history.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage. [Approved March 12, 1891. Public Statutes of New Hampshire, 1891. Also annual report of board of library commissioners of New Hampshire for 1894, pp. 75–77.]

NEW JERSEY.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

192. The treasurer of the school fund, upon the order of the State superintendent of education, is hereby authorized and directed to pay over the sum of twenty dollars, out of the income of the school fund, to every public school for which there shall have been raised by subscription or entertainment a like sum for the same purpose, to establish in such school a school library and to procure philosophical and chemical apparatus; and the further sum of ten dollars annually, upon a like order, to the said public school, upon condition that there shall have been raised by subscription or entertainment a like sum for such year for the purposes aforesaid.

193. In all school districts where there are more than one schoolhouse, it shall be lawful to receive from the State treasury, as in said bill directed, the sum prescribed to be paid to each schoolhouse, and that such district shall have power to consolidate and establish a library in one place in said district as may be designated by the board of education or such power as has control of the public schools in said district.

194. The selection of books and apparatus shall be approved by the school trustees of such district.

195. The school trustees of each district shall make proper rules and regulations for the management, use, and safe-keeping of such libraries.

196. Whenever, in any county in this State, there shall have been raised by subscription a sum of money not less than one hundred dollars for the establishment of a library of pedagogical books for the use of the teachers of public schools in such county, the treasurer of the school fund, upon the order of the State superintendent of public instruction, is hereby authorized and directed to pay the sum of one hundred dollars, out of the income of the school fund, to the county superintendent of said county; and the further sum of fifty dollars annually thereafter, upon a like order, upon conditions that there shall have been raised by subscription a like sum for such year for the purpose aforesaid.

197. The county superintendent and three teachers of public schools in such county, appointed by him, shall constitute a committee for the selection of said books and the necessary apparatus and the making of rules and regulations for the management, use, and safe-keeping of such libraries.

198. The governor, the State comptroller, and the State superintendent of public instruction be and they are hereby authorized, upon its publication, to purchase and pay for, out of any funds not otherwise appropriated, as many copies of a political and legislative history of the State for the last twenty-five years, now being prepared by William Edgar Sackett, as they may deem proper for distribution among the public school libraries of this State. (School Laws of New Jersey, 1895.)

NEW YORK.

35. (Public and free libraries and museums.) All provisions of sections 35 to 51 shall apply equally to libraries and museums, and the word "library" shall be construed to include reference and circulating libraries and reading rooms.

36. (Establishment.) By majority vote at any election, any city, village, town, school district, or other body authorized to levy and collect taxes, or by vote of its common council, any city, or by vote of its trustees, any village, may establish and maintain a free public library, with or without branches, either by itself or in connection with any other body authorized to maintain such library. Whenever twenty-five taxpayers shall so petition, the question of providing library facilities shall be voted on at the next election or meeting at which taxes may be voted, provided that due public notice shall have been given of the proposed action.

37. (Subsidies.) By similar vote money may be granted toward the support of libraries not owned by the public, but maintained for its welfare and free use: *Provided*, That such libraries shall be subject to the inspection of the regents and registered by them as maintaining a proper standard; that the regents shall certify what number of the books circulated are of such a character as to merit a grant of public money, and that the amount granted yearly to libraries on the basis of circulation shall not exceed ten cents for each volume of the circulation thus certified by the regents.

38. (Taxes.) Taxes in addition to those otherwise authorized may be voted by any authority named in section 36, and for any purpose specified in sections 36 and 37, and

shall, unless otherwise directed by such vote, be considered as annual appropriations therefor till changed by further vote, and shall be levied and collected yearly, or as directed, as are other general taxes; and all money received from taxes or other sources for such library shall be kept as a separate library fund, and expended only under direction of the library trustees on properly authenticated vouchers.

39. (Trustees.) Such libraries shall be managed by trustees, who shall have all the powers of trustees of other educational institutions of the university as defined in this act: *Provided,* Unless otherwise specified in the charter, that the number of trustees shall be five; that they shall be elected by the legal voters, except that in cities they shall be appointed by the mayor, with the consent of the common council, from citizens of recognized fitness for such position; that the first trustees determine by lot whose term of office shall expire each year, and that a new trustee shall be elected or appointed annually, to serve for five years.

40. (Incorporation.) Within one month after taking office the first board of trustees shall apply to the regents for a charter in accordance with the vote establishing the library.

41. (Reports.) Every library or museum which receives State aid or enjoys any exemption from taxation or other privilege not usually accorded to business corporations shall make the report required by 25 of this act, and such report shall relieve the institution from making any report now required by statute or charter to be made to the legislature, or to any department, court, or other authority of the State. These reports shall be summarized and transmitted to the legislature by the regents with the annual reports of the State library and State museum.

42. (Use.) Every library established under this act shall be forever free to the inhabitants of the locality which establishes it, subject always to rules of the library trustees, who shall have authority to exclude any person who wilfully violates such rules; and the trustees may, under such conditions as they think expedient, extend the privileges of the library to persons living outside such locality.

43. (Injuries to property.) Whoever intentionally injures, defaces, or destroys any property belonging to or deposited in any incorporated library, reading room, museum, or other educational institution, shall be punished by imprisonment in a State prison for not more than three years, or in a county jail for not more than one year, or by a fine of not more than five hundred dollars, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

44. (Detention.) Whoever wilfully detains any book, newspaper, magazine, pamphlet, manuscript, or other property belonging to any public or incorporated library, reading room, museum, or other educational institution, for thirty days after notice in writing to return the same, given after the expiration of the time which by the rules of such institution such article or other property may be kept, shall be punished by a fine of not less than one nor more than twenty-five dollars, or by imprisonment in the jail not exceeding six months, and the said notice shall bear on its face a copy of this section.

45. (Transfer of libraries.) Any corporation, association, school district, or combination of districts may, by legal vote duly approved by the regents, transfer the ownership and control of its library, with all its appurtenances, to any public library in the university, and thereafter said public library shall be entitled to receive any money, books, or other property from the State or other sources to which said corporation, association, or school district would have been entitled but for such transfer, and the trustees or body making the transfer shall thereafter be relieved of all responsibility pertaining to property thus transferred.

46. (Local neglect.) If the local authorities of any library supported wholly or in part by State money fail to provide for the safety and public usefulness of its books, the regents shall in writing notify the trustees of said library what is necessary to meet the State's requirements, and on such notice all its rights to further grants of money or books from the State shall be suspended until the regents certify that the requirements have been met; and if said trustees shall refuse or neglect to comply with such requirements within sixty days after service of such notice, the regents may remove them from office and thereafter all books and other library property wholly or in part paid for from State money shall be under the full and direct control of the regents who, as shall seem best for public interests, may appoint new trustees to carry on the library, or may store it or distribute its books to other libraries.

47. (Loans of books from State.) Under such rules as the regents may prescribe, they may lend from the State library, duplicate department, or from books specially given or bought for this purpose, selections of books for a limited time to any public library in this State under visitation of the regents, or to any community not yet having established such library, but which has conformed to the conditions required for such loans.

48. (Advice and instruction from State library officers.) The trustees or librarian or any citizen interested in any public library in this State shall be entitled to ask from the officers of the State library any needed advice or instruction as to a library

building, furniture and equipment, government and service, rules for readers, selecting, buying, cataloguing, shelving, lending books, or any other matter pertaining to the establishment, reorganization, or administration of a public library. The regents may provide for giving such advice and instruction either personally or through printed matter and correspondence, either by the State library staff or by a library commission of competent experts appointed by the regents to serve without salary. The regents may, on request, select or buy books, or furnish instead of money apportioned, or may make exchanges and loans through the duplicate department of the State library. Such assistance shall be free to residents of this State as far as practicable, but the regents may, in their discretion, charge a proper fee to nonresidents or for assistance of a personal nature or for other reason not properly an expense to the State, but which may be authorized for the accommodation of users of the library.

49. (Use of fees and fines.) The regents may use receipts from fees, fines, gifts from private sources, or sale of regents' bulletins and similar printed matter, for buying books or for any other proper expenses of carrying on their work.

50. (Apportionment of public library money.) Such sum as shall have been appropriated by the legislature as public library money shall be paid annually by the treasurer, on the warrant of the controller, from the income of the United States deposit fund, according to an apportionment to be made for the benefit of free libraries by the regents in accordance with their rules and authenticated by their seal: *Provided*, That none of this money shall be spent for books except those approved or selected and furnished by the regents; that no locality shall share in the apportionment unless it shall raise and use for the same purpose not less than an equal amount from taxation or other local sources; that for any part of the apportionment not payable directly to the library trustees the regents shall file with the controller proper vouchers showing that it has been spent in accordance with law exclusively for books for free libraries or for proper expenses incurred for their benefit, and that books paid for by the State shall be subject to return to the regents whenever the library shall neglect or refuse to conform to the ordinances under which it secured them.

51. (Abolition.) Any library established under this act may be abolished only by a majority vote at a regular annual election, ratified by a majority vote at the next annual election. If any such library is abolished its property shall be used first to return to the regents, for the benefit of other public libraries in that locality, the equivalent of such sums as it may have received from the State or from other sources as gifts for public use. After such return any remaining property may be used as directed in the vote abolishing the library; but if the entire library property does not exceed in value the amount of such gifts it may be transferred to the regents for public use, and the trustees shall thereupon be freed from further responsibility. No abolition of a public library shall be lawful till the regents grant a certificate that its assets have been properly distributed and its abolition completed in accordance with the law.

52. (Laws repealed.) Of the laws enumerated in the schedule hereto annexed that portion specified in the last column is repealed.

53. (Saving clause.) The repeal of a law or any part of it by this act shall not affect or impair any act done or right accruing, accrued, or acquired, or liability, penalty, forfeiture, or punishment incurred prior to such repeal, under or by virtue of any law so repealed, but the same may be asserted, enforced, prosecuted, or inflicted as fully and to the same extent as if such law had not been repealed; and all actions and proceedings, civil or criminal, commenced under or by virtue of the laws so repealed and pending at the time of such repeal, may be prosecuted and defended to final effect in the same manner as they might under the laws then existing, unless it shall be otherwise specially provided by law.

54. (Construction.) The provisions of this act, so far as they are substantially the same as those of the laws herein repealed, shall be construed as a continuation of such laws, modified or amended according to the language employed in this act, and not as new enactments. Repeals in this act shall not revive any law repealed by any law hereby repealed, but shall include all laws amendatory of the laws hereby repealed. References in laws not repealed to provisions of law incorporated in this chapter and repealed shall be construed as applying to the provisions so incorporated. Nothing in this act shall be construed to repeal any provision of the criminal or, penal code.

55. (To take effect.) This act shall take effect immediately. [Approved, May 14, 1892. Laws of New York, 1892, chapter 573.]

COMMON SCHOOL AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

SECTION 1. So much of the school library money as shall be needed for that purpose shall be apportioned among the several cities and school districts by the State superintendent of public instruction, who may, so far as consistent with law, make alter, or repeal any rules that he may deem proper for regulating the expenditure of

the school library money and the administration and care of school libraries established or maintained under authority of this act: *Provided*, That no portion of the school library money shall be expended except for books approved by the said superintendent. Said school libraries shall consist of reference books for use in the schoolroom, suitable supplementary reading books for children, or books relating to branches of study being pursued in the school, and pedagogic books as aids to teachers. And no city or school district shall share in the apportionment unless it shall raise and use for the same purpose an equal amount from taxation or other local sources, and shall also comply with the requirements of the superintendent as to the care of such libraries and otherwise. Library moneys shall be apportioned to the school districts and parts of school districts joint with parts in any city or in any adjoining county which shall be entitled to participate therein, as follows: To each of said districts an amount equal to that which shall have been raised in said district for library purposes, either by tax or otherwise; and if the aggregate amount so raised in the districts within the county shall exceed the sum apportioned to the county the said districts respectively shall be entitled to participate in such apportionment pro rata to the total amount apportioned to the county. All school library money unapportioned by school commisioners and remaining in the hands of county treasurers shall, in each succeeding year, be added to the school library money apportioned by the superintendent of public instruction to the counties of the State.

SEC. 2. The school library shall be a part of the school equipment and shall be kept in the school building at all times, and shall not be used as a circulating library, except that, so far as the rules fixed by the State superintendent shall allow, teachers and school officers or pupils, with the leave of the librarian, may borrow from said library any book not needed for reference in the schoolroom, but such persons shall not borrow more than one volume at a time and shall not keep the same more than two weeks. The board of education or trustees shall appoint a teacher of the schools under their charge as librarian, who, with the trustees, shall be responsible for the safety and proper care of the books, and shall annually, and whenever required, make such reports concerning the library as the State superintendent may direct.

SEC. 3. All existing provisions of law and rules established by the superintendent of public instruction for the management of district libraries shall hold good as to the management of school libraries till altered by or in pursuance of law.

SEC. 4. Each city and school district in the State is hereby authorized to raise moneys by tax in the same manner as other school moneys are raised, or to receive moneys by gift or devise, for starting or extending or caring for the school library.

SEC. 5. Any board of education in any city or union free school district, or any duly constituted meeting in any other district, is hereby authorized to give any or all of its books or other library property to any township or other free public library under State supervision, or to aid in establishing such free public library, provided it is free to the people of such city or district. A receipt from the officers of the said free public library, and an approval of the transfer under seal by the regents of the university, shall forever thereafter relieve the said school authorities of further responsibility for the said library and property so transferred.

SEC. 6. Any books or other library property belonging to any district library, and which have not been in direct charge of a librarian duly appointed within one year, may be taken and shall thereafter be owned by any public library under State supervision, which has received from the regents of the university written permission to collect such books or library property, and to administer the same for the benefit of the public: *Provided*, That said books or other library property shall be found in the territory for which such public library is maintained, as defined in its charter or in the permission granted by the regents: *And further provided*, That, on written request of the school authorities, any dictionaries, cyclopedias, and pedagogic books shall be placed in the school library of the district to which such books originally belonged. Any person, association, or corporation having possession of books or other property belonging to any school, district, or other public library, except books regularly borrowed and charged for a period not yet expired, shall deliver the same within one month from the passage of this law to the legally appointed librarian of such library or of the free public library, duly authorized to take the same, as provided in this section, and willful neglect or refusal to comply with this provision shall be a misdemeanor.

SEC. 7. The public shall not be entitled to use any library, now or hereafter in the custody of the school authorities; but said authorities may appoint three trustees who shall have the powers, duties, and responsibilities of trustees of public libraries incorporated by the regents, and thereafter the school authorities may transfer to the custody of said trustees, for the purposes of a circulating library, any of their library property, as provided in section five.

SEC. 8. The State superintendent of public instruction is hereby authorized to withhold its share of public school moneys from any city or district which uses school library moneys for any other purpose than that for which they are provided, or

for any willful neglect or disobedience of the law or the rules or orders of said superintendent in the premises.

SEC. 9. The sum of fifty-five thousand dollars, directed to be distributed to the several cities and school districts of the State by section four of chapter two hundred and thirty-seven of the laws of eighteen hundred and thirty-eight, shall continue to be appropriated and shall be known as school library moneys, and shall be applied to the purchase of books for the formation or extension of common school libraries.

SEC. 10. For the fiscal year beginning October first, eighteen hundred and ninety-two, but not thereafter, out of said fifty-five thousand dollars, school library money, there shall be paid twenty-five thousand dollars for public library money, and said twenty-five thousand dollars shall be paid by the treasurer, on the warrant of the comptroller, according to an apportionment to be made for the benefit of free libraries by the regents in accordance with their rules and authenticated by the university seal: *Provided*, That none of this money shall be spent for books except those approved or selected and furnished by the regents; that no locality shall share in the apportionment unless it shall raise for the same purpose not less than an equal amount from taxation or other local sources; that for any part of the apportionment not payable directly to the library trustees the regents shall file with the comptroller proper vouchers showing that it has been spent in accordance with law exclusively for books for free public libraries or for proper expenses incurred for their benefit, and that books paid for by the State shall be subject to return to the regents whenever the library shall neglect or refuse to conform to the ordinances under which it secured them.

SEC. 11. Section four, chapter two hundred and thirty-seven of the laws of eighteen hundred and thirty-eight is hereby repealed, and sections one to nine of this act are hereby substituted for title eight, of chapter five hundred and fifty-five of the laws of eighteen hundred and sixty-four, which said title eight is hereby repealed; and all other acts repugnant to or inconsistant with the provisions of this act are, so far as they are so inconsistent, hereby repealed.

SEC. 12. This act shall take effect immediately. [School laws of New York, 1893.]

NORTH CAROLINA.

[Sections 19 to 32, inclusive, of Chapter LII of the Laws of North Carolina, 1715.]

Section XIX. And whereas, at the promotion of the Reverend Doctor Thomas Bray, a Library hath been sent over to Bath-Town, for the use of the inhabitants of the Parish of St. Thomas, in Pamptico; and it is justly feared that the books belonging to the same will quickly be embezzled, damaged, or lost, except a law be provided for the more effectual preservation of the same:

XX. *Be it therefore enacted, by the authority aforesaid*, That the said Library shall be, continue, and remain in the hands, custody, and possession of a Library-keeper, to be elected, nominated, and appointed by the Commissioners hereafter by this Act appointed, or the major part of them; which said Library-keeper is, and shall be hereby bound and obliged, to keep and preserve the several and respective books therein, from waste, damage, imbezzlement, and all other destruction, (fire, and all other unavoidable accidents, only excepted,) and is and shall be hereby accountable for the same, and every book thereof, to the Commissioners hereafter nominated; and to that end and purpose, the said Library-keeper shall pass two receipts for the Library aforesaid, one to the Commissioners hereafter named, and the other to the Churchwardens of the said Parish for the time being, in which receipts the title of each book shall be inserted: And in case all or any of the books is or shall be found to be wasted, damaged, or embezzled, or otherwise destroyed, (except as before excepted,) the said Library-keeper, his heirs, executors, and administrators, are and shall be hereby bound and obliged to answer double the value of the same; and the said Commissioners are hereby empowered to sue for the same, in any court of record in this Province, by bill, plaint, or information, or other action; wherein no essoign, protection, injunction, or wager of law, shall be allowed; and that what thereby shall be recovered, (reasonable charges and expences deducted,) to employ and dispose of towards the compleating and perfecting the aforesaid Library so wasted, endamaged, embezzled, or otherwise destroyed, within the space of twelve months after such recovery.

XXI. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid*, That in case of the death or removal of the said Library-keeper, the Churchwardens of St. Thomas's Parish shall immediately take into their custody, possession, and safe keeping, all the books belonging to the said Library, and shall be answerable for the same to the Commissioners hereafter in this Act nominated.

XXII. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid*, That the Churchwardens of St. Thomas's Parish, in Pamptico, upon the receiving the books belonging to the

said Library, shall compare the same with the catalogue and receipt for the same in their custody; and if any of the books are wanting or damaged, they shall give an account thereof, in twenty days at farthest, to the Commissioners hereafter mentioned, who are impowered to sue the said Library-keeper, or in case of his death, his executors or administrators, for the same: And in case the said Churchwardens refuse or neglect to give such account, then the said Churchwardens, their heirs, executors, or administrators, and every of them, are hereby made accountable to the Commissioners hereafter named for all the books belonging to the said Library, and contained in the catalogue thereof.

XXIII. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That the said Commissioners, or any five of them, within twenty days after such notice given, shall forthwith proceed to the election of another Library-keeper, to whose custody and safe keeping the said Library, and every book therein contained, shall be forthwith delivered by the said Churchwardens, by order of the said Commissioners; which said Library-keeper so elected, shall continue in the same office, unless removed by the said Commissioners, or the major part of them, (which they are, upon a just occasion, hereby impowered to do,) or until the settlement of a minister in the said Parish; which said minister or incumbent shall, ex officio, be Library-keeper, and shall be answerable for the same to the Commissioners aforesaid, in manner as is by this Act directed.

XXIV. *Provided always,* That the said Library shall not be removed out of Bath-Town, other than to the incumbent's house; and not thither, without liberty first had and obtained from the said Commissioners, or the major part of them.

XXV. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That the inhabitants of Beaufort Precinct shall have Liberty to borrow any book out of the said Library, giving a receipt for the same to the Library-keeper for the time being, with a promise to return the said book or books, if a folio, in four months time; if a quarto, in two months time; if an octavo, or under, in one months time; upon penalty of paying three times the value of the said book or books so borrowed, in case of failure in returning the same; And the said Library-keeper is hereby obliged to enter such receipt in a book, to be fairly kept for that purpose, and upon the return of any book or books so lent, shall note it returned on the opposite side or column of the said book, and not cross or blot the same: and in case the person that borrows any book or books out of the said Library, doth refuse to return the same, or doth damnify the said book, upon complaint thereof given by the said Library-keeper, his executors or administrators, to two or more of the Commissioners, and by them, or any five of them, to the Chief Justice of the Province for the time being, or any two Justices of the Peace, it shall be lawful, and the said Chief Justice, or any two Justices, are hereby impowered and required, by warrant of distress, directed to any of the constables of the said Precinct, to levy three times the value of such book or books, on the goods and chattels of the person so refusing to deliver, or damnifying the same; and for want of such distress, to commit the person to prison, till satisfaction be made to the said Library-keeper.

XXVI. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That the Commissioners hereafter named, shall make, or cause to be made, several catalogues of all and singular the books in the said Library, and the same being fairly written, and signed by the said Commissioners, or some five of them, one to be entered upon record in the Secretary's office of this Province, one to be in the custody and for the use of the Commissioners hereafter named, under which the Library-keeper shall sign a receipt for the respective books, one to be in the custody of the Churchwardens of St. Thomas's Parish for the time being, under which the Library-keeper shall also sign a receipt for the respective books, and one to be fairly entered in a book for that purpose to be kept by the Library-keeper in the said Library; that so any person may know what books are contained therein.

XXVII. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That the Commissioners, or any five of them, hereafter named, after making one exact catalogue of all and singular the respective books in the said Library, shall, and are hereby directed, to appraise and rate each book, at a price certain in the current money of this Province; which appraisment shall be an established rule to determine the value of the said books, in case any suit is brought by the said Commissioners against any person who shall detain or damnify any of the said books, or against the Library-keeper, his executors or administrators.

XXVIII. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That the Commissioners hereafter named, or any five of them, shall, every year, on Easter Monday yearly, resort to the House where the said Library shall be kept, and there examine the books thereof by the catalogue, and see that there be the full number, and that they are not damaged or spoiled; and therefore the Library-keeper is hereby required, in lending any of the said books out of the said Library, notwithstanding the time usually allowed by this Act, to oblige the said person to return such books as they borrow to the said Library-keeper ten days before the said Easter Monday, yearly,

that so all and singular the books belonging to the Library aforesaid, may be exposed to the view of the said Commissioners, the better to enable them to judge if they be any ways damaged or spoiled, and give their order accordingly.

XXIX. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That the Honorable Charles Eden, Esq; present Governor, and the Governor or Commander in Chief for the time being, the members of the Council for the time being, Christopher Gale, Esq; Chief Justice, and the Chief Justice for the time being, Tobias Knight, Esq; Secretary, and Secretary for the time being, Col. Edward Moseley, Speaker of this present Assembly, and the Speaker for the time being, Daniel Richardson, Esq; Attorney-General, and the Attorney-General for the time being, the members of the Precinct Court for the time being, Capt. Frederick Jones, Mr. John Porter, Mr. Joel Martin, Capt. John Drinkwater, Mr. John Clark, Mr. Patrick Maule, Mr. Thomas Worseley, Mr. Lionel Reading, Mr. James Leigh, and Mr. Thomas Harding, or any five of them, are hereby nominated to be Commissioners and Trustees, for the due inspection and preservation of the Library aforesaid, and all and singular the respective books to the same belonging; and they, or any five of them, shall have power to commence or bring any suit or action given by this Act.

XXX. And in case of the death or absence of any of the Commissioners who are by this Act particularly by name before appointed, then the surviving Commissioners, or any five of them, at their next meeting after such vacancy, are hereby fully authorized and impowered to make choice of another, in the place and stead of him or them who shall be dead or absented; which said Commissioners so elected shall be invested with the same authority, as if he had been before in this Act particularly named and appointed.

XXXI. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That the Commissioners above named, or any five of them, after having examined the catalogue of books, and discovered what are wanting, shall summons such persons as have the said books in their custody, to deliver the same, within twenty days after such notice in writing left with the person, or at his usual place of abode; and in case any person shall fail or refuse to deliver the said respective books to the said Commissioners, then the said Commissioners, or any five of them, are hereby required, directed, and impowered, to take such measure for the recovery of the same, or treble the value thereof, as is before by this Act prescribed.

XXXII. *And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid,* That all persons that have borrowed, or have in their custody, any of the books belonging to the Library aforesaid, shall, on or before the next Easter Monday, return the same to the present Library keeper, under the penalty of the forfeiture of treble the value of each book not returned as aforesaid; the better to enable the Commissioners before named to make a perfect catalogue of the books belonging to the said Library.

AN ACT to provide a suitable room for the supreme court and State library.

[Laws of North Carolina, session of 1885, chapter 121.]

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That it shall be the duty of the governor and his council to cause the west end of the agricultural building to be so altered and added to as to make it available for a supreme court room and office for the supreme court clerk and attorney-general, and for the librarian of the supreme court and State library.

SEC. 2. The governor and his council shall determine what alterations are to be made in the present building, and what additions shall be made thereto for the purposes set out in the first section of this act.

SEC. 3. That after the plans and specifications of the change and additions to be made are agreed upon by the governor and his council, a copy of them shall be given to the architect of the penitentiary, whose duty it shall be to erect the building and make the changes, utilizing therefor all the labor and material possible to be procured or manufactured at the penitentiary: *Provided,* That no plan shall be adopted, the completion of which shall exceed in cost the amount provided in this act.

SEC. 4. In order to pay for such labor and material as can not be supplied by the penitentiary, the sum of ten thousand dollars be and the same is hereby appropriated, to be paid upon the warrant of the auditor, upon the application of the architect of the penitentiary, approved by the governor and his council.

SEC. 5. The work shall be done by the penitentiary authorities, under the general directions of the governor and his council.

SEC. 6. As soon as said building is completed, the supreme court shall be moved into the room set apart therefor, and the court shall be held therein.

SEC. 7. The law library, the State library, the supreme court clerk, and the attorney-general shall each occupy the rooms set apart for them in said building.

SEC. 8. When the supreme court, its library and clerk, and the State library are moved out of the capitol, the auditor shall occupy the rooms now occupied by the

supreme court and its clerk, and the secretary of state shall have the room now occupied by the auditor, in addition to his present room.

SEC. 9. The room now occupied by the State library shall be set apart for the ancient records of the State, and it shall be the duty of the governor and his council to have them removed thereto and properly classified and stored.

SEC. 10. This act shall be in force from and after its ratification.

In the general assembly read three times, and ratified this the 25th day of February, A. D. 1885.

AN ACT to authorize the governor and council of State, in conjunction with the warden of the State penitentiary, to provide for heating the capitol, supreme court, and library buildings, and the introduction therein of a necessary water supply.

[Laws of North Carolina, session of 1887, chapter 225.]

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That the governor and council of State are hereby authorized and empowered, in conjunction with the warden of the State penitentiary, to provide for the heating of the capitol, supreme court, and library buildings, and the introduction therein of a necessary water supply, including water-closets and laboratories, and shall within ninety days from the ratification of this act and after due advertisement contract with the lowest responsible bidder to heat said capitol, supreme court, and library buildings and supply the same with all necessary water conveniences, including water-closets and laboratories, on the best and most approved plan, said work to be completed on or before December, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-eight, and be paid for upon the warrant of the governor out of any moneys belonging to the general fund in the treasury not otherwise appropriated: *Provided*, That the said warden of the State penitentiary shall supervise said work; and no money shall be paid out on the same, unless said warden shall certify in writing to the governor that the work has been done in first-class workmanship and of the best materials.

SEC. 2. That the governor and his council, with said warden of the State penitentiary shall employ competent person or persons to prepare drawings and specifications and details for said work, the same to be done under the supervision of the said warden, and to be paid for as provided in section one of this act.

SEC. 3. That for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this act the sum of sixteen thousand dollars is hereby appropriated out of the general fund in the treasury as hereinbefore mentioned: *Provided*, That if a less sum shall be found adequate, any surplus shall be covered back into the general fund: *And provided further*, That in no case shall the said work cost in the aggregate more than sixteen thousand dollars.

SEC. 4. That this act shall be in force from and after its ratification.

In the general assembly read three times and ratified this the 7th day of March, A. D. 1887.

CHAPTER 258.—AN ACT for the better preservation of the records in the clerks' offices of the senate and house of representatives and the libraries of the two houses.

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That the State librarian be and he is hereby directed to have the clerks' offices of the senate and house of representatives removed to the rooms now occupied by the superintendent of public instruction and the State library (when these offices are removed to the supreme court and library building) and properly classified, arranged, and labelled.

SEC. 2. That it shall be the duty of the State librarian to procure two copies each of the laws and journals of the general assembly and arrange these books on the shelves in chronological order for use of the two houses of the general assembly, respectively.

SEC. 3. That the librarian is hereby constituted the lawful custodian of the record rooms and libraries of the two houses and shall keep the same locked, and for the faithful performance of his duties as such shall receive as compensation the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars per annum.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect from and after its ratification.

In the general assembly read three times and ratified this the 7th day of March, A. D. 1887.

CHAPTER 358.—AN ACT directing the trustees of the public library to secure and publish the manuscript of the late John A. Sloan concerning the North Carolina troops in the late war between the States.

Whereas, The late John A. Sloan during his lifetime collected and prepared for publication all facts and information then to be obtained which illustrate the part taken by North Carolina troops during the late war between the States, and died before publishing the same;

And whereas, Unless immediately printed there is great danger that the manuscripts, papers, and documents collected and prepared by the said John A. Sloan may be lost or destroyed, and thus no record of the gallant actions and soldierly conduct of our troops will be preserved;

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That the trustees of the public library are hereby authorized to examine said manuscript, and, if they shall deem it of sufficient importance and value, to procure and publish the same as prepared by the said John A. Sloan, as aforesaid, in a volume of such size and to such a number of copies as to them may seem best.

SEC. 2. That after supplying the public libraries and the libraries of the university and colleges of the State with copies, the said trustees shall cause the remaining copies to be sold, and to this end shall have power to employ an agent or agents whose compensation shall be a commission upon the proceeds of sales made by him or them.

SEC. 3. That in case the library fund shall prove to be insufficient to meet the expenses of carrying out the provisions of this act, the auditor is directed to draw his warrant for such sum as the said trustees shall certify to him to complete the said work.

SEC. 4. That all net proceeds arising from the sale of the said remaining copies shall be paid into the public treasury for the purpose, first of reimbursing the treasury for moneys paid out on the said warrant of the auditor, and second of reimbursing the said library fund.

SEC. 5. That this act shall be in force from and after its ratification.

In the general assembly read three times, and ratified this the 7th day of March, A. D. 1887.

AN ACT for the better protection of the books in the North Carolina State library.

[Laws of North Carolina, session of 1889, chapter 65.]

Whereas many rare and valuable books are now owned by the State and are kept in the State library; and whereas, by their open and exposed condition are liable to be stolen or greatly damaged by dust and insects; therefore,

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That the State librarian is hereby directed to have glass doors placed to all the cases in the State library containing the general or miscellaneous books of literature, for the better protection of such books.

SEC. 2. That the sum of two hundred and fifty ($250) dollars is hereby appropriated to cover the cost of such books.

SEC. 3. That this act shall be in force from and after its ratification.

Ratified the 5th day of February, A. D. 1889.

CHAPTER 535.—AN ACT relating to the laws, reports, etc., received by this State from other States and Territories by exchange.

Whereas, There being no particular department of the State designated to receive and preserve a record of the receipts of the published laws, reports, documents, etc., from other States and Territories received by exchange for like documents from this State, and for the purpose of having such record carefully kept and preserved; therefore,

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That the State librarian be, and he is hereby, directed to keep a record of all such receipts, to receipt for the same, and to distribute them to the different departments to which they belong immediately on receipt.

SEC. 2. That all States and Territories exchanging such documents with this State are requested to forward all documents direct to the State librarian.

SEC. 3. That this act shall be in force from and after its ratification.

Ratified the 11th day of March, A. D. 1889.

A RESOLUTION in reference to keeping open the State library at night.

[Resolutions, p. 530.]

Resolved by the house of representatives, the senate concurring, That the State librarian is hereby directed and authorized to keep the State library open from 7 o'clock until 9 each afternoon: *Provided,* That the necessary expense of keeping said library open be voluntarily paid by the Board of Trade of the city of Raleigh.

Ratified on the 11th day of March, A. D. 1889.

A RESOLUTION of instruction to the State printer.

[Resolutions, p. 534.]

Resolved by the house of representatives, the senate concurring, That the State printer be, and is hereby, directed to do all necessary binding for the State library: *Pro-*

vided further, That the State treasurer is directed to pay for all such binding for the State library from such funds as are now used to pay for similar work for the other departments of the State: *Provided*, The cost shall not exceed one hundred dollars.

Ratified the 11th day of March, A. D. 1889.

AN ACT in relation to the supreme court library.

[State laws of North Carolina, session of 1891, chapter 390.]

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That section three thousand six hundred and thirty-five of the Code is amended by providing that ten volumes of the reports shall be distributed to the supreme court library instead of five volumes, as is now provided in line eighteen of said section.

SEC. 2. That for the purpose of rebinding the volumes in the library and for other contingent expenses of the supreme court, there shall be annually appropriated one hundred and fifty dollars.

SEC. 3. That this act shall be in force from and after its ratification.

Ratified the 6th day of March, A. D. 1891.

CHAPTER 471.—AN ACT to amend chapter fifty-two, sections three thousand six hundred and thirty-two and three thousand six hundred and thirty-five of volume two of the Code, in reference to laws and supreme court reports of the State for the State library.

The general assembly of North Carolina do enact:

SECTION 1. That section three thousand six hundred and thirty-two, chapter fifty-two of the Code, be amended by striking out in line fourteen the word "ten" and insert in lieu thereof the word "two;" that section three thousand six hundred and thirty-five of the same chapter be amended by striking out in line eighteen the word "ten" and insert in lieu thereof the word "two."

SEC. 2. That the State librarian is hereby directed to turn over to the secretary of state all of the said laws and reports in the library over and above this number, to be disposed of as such other documents are for the benefit of the State.

SEC. 3. All laws in conflict with [this] act are hereby repealed, and this act shall be in force from and after its ratification.

Ratified the 9th day of March, A. D. 1891.

A RESOLUTION of instruction to the State printer and binder.

[Resolutions, p. 655.]

Whereas under a recent decision of the attorney-general (September 26, 1890) he decided that the annual appropriation for the increase of the State library was intended under the law for the purchase of books for the library, and not for the purpose of binding and repairs of books for preservation in the State library: Therefore,

Resolved, That the State printer and binder, under the direction of the librarian and by authority of the trustees, be, and he is hereby, directed to have all the necessary printing and binding for the State library done under the present laws governing the State printing, and the treasurer is directed to pay for the same in such manner as other work is paid for by the State: *Provided*, That not more than one hundred and fifty dollars ($150.00) shall be used during any one year for this purpose.

Ratified the 3rd day of March, A. D. 1891.

A RESOLUTION in reference to printing the history of North Carolina soldiers in late war.

[Public Laws of North Carolina, session of 1893, resolutions, p. 498.]

Whereas there is on file in the State library manuscript copies of the part taken by several regiments from this State in the late war for Southern independence, showing the brave deeds and heroism displayed by the North Carolina troops, and the same has never been published: Therefore, for the purpose of doing credit to the memory of our brave soldiers, it is therefore

Resolved by the house of representatives, the senate concurring, That the State librarian, under the supervision of the board of trustees of the State library, is hereby directed to prepare these papers in proper shape and such others as may be secured, and have five hundred copies of the same printed.

Resolved (2d), That when the said manuscripts have been printed it shall be the duty of the State librarian to supply one copy to each member of the general assembly, one to each State library, and to such schools and colleges of this State as may be entitled to receive the publications of this State: *Provided*, That the cost incurred herein shall not exceed one hundred dollars.

Ratified the 6th day of March, A. D. 1893.

THE CODE OF NORTH CAROLINA, VOLUME II, 1883, CHAPTER FIFTY-ONE—PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

[Section 3604. Librarian biennially appointed by the trustee of public libraries; salary. 1870-71, c. 70, s. 1. 1883, c. 216, s. 1.]

A librarian shall be biennially appointed by the trustees of the public libraries, at a salary not exceeding seven hundred and fifty dollars a year, who shall give bond with security in such sum as the said trustees may determine, payable to the State of North Carolina, conditioned for the safe-keeping of the books and the faithful discharge of his duties, and he shall hold his place until his successor shall be appointed and qualified.

People *v.* McKee, 68-429: People *v.* Bledsoe, 68-427; People *v.* McGowan, 68-520.

[Section 3605. Hours of public library, libraries of senate and house of representatives. 1870-71, c. 70, s. 2. 1881, c. 352.]

The library shall be kept open during such hours as the trustees may prescribe; and the librarian shall also keep the libraries of the senate and house of representatives locked, except during the session of the general assembly.

[Section 3606. Justices of supreme court appointed the trustees of the supreme court library; to appoint, remove, and fix compensation of librarian. 1883, c. 100, ss. 1, 2.]

The justices of the supreme court and their respective successors in office are appointed trustees of the supreme court library, and all moneys appropriated for its increase shall be paid out under their direction and supervision. The justices aforesaid shall have charge of the court library, and may, in their discretion, employ a librarian, who shall perform his duties under such rules and regulations and shall receive such compensation as may be prescribed by such trustees, not exceeding the sum of three hundred dollars per annum.

[Section 3607. Claims to be audited. 1883, c. 100, s. 3.]

All claims for such service shall be audited and approved by the auditor, and the same shall be paid by the treasurer of the State upon the warrant of the auditor.

[Section 3608. Five hundred dollars yearly appropriated for increase of public library. R. C., c. 92, s. 1. 1840, c. 46.]

The sum of five hundred dollars is annually appropriated for the increase of the public library.

[Section 3609. Trustees of public library authorized to publish records, &c., belonging to the State, and bearing date prior to the year one thousand seven hundred and eighty-one, proviso; printing and binding to be done by public printer and binder at rates fixed by law; how paid. 1881, c. 88, s. 1.]

The trustees of the public library are hereby authorized to publish such number of volumes of suitable size of the records, papers, documents, and manuscripts, as they may deem proper, bearing date prior to the year one thousand seven hundred and eighty-one, belonging to the State of North Carolina: *Provided*, That the printing and binding shall be done by the public printer and binder at the rates fixed by law, and paid for out of the funds appropriated in the preceding section for the increase of the public libraries of the State.

[Section 3610. Colonial records missing from archives of State to be procured and published. 1883, pub. res., p. 619.]

The trustees of the public libraries are authorized and directed to procure such of the colonial records of this State as may be missing from the archives of the State, and to publish them with the records heretofore authorized to be published. And in case the library fund shall prove to be insufficient to meet the expenses incurred in carrying out this resolution, the auditor is directed to draw his warrant for such sums as the trustees aforesaid shall certify to him to be needed to complete said work.

[Section 3611. Trustees authorized to sell volumes printed under the preceding section. 1881, c. 88, s. 2.]

The said trustees shall have authority to sell, on such terms as they may deem proper, any volume printed under the preceding section that may not be reserved for the use of the said public libraries.

[Section 3612. Governor, superintendent of public instruction, and secretary of state made trustees for public libraries, State papers, etc.; two may constitute a quorum. 1871-72, c. 169, s. 3.]

The governor, superintendent of public instruction, and secretary of state, and their respective successors in office, are appointed trustees of the public libraries, documents, and all books, papers, and manuscripts belonging to the State of North

Carolina; and under their direction all moneys appropriated shall be expended, whether to the increase of the library or other purposes, except the salary of the librarian. And the board of trustees shall make rules and regulations by which the librarian shall be governed for the protection and preservation of the books and library.

[Section 3613. License tax to be applied to library of supreme court. Res. 1872–73.]

The clerk of the supreme court, under the direction of the justices of said court, is authorized, empowered, and directed to expend annually the amount paid in by applicants for license to practice law, who are examined by the court, in the purchase of such law books as may be necessary to keep the supreme court library well appointed, and no other appropriation shall be allowed for that purpose.

[Section 3614. Governor to designate documents to be preserved and bound; what books to be bound and labeled. R. C., c. 92, s. 4. 1840, c. 46, s. 6. 1842, c. 68, s. 3.]

The governor shall designate such portions of the documents, journals, and acts of the Congress of the United States as he may deem proper to be preserved in the library; may designate which of them are to be bound, of such pamphlets, acts, and journals of the general assembly, works of periodical literature, laws of other States and documents of the general assembly that may be added to the library; and the librarian shall have them bound. And all the books belonging to the library, or which may be added thereto, shall be labeled in gilt letters with the words "State Library;" and the governor may draw upon the treasurer for such sums as may be necessary to defray the expenses thereof.

[Section 3615. Penalty for injuring books. R. C., c. 92, s. 5. 1842, c. 68, s. 1.]

Any person who shall damage, deface, or mutilate any book which he may be allowed to withdraw from the library, or who shall return any book so damaged, defaced, or mutilated while in his possession, shall forfeit and pay the full amount of the damage, which amount shall be determined by the librarian, but in no case to exceed double the value of the book; and the fines and forfeitures accruing under this section shall be sued for and recovered by the librarian in the name of the State, before any justice of the peace; and the fines and forfeitures recovered shall be added to the fund for the increase of the library.

[Section 3616. State librarian to be librarian of the senate and house of representatives. 1858–59, c. 41, s. 1.]

The State librarian shall be the librarian of the senate and house of representatives, and he shall collect and arrange in the archives of the senate and house of representatives all the records and papers belonging thereto, wherever they may be found. He shall also collect and have bound, or otherwise suitably preserved for the library of the senate and house of representatives, such acts of our general assembly, reports, and documents to the number of three copies each, at least, together with such reports and documents as are or may hereafter be printed by the several internal improvement companies, and other companies or associations within the State; and also such reports, documents, and papers as have been printed by the Federal Government and the States and Territories of the Union, as may be proper to place therein, and which have not been obtained, under the act of the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-four, establishing a library of documents.

[Section 3617. Records, documents, &c., where to be kept. 1858–59, c. 41, s. 2.]

For the better preservation of the records, documents, and other papers by this chapter authorized to be collected, the State librarian shall cause to be erected in the offices of the clerk of the senate and the house of representatives and in the ante and committee rooms adjoining the chambers of the senate and house of representatives, such cases and shelves as will protect the same, and procure such furniture therefor as is necessary for the accommodation of persons using said libraries.

[Section 3618. Librarian to furnish library with documents, &c. 1858–59, c. 41, s. 3.]

The State librarian is hereby directed to furnish the libraries of the senate and house of representatives and of the university with such documents, reports, and other publications as are required by this chapter to be collected for the use thereof, and which may be in the State library or in the libraries of any of the departments: *Provided* the same can be done without diminishing the number necessary, in his opinion, or the opinion of the heads of the departments from which the same are taken, to be kept in each respectively; and the documents now required to be

furnished to the libraries of the senate and house of representatives shall be arranged and bound under the direction of the librarian thereof.

[Section 3619. Secretary of state to furnish copies of future supreme court reports and acts of assembly to colleges, &c., having libraries of not less than five thousand volumes. 1881, c. 277.]

The secretary of state, upon application made by the president of the university, or of any chartered institution of learning in the State which has a library or libraries of not less than five thousand volumes, shall furnish each of said institutions, to be kept in the college library, a copy of all future supreme court reports and acts of the general assembly, and journals of both houses, whenever the same shall be ready for distribution.

NORTH DAKOTA.

ARTICLE XXIV.—*Educational library.*

SEC. 252. (S. 1. c. 32, 1891. Appropriation, how paid.) There is hereby appropriated, out of any funds in the State treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of three hundred (300) dollars annually, to be paid by warrant of the State auditor on the State treasurer upon the presentation of an itemized bill in due form by the State superintendent, for the purchase of reference and pedagogical books for a State educational library in the office of the superintendent of public instruction.

ARTICLE XXVIII.—*Law library for university.*

SEC. 273. (S. 1. c. 179, 1890. Secretary of state to deliver certain books.) The secretary of state shall deliver to the University of North Dakota fifty copies of each volume of the general and special laws of the State, the reports of the decisions of the supreme court hereafter published, for use in the way of exchanges and otherwise, in the establishment and maintenance of a law library for the law department of said university.

SEC. 274. (S. 2, c. 179, 1890. Extra copies of the supreme court reports, etc.) The secretary of state is hereby authorized and directed to procure for the purpose aforesaid, from the publishers of the supreme court reports, fifty copies of each volume thereof hereafter published, in addition to the number authorized for other purposes, to be paid for at the same price and in the same manner as such reports are delivered to the secretary for other purposes.

SEC. 275. (S. 3, c. 179, 1890. Secretary to furnish certain laws, reports, etc., heretofore published.) The secretary of state is hereby authorized and directed to deliver to the University of North Dakota, for the purpose aforesaid, five copies of each volume of the general and special laws and supreme court reports heretofore published, if he shall have in his possession so many copies not required by law to be disposed of for other specific purposes, or so many of each of said volumes, not exceeding five, as he shall have in his possession, not so required by law for other specific purpose; and if he shall not have in his possession, subject to delivery to the university under the provisions aforesaid, five copies of each volume of said reports, of which additional copies may now be obtained from the publishers by the State under existing contracts, at the price now paid by the State for such reports, he is authorized and directed to procure from the publishers, to be paid for at the price and in the manner aforesaid, and deliver to the university enough additional copies of every such volume to make the number of five.

ARTICLE VI.—*District school board library.*

SEC. 74. (S. 14, c. 56, 1891.) It shall have power to purchase and keep for the use of the inhabitants of the school district a circulating library of the value of not more than fifty (50) dollars, to be selected by the school board from any list of books approved by the State superintendent and furnished to the county superintendents for that purpose, and it shall not purchase any books not contained in such list. With the consent of a majority of the voters of the school district at a meeting duly called for that purpose, due notice of which has been given as provided by law for other meetings of the voters of a school district, the district school board may purchase and select a library of the value of more than fifty (50) dollars but not to exceed five hundred (500) dollars in value. It shall have the care and custody of the library, and may appoint as librarian any person suited thereto, including one of their number. It shall make rules to govern the circulation and care of the books while in the hands of the pupil or other person, and shall prescribe and collect penalties for the injury done any book by the act, negligence, or permission of the person who draws the same or while in his possession. No book shall be loaned for a longer period than two weeks at any time to any one person, and never to any person not a

resident of the district. The library shall be open at least once each week for the accommodation of its patrons. It shall, under proper rules, permit teachers to take books from the library to their schools for use in illustrating any subject, and for instruction. It may at any time exchange any part or all of its library with any district or person, so far as different books may be so obtained for equal values of the books exchanged, and may at any time accept donations of books for the library, but it shall exclude therefrom all books unsuited to the cultivation of good character and good morals and manners, and no sectarian publications, devoted to discussions of sectarian differences and creeds, shall be admitted to the library.

OHIO.

LIBRARY LEGISLATION.

SECTION 3995.(*a*) In any district the board of education may appropriate money from the contingent fund for the purchase of such books, other than school books, as it may deem suitable for the use and improvement of the scholars and teachers of the district and in the purchase of philosophical or other apparatus for the demonstration of such branches of education as may be taught in the schools of the district, or for either of such purposes; but not more than one-half of the amount herein authorized to be appropriated shall be expended in the purchase of such apparatus; (*b*) such appropriations shall not exceed, in any one year, twelve hundred dollars in city districts containing cities of the first grade of the first class, three hundred dollars in other city districts of the first class, one hundred and fifty dollars in city districts of the second class, and seventy-five dollars in other districts; and the books so purchased shall constitute a school library, the control and management of which shall be vested in the board of education. The board of education of any city of the second class, fourth grade, having a free public library organized, in pursuance of law, may allow such free public library association the use and control of the public school library, subject, however, to such rules, regulations, and restrictions as said board of education may prescribe for the use and control thereof. [72 v., 29, § 51; 78 v., 110.]

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the general assembly of the State of Ohio*, That the board of education (*c*) of city, village, township, and special school districts in the State be, and are hereby, authorized to purchase for each school in either of said districts one copy of "Howe's Historical Collections of Ohio," to be used as a reference book in the study of the history of the State: *Provided*, That said book shall be in quality, style, binding, and finish equal to the present published edition of said work, bound in half Russian leather, and shall cost not to exceed three dollars per volume for each set of the three volumes; *Provided further*, That the price of the books and cost of transportation shall be paid out of the contingent fund of such district.

SEC. 2. Said books during the vacation of schools, or when the schools are not in session, shall be taken care of in the same manner that maps, globes, dictionaries, and other school apparatus are cared for and preserved.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage. [Passed April 8, 1892 (*d*).]

SEC. 3996. For the purpose of increasing and maintaining the school library of city districts the board of education may levy annually a tax of one-tenth of one mill on the dollar valuation of the taxable property thereof, to be assessed, collected, and paid in the same manner as are other school taxes of such districts. [64 v., 62, § 1.]

SEC. 3997. The amount of such tax, when collected, shall be expended, under the direction of the board, for the purchase of such books as are suitable for public school libraries, the bills for which, with the attendant expenses, shall be certified by the president and clerk and paid by the treasurer of the school funds. [64 v., 62, § 2.]

SEC. 3998. The board may appoint a librarian, fix his compensation, and make all needful rules and regulations for the management of the library, to which every family resident in such city districts shall have access. [64 v., 62, § 3.]

SEC. 3995 (*a*). For the establishment of a public library by township trustees, see Revised Statutes, sections 1476–1478. For powers of city and village councils, see section 1692, Revised Statutes.

b. The question sometimes arises as to what is apparatus. It is not customary to regard maps and charts as such. These, like clocks, desks, blackboards and blackboard furniture, would be classed among the essentials for furnishing a school, and they may probably be purchased under section 3987, as provisions necessary for the convenience and prosperity of the schools.

c. Boards of education may purchase "school or reading charts" for use in schools of their respective districts, and are not limited to the amount authorized to be expended by the provisions of section 3995, Revised Statutes. 2 O. Circuit Reports, 363.

d. Under the statute providing for instruction as to the nature of alcoholic drinks and narcotics, and their effects on the human system, in connection with the subject of physiology and hygiene, in all grades of the schools, and which makes it the duties of boards of education to make provision for such instruction, it seems a reasonable construction of the act that such boards are authorized to purchase such anatomical studies and charts as they may deem it necessary to give this instruction successfully without regard to limitations as to the amount to be expended, set forth in this section 3995.

SEC. 3999. In cities not having less than twenty thousand inhabitants, the board of education having custody of any public library therein may at any regular meeting adopt a resolution providing for a board of managers of such library, and shall thereupon elect, by ballot, two persons to serve as members of such board for a term of three years, two persons to serve for a term of one year; and annually thereafter two persons shall be elected to serve for a term of three years; all vacancies in such board shall be filled by the board of education by ballot, and a person so elected shall serve during the unexpired term of his predecessor; the president of the board of education shall be a member of the board of managers ex officio; and the board of managers shall at all times be amenable to and under the control of the board of education, as to tenure of office and authority, and shall serve without compensation. [64 v., 100, § 1.]

SEC. 4000. The public library board of the city of Cleveland shall consist of seven suitable persons, residents of said city, no one being a member or officer of the board of education. The members of the library board shall serve without compensation, and hold their offices for three years, and until their successors shall have been elected and qualified, except that at the first election two of the board shall be elected for one year, two for two years, and three for three years. After said first election so many shall be elected each year as equals the number whose term expires that year. They shall be elected by roll call, as in other cases, by the board of education of the city of Cleveland at its first regular meeting after the third Monday of April, 1886, and annually thereafter as hereinbefore provided. The board of education shall have power at any time to fill vacancies in the library board for unexpired terms by election as aforesaid. [75 v., 101, § 7; 80 v., 172; 83 v.; 104.]

SEC. 4001. Such library board shall report in writing to the board of education once each year, and oftener if required by the latter, shall have exclusive charge and control of the public library of the city, and shall have full power to make all rules and regulations for the government and management thereof; to employ a librarian and such assistants and helps as may be needed for the care and protection of the library, and to attend to the drawing and return of books; but prior to such employment the compensation of such librarian, assistants, and help, shall be fixed by the library board, by a majority of the members thereof voting in favor of such compensation on roll call by the secretary, and such librarian, assistants, and help shall be employed by a vote in the same manner. [76 v., 50, § 2; 78 v., 132; 80 v., 172.]

SEC. 4002. For the purpose of increasing and maintaining the public library in said city, and the territory thereto attached for school purposes, such library board may levy annually a tax of two and one-half tenths of one mill on each dollar valuation of the taxable property of the city and the territory thereto attached for school purposes, to be levied, collected, and paid in the same manner as are the school taxes of the city; all moneys appropriated, received, or collected by tax for the library shall be expended under the direction of the library board in purchasing such books, pamphlets, papers, magazines, periodicals, journals, and other property as may be deemed suitable for the public library, and in payment of all other charges and expenses, including compensation to the librarian, assistants and help that may be incurred in increasing and maintaining the library; and the pay rolls and all warrants upon the treasurer given to pay such expenditures, upon the order of the library board, be certified by the president and secretary of such board, and paid by the treasurer of the city from such library fund. [76 v., 50, § 3; 80 v., 103.]

SEC. 4003. In all cities, which at the last Federal census had, or at any subsequent Federal census may have, a population of ten thousand five hundred and ninety-two, it shall be lawful to merge any public library therein heretofore established with any other library or reading room therein existing; but the library formed by such consolidation shall be kept open for the use of the public at all reasonable hours. [75 v., 541, § 1; 76 v., 27, § 1.]

SEC. 4004. The board of education of every such city shall, at its first regular meeting after the second Monday in June, 1879, elect by ballot three suitable persons, residents of the city, but other than members of such board, who shall be known as the library committee of the city, one to serve for one year, one for two years, and one for three, and until their successors are duly elected and qualified, and shall, annually thereafter, elect in like manner one person with the same qualifications, to serve for three years, and until his successor is elected and qualified, and any vacancy in such committee shall be filled for the unexpired term at its first regular meeting of the board held after the same occurs. [75 v., 541, § 2; 76 v., 97, § 2.]

SEC. 4005. Such committee shall report in writing to the board of education at least once each year, and oftener if required by the board, and shall have entire charge and control of the school library in the city, with full power to make all rules and regulations for the government and regulation thereof, to employ a librarian, and such assistants and help as may be needed for its care and protection, and to require of the librarian such bond as they may deem proper for the faithful performance of his duties, and to attend to the drawing and return of books; but the salary

of such librarian, and the rate of compensation of such assistants and help, shall be fixed by resolution prior to such employment. [76 v., 97, § 3.]

SEC. 4006. For the purpose of increasing and maintaining school libraries in cities mentioned in section forty hundred and three of the Revised Statutes of Ohio, and the territory thereto attached for school purposes, such library committee in such cases is authorized to annually levy a tax of two-tenths of one mill on the dollar valuation of the taxable property of such cities aforesaid, and the territory thereto attached for school purposes, to be assessed, collected, and paid in the same manner as are the school taxes of such cities; and all money appropriated or collected by tax for such library shall be expended under the direction of said library committee in the purchase of such books, pamphlets, papers, magazines, periodicals, and journals as may be deemed suitable for the public school library, and in payment of all other costs and charges, including the salaries of the librarian and assistants, that may be incurred in maintaining such libraries, the bills and pay rolls for which said expenditures shall, upon the order of the library committee, be certified by the chairman and secretary of such committee, and paid by the treasurer of the board of education of said city from such library fund. [55 v., 541, § 2; 76 v., 97, § 4; 78 v., 176.] [Ohio school laws, 1893.]

PENNSYLVANIA.

DISTRICT SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

269. That whenever, by subscription or otherwise, a collection of books, or funds to purchase the same, shall have been obtained to form a public library in and for any common school district in this Commonwealth, it shall be the duty of the board of directors thereof, for the time being, to select the most suitable schoolhouse therein in which said library shall be placed, preferring, if otherwise expedient, the schoolhouse in which the district institute is held, and to provide out of the school funds of the district a suitable case or cases for said library, and for such additional books as may annually be added thereto.

270. That it shall be the duty of the said directors to receive into the district treasury all moneys contributed or otherwise obtained for the purchase or increase of the district library, and to select and purchase the books therefor, or to appoint a committee of the board or of not less than three citizens of the district, to make such selection and purchase, and also from time to time thereafter to make additional selections and purchases in the same manner, but that no books shall be donated or placed in said library without the approbation and consent of the selecting committee, nor shall the proper board of directors appropriate any of the school funds of the district to the purchase of books for the library, except such works of a strictly professional character, as shall be necessary and proper for the study and improvement of the teachers of the proper district; and all moneys received by said board for library purposes shall be annually accounted for at the settlement of its accounts, in the same manner as common school funds are now by law accounted for.

271. That the legal possession and ownership of the books, cases, and other appendages of the district library shall be and remain in the proper board of directors and their successors in office as trustees for the district, and that the felonious taking and carrying away thereof, or of any part thereof, or of any book, article of apparatus or furniture, from or belonging to any common schoolhouse, shall and is hereby declared to be larceny, and the breaking into a common schoolhouse at night with intent to commit larceny, as herein set forth, or any felony, shall and is hereby declared to be burglary, and that any larceny or burglary so committed shall be punished as in other cases under existing statutes.

272. That any person over twelve years of age, and resident in the proper district, whether contributor or not to the library, shall be entitled, without charge, to the use of the books thereof, according to the rules and regulations thereof; but that no book shall be issued to any minor without the order of his or her parent, guardian or master, who shall thereupon become liable to all the penalties for the abuse, loss, or undue detainment of any book by said minor; and all entries of the issue of books duly made in the library list by the librarian at the time of such issue shall be prima facia evidence thereof in a suit for any penalty, or for the value of any book.

273. That the proper board of directors, and their successors in office, shall make, and from time to time as shall be proper, alter and amend the necessary rules and regulations for the care, issue, use, and return of the books of the district library, and ordain such penalties for the abuse, loss, or undue detainment thereof as to them shall seem just and proper, which penalties shall be recoverable as debts of like amount are now by law recoverable; and such penalties shall either be payable to the librarian in compensation of his services, or into the library fund, as the proper board of directors shall determine.

274. That the secretary of the proper board of directors, or such other member as

the board may select, shall be the general librarian of the district library; and that the principal teacher of the school held in the house in which the library is kept shall be the assistant librarian while in charge of said school, and while so in charge such assistant librarian shall have the charge of the library, so far as relates to the care, issue, and return of the books, and the keeping of the list thereof; but that neither the librarian as secretary, nor the assistant as teacher, on going out of office shall receive his final instalment of salary till he shall first have accounted for all the books belonging to the library to the satisfaction of the proper board.

275. That when the pupils or other persons connected with the common school shall have procured books or funds for the purchase of books for a school library therefor, it shall be the duty of the directors of the proper district to provide out of the school funds of the district a suitable case therefor, and also for such additions as may subsequently from time to time be made thereto; and the selection and purchase of the books for such school library, and of all additions thereto, shall be made by a committee composed of the teacher of the school for the time being and of not less than two parents of pupils attending such school, to be chosen by all the attending pupils; but that no books shall be donated to or placed in said library without the approval of the proper selecting committee, and that it shall not be lawful for the board of directors to appropriate any of the funds of the district to the purchase of books for said school library.

276. That all the pupils of the proper school, and no other, shall be entitled to the use of the books of said library at their homes, subject to such rules relating to the care, use, and return thereof as the aforesaid committee for the selection and purchase thereof shall from time to time establish; and that one of the pupils of said school, to be selected by the other pupils, with the consent of the selecting committee aforesaid, shall be the librarian of the school library.

277. That the legal possession and ownership of the school library shall be in the proper board of directors; the felonious taking thereof shall be larceny, the issue list thereof shall be prima facie evidence of delivery, and the penalties for the abuse, loss, or detention of books shall be recoverable as hereinbefore provided in the case of district libraries.

278. That it shall be lawful for common school directors of any district to receive, hold, and use any devise, bequest, gift, grant, or endowment of property, whether real or personal, which may be made to them for the establishment, increase, or support, either of a district or of a school library in existence or to be established under the provisions of this act, and the same to apply to the establishment, increase, and efficiency thereof, subject, however, to any terms, conditions, or restrictions attached to such devise, bequest, gift, grant, or endowment, and not inconsistent with the purposes of this act; and the said directors and their successors in office shall have authority to bring suit and to do all other things necessary for the recovery, use, and application of the same to the purposes aforesaid. [Pennsylvania school laws, 1894.]

RHODE ISLAND.

CHAPTER 34, SECTION 6. The electors of the city of Providence, at the annual election for members of the city council, may, by a majority vote of such electors voting, and the electors in every other town qualified to vote upon any proposition to impose a tax, or for the expenditure of money in such town, may, by a majority vote of such electors voting at the annual meeting for the election of town officers or members of the city council therein, appropriate a sum not exceeding twenty-five cents on each one hundred dollars of the ratable property of such town in the next year preceding such appropriation, for the foundation therein of a free public library, with or without branches, for all the inhabitants thereof, and to provide suitable rooms for such library, which shall be used under such regulations as may from time to time be prescribed by the town council of such town or city council of such city.

SEC. 7. Any town having established a free public library therein, in manner as aforesaid, may annually, by the majority vote of the electors thereof, qualified as aforesaid, and voting on the proposition, appropriate a sum not exceeding twenty cents on each one thousand dollars of its ratable property, in the next year preceding such appropriation, for the maintenance and increase of such library therein, and may take, receive, hold, and manage any devise, bequest, or donation for the establishment, increase, or maintenance of a public library therein, to be under such regulations for its government, when they are not prescribed by its donor, as may from time to time be prescribed by the town council of such town or the city council of such city: *Provided*, That the town of Pawtucket may appropriate a sum not exceeding thirty cents on each one thousand dollars of its ratable property.

CHAPTER 47, SECTION 6. The board of education may cause to be paid annually to and for the use of each free public library established and maintained in the State, and to be expended in the purchase of books therefor, a sum not exceeding fifty dollars for the first five hundred volumes included in such library, and twenty-five

dollars for every additional five hundred volumes therein: *Provided*, That the annual payment for the benefit of any one such library shall not exceed the sum of five hundred dollars.

SEC. 7. The board of education shall from time to time establish rules prescribing the character of the books which shall constitute such a library as will be entitled to the benefits conferred by the preceding section, regulating the management of such library so as to secure the free use of the same to the people of the town and neighborhood in which it shall be established, and directing the mode in which the sums paid in pursuance of this chapter shall be expended. No library shall receive any benefit under the foregoing provisions, unless such rules shall have been complied with by those in charge thereof, nor until they shall have furnished to said board satisfactory evidence of the number and character of the books contained in said library.

SEC. 8. Every payment herein authorized shall be made by the general treasurer upon the order of the commissioner of public schools, approved by the board of education, and payable to the librarian or other person having charge of such library or of the funds applied to its support designated by said board.

CHAPTER 242, SECTION 45. Every person who wilfully and maliciously or wantonly and without cause writes upon, injures, defaces, tears, or destroys any book, pamphlet, plate, picture, engraving, or statue, or other property belonging to any law, town, city, or other free public library, or suffers any such injury to be inflicted while said property is in his custody, shall be fined not less than one dollar nor more than ten dollars, the same to be for the use of the library.

SEC. 46. Every person who shall take or borrow from any law, town, city, or other free or public library any book, pamphlet, paper, or other property of said library, and who upon neglect to return the same within the time required and specified in the by-laws, rules, or regulations of the library owning the property, has been notified by the librarian or other proper custodian of the property that the same is overdue, shall upon further neglect to return the same within two weeks from date of such notice be considered to have unlawfully converted the property of the library to his own use. A written or printed notice, given personally or sent by mail to the last known or registered place of residence, shall be considered a sufficient notice.

CHAPTER 395, SECTION 1. Every town not owning a free public library may at the annual town meeting appropriate a sum not exceeding twenty cents on each one thousand dollars of its ratable property in the year next preceding such appropriation for the maintenance and increase of any free public library therein.

CHAPTER 1068, SECTION 1. In case any library, or funds for the establishment thereof, may be offered to any city or town on the condition that said library shall be maintained as a free public library, the city council of any city, or town council of any town, is hereby authorized to accept such gift in behalf of the city or town.

SEC. 2. Whenever any city or town shall establish a free public library, or shall become possessed, as above provided, of any such library, the aforesaid city council or town council, as the case may be, shall proceed to elect a board of trustees, to consist of not less than three members nor more than seven. As soon as possible after the election of the first board the members thereof shall meet and be divided by lot into three groups or classes, the terms of office of one group expiring in one year from the date of their election, those of another group in two years, and those of the remaining group in three years. With the expiration of the term of office of any member the vacancy shall be filled by the city council or town council, as the case may be, for the term of three years. Vacancies occurring by resignation, removal, death, or otherwise shall be filled as above for the unexpired term thereof.

SEC. 3. The aforesaid trustees shall take possession of said libraries, and shall thereafter be the legal guardians and custodians of the same. They shall provide suitable rooms for the library, arrange for the proper care of the same, choose one or more competent persons as librarians, and fix their compensation, and make all needful rules and regulations for the government of the library and the use of the books, provided that no fee for the use of the books shall ever be exacted.

SEC. 4. Each city or town acting under this chapter shall annually appropriate for the support of the public library an amount at least as much as that which the library shall receive from the State. All appropriations from the city or town and State, and the income of all funds belonging to the library, shall be subject to the exclusive control of the trustees, and the several city and town treasurers shall pay, within the limits of the appropriations and other library funds in their hands, all bills certified by the said trustees.

SEC. 5. In case of any bequest, legacy, or gift to or in favor of a public library, the trustees thereof are hereby authorized and empowered to accept the same in behalf of and for the use of the library, and their receipt shall be a full and sufficient discharge and release to any executor, administrator, or other person authorized to make the payment thereof.

SEC. 6. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent herewith are hereby repealed. [Public Statutes of Rhode Island, 1882–83.]

UTAH.

TERRITORIAL LIBRARY.

AN ACT providing for and regulating the Utah Territorial library.

CHAPTER 67, SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the governor and legislative assembly of the Territory of Utah*, That the books, pamphlets, maps, charts, globes, papers, apparatus, and valuable specimens belonging to the Territory now in the Territorial library, or which shall hereafter be added thereto, shall constitute the Utah Territorial library.

SEC. 2. That the governor, secretary, chief justice, and associate justices of the supreme court of the Territory shall constitute the board of control of the Territorial library.

SEC. 3. The board of control may, in their discretion, classify the books and articles named in section 1 of this act, and deliver to and place in the library of the University of Deseret such books and articles belonging to and composing the Territorial library as they may consider more useful to the university library than to the Territorial library, and any books or articles so delivered to the university library shall thereupon become and thereafter remain a portion of the university library.

SEC. 4. The public shall have access to the library, and the board of control may make such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the provisions of this act, as they may deem proper, for the use of the library by the public and the officers herein named, and may prescribe penalties for any violation thereof, which shall be collected in the same manner as forfeitures for the nonreturn or injury of any book.

SEC. 5. Books may be taken from the Utah Territorial library by members of the legislature and its officers, and at any time by the officers of the executive department of the Territory, justices of the supreme court, the marshal and attorney for the Territory, but no other person shall be permitted to take or detain any book from the library.

SEC. 6. The governor, by and with the advice and consent of the legislative council, shall appoint a Territorial librarian, who shall cause to be kept a register of all books issued and returned, showing to whom they are issued, by whom they are returned, and the time they are so issued and returned; and no book except the laws, journals, and reports of the Territory, which may be taken from the library, shall be detained more than ten days, except when taken for the use of officers and members of the legislature while it is in session, and all books taken out by officers or members of the legislature shall be returned at the close of the session.

SEC. 7. If any person injure or fail to return any book taken from the library, he shall forfeit and pay to the librarian, for the use of the library, the damage thereto, including costs and reasonable counsel fees for collecting the same, to be recovered in an action in the name of the Territory in any court of competent jurisdiction; and it shall be the duty of the librarian in behalf of the Territory to commence suit for the collection of all such forfeitures and all fines.

SEC. 8. The librarian shall on or before the twentieth day of December in each year report to the governor the condition of the library, stating the number of volumes contained therein, the number of volumes purchased during the last year and the cost thereof, the number of volumes received by donation, the number of volumes injured or not returned, if any, and the amounts received in compensation therefor, and such suggestions and further information as may be deemed by him desirable.

SEC. 9. The sum of five hundred dollars per annum is hereby appropriated and ordered paid out of the Territorial treasury, in the usual manner, to be used by the board of control of the library, in the payment of the librarian for services, and of rent for rooms in which to keep the library. The sum of three hundred dollars is hereby appropriated and ordered paid in the usual manner out of the Territorial treasury, for the preparation and printing of a catalogue of the Territorial library, under direction of the board of control.

SEC. 10. The sum of three thousand dollars is hereby appropriated and ordered paid out of the Territorial treasury in the usual manner, to be used by the board of control of the library for the purchase of cases and such new and additional volumes for the use of the library as the said board of control may consider advisable.

SEC. 11. It shall be the duty of the librarian to make out a written catalogue, conveniently arranged in alphabetical order, and cause the same to be printed and distributed to the officers entitled to the use of such library, of all books, pamphlets, maps, charts, globes, papers, apparatus, and valuable specimens in the library, adding thereto as the library is increased; which catalogue shall be kept for the use of those authorized to use books. He shall also make out and place in some conspicuous place a copy of the rules and regulations of the library.

SEC. 12. It shall be the duty of the librarian to cause every book in the library to

be labeled with printed or stamped label containing the words "Utah Territorial Library," and also cause the same words to be written or stamped on the thirtieth page of each volume.

SEC. 13. The board of control of the library may sell or exchange any surplus or duplicate sets of reports or law books in the library, and use the money arising from such sale in purchasing other law books or reports for the library.

SEC. 14. If the librarian shall permit or allow any person not authorized by this act to take a book from the library, he shall be liable, upon conviction thereof, to pay a fine of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars for each book so taken. All fines and forfeitures collected shall be used for the benefit of the library according to the best judgment of the board.

SEC. 15. If any person not authorized by this act shall take a book from the library, either with or without the consent of the librarian, or violate any of the provisions of this act, he shall upon conviction thereof be fined in any sum not less than ten nor more than fifty dollars for each book so taken.

SEC. 16. All acts or parts of acts superseded by or in conflict with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 17. This act shall take effect at twelve o'clock, noon, on the first day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety. [Approved, March 13, 1890. Laws of the Territory of Utah, 1890.]

AN ACT to authorize cities and towns to establish and maintain free public libraries and reading rooms.

Be it enacted by the legislature of the State of Utah:

SECTION 1. That the city council of each city of the first and second class shall have power to establish and maintain a public library and reading room for the use and benefit of the inhabitants of such city, and may levy a tax of not to exceed one-third of one mill on the dollar, annually, on all the taxable property in the city, such tax to be levied and collected in like manner with other general taxes of said city, and to be known as the library fund: *Provided*, That no such tax shall be levied in the first instance in any city of the first class until a petition, signed by at least one thousand qualified voters and property taxpayers, shall have been filed with the city council of such city, nor in any city of the second class, until such a petition, signed by at least two hundred and fifty qualified voters and property taxpayers, residents of such city, shall have been so filed.

SEC. 2. When any city council in cities of the first and second class shall have decided to establish and maintain a public library and reading room, under this act, the mayor of such city shall, with the approval of the city council, proceed to appoint a board of nine directors for same, chosen fromthe citizens at large with reference to their fitness for such office; and not more than one member of the city council shall be at any one time a member of said board.

SEC. 3. Said directors shall hold office: One-third for one year, one-third for two years, and one-third for three years, from the first day of July following their appointment, and at their first regular meeting shall cast lots for the respective terms; and annually thereafter the mayor shall, before the first of July of each year, appoint, as before, three directors to take the place of the retiring directors, who shall hold office for three years, and until their successors are appointed. The mayor may, by and with the consent of the city council, remove any director for misconduct or neglect of duty.

SEC. 4. Vacancies in the board of directors, occasioned by removals, resignation, or otherwise, shall be reported to the city council, and be filled in like manner as original appointments, and no director shall receive any compensation.

SEC. 5. Said directors shall, immediately after appointment, meet and organize by the election of one of their number as president, and by the election of such other officers as they may deem necessary. They shall make and adopt such by-laws, rules, and regulations for their own guidance and for the government of the library and reading room as may be expedient not inconsistent with this act. They shall have the exclusive control of the expenditure of all moneys collected to the credit of the library fund, and of the construction of any library building, and of the supervision, care, and custody of the grounds, rooms and building constructed, leased, or set apart for that purpose: *Provided*, That all moneys received for such library shall be deposited in the treasury of said city to the credit of the library fund, and shall be kept separate and apart from other moneys of such city, and drawn upon by the proper officers of such city upon the properly authenticated vouchers of the library board. Said board shall have power to purchase or lease grounds, to lease or erect an appropriate building or buildings for the use of said library, to appoint a suitable librarian and necessary assistants, to fix their compensation, to remove such appointees at will, and in general to carry out the spirit and intent of this act in establishing and maintaining a public library and reading room.

SEC. 6. Every library and reading room established under this act shall be forever free to the use of the inhabitants of the city where located, subject, however, to such reasonable rules and regulations as the library board may adopt in order to render the use of said library and reading room of the greatest benefit to the greatest number; and said board may exclude from the use of said library and reading room any and all persons who shall wilfully violate such rules. Said board may extend the privileges and use of such library and reading room to persons residing outside of such city, but in the State, upon such terms and conditions as said board may from time to time by its regulations prescribe.

SEC. 7. The said board of directors shall make, on or before the second Monday in June, an annual report to the city council, stating the condition of their trusts on the first day of June of that year, the various sums of money received from the library fund and from other sources, and how such moneys have been expended, and for what purposes; the number of books and periodicals on hand; the number added by purchase, gift, or otherwise, during the year; the number lost or missing; the number of visitors attending; the number of books loaned out, and the general character and kind of such books, with such other statistics, information, and suggestions as they may deem of general interest. All such portions of said report as relate to the receipt and expenditure of money, as well as the number of books on hand, books lost or missing, and books purchased, shall be verified by affidavit.

SEC. 8. The city council of said city shall have power to pass ordinances imposing suitable penalties for the punishment of persons committing injury upon such library or the grounds or other property thereof and for injury to or failure to return any book belonging to such libraries.

SEC. 9. Any person desiring to make donations of money, personal property, or real estate for the benefit of such library shall have the right to vest the title to the money or real estate so donated in the board of directors created under this act, to be held and controlled by such board, when accepted, according to the terms of the deed, gift, devise, or bequest of such property; and as to such property said board shall be held and considered to be special trustees.

SEC. 10. When fifty legal voters of any city of the third class or any town shall present a petition to the recorder or clerk of such city or town asking that an annual tax be levied for the establishment and maintenance of a free public library in such city or town, and shall specify in their petition a rate of taxation not to exceed one mill on the dollar, such recorder or clerk shall, in the next legal notice of a regular biennial election in such city or town, give notice that at such election every elector who shall have paid a property tax therein in the year next preceding such election may vote "For a mill tax for a free public library, Yes—No," specifying in such notice the rate of taxation mentioned in said petition; and if the majority of all the votes cast in such city or town shall be "for the tax for the free public library," the tax specified in such notice shall be levied and collected in like manner with other general taxes of said city or town, and shall be known as the "library fund:" *Provided*, That such tax shall cease in case the legal voters of any such city or town shall so determine by a majority vote at any biennial election held therein; and the corporate authorities of such cities of the third class and towns may exercise the same powers conferred upon corporate authorities of cities of the first and second class under this act.

SEC. 11. At the same election that any city of the third class or town shall vote on the proposition to levy a tax and to establish a free public library there may be elected a library board of six directors, one-third for two years, one-third for four years, one-third for six years, and biennially thereafter there shall be elected two directors, who shall hold their office for six years, and until their successors are elected and qualified; which board shall have the same powers as are by this act conferred upon the board of directors of free public libraries in cities of the first and second class, and said directors shall receive no compensation.

SEC. 12. When the question of a tax for a library fund shall be submitted as provided in section 10 of this act, ballots shall be prepared containing only the words, "For a —— mill tax for a free public library, Yes—No," and the names of the voters chosen for directors of such free public library; and a special ballot box shall be provided for the reception of such ballots. [Approved March 18, 1896. Laws of Utah, 1896, Chapter LIV.]

VERMONT.

AN ACT to promote the establishment of free public libraries.

SECTION 1. The governor shall appoint five persons, residents of the State, who shall constitute a board of library commissioners. The governor shall designate the chairman thereof. One member of said board shall be appointed for the term of five years, one for four years, one for three years, one for two years, and one for one

year; and thereafter the term of office of the commissioners shall be five years. All vacancies on said board, whether occurring by expiration of term or otherwise, shall be filled by the governor.

SEC. 2. The librarian or trustees of any free public library may ask said board for advice in regard to the selection of books, the cataloguing of books, and any other matters pertaining to the maintenance or administration of the library; and the board shall give such advice in regard to said matters as it shall find practicable. The board shall make a report of its doings biennially to the general assembly.

SEC. 3. Said board shall expend, upon the application of the board of library trustees of any town having no free public library owned and controlled by the town, a sum not exceeding one hundred dollars for books for any such town entitled to the benefits of this act; such books shall be used by said trustees for the purpose of establishing a free public library, and said commissioners shall select and purchase all books so provided.

SEC. 4. No town shall be entitled to the benefits of this act until such town has elected a board of library trustees and voted to instruct such board to make an application to the State board of library commissioners under this act, and until such trustees have provided in a manner satisfactory to the State board for the care, custody, and distribution of the books furnished in accordance with this act. The provisions of number three of the acts of 1892 shall apply to the elections of boards of library trustees under this section and to said trustees when so elected.

SEC. 5. Any town which has voted to instruct its library trustees to make an application to the State board of library commissioners under this act shall annually appropriate for the maintenance of its free public library a sum not less than fifty dollars if its grand list is ten thousand dollars or upward, or a sum not less than twenty-five dollars if its grand list is less than ten thousand dollars and not less than twenty-five hundred dollars, or a sum not less than fifteen dollars if its grand list is less than twenty-five hundred dollars.

SEC. 6. No member of the State board of library commissioners shall receive any compensation, but the board may expend a sum not exceeding three hundred dollars annually for necessary expenses in the discharge of its duties, including all expenses for the transportation of books; and all sums lawfully expended by said board under the provisions of this act shall be paid from the State treasury.

SEC. 7. Whenever any town shall have accepted the conditions prescribed in this act the State board of library commissioners shall so certify to the State Auditor, and he shall draw an order upon the treasurer payable to said commissioners for one hundred dollars, to be expended in the purchase of books as provided in this act.

SEC. 8. The State board of library commissioners shall have the power to make such rules for their own government and for the care of the libraries which may be furnished by the State as they may deem expedient and not inconsistent with the laws of this State.

SEC. 9. This act shall take effect from its passage, and shall be subject to future legislation to alter, amend, or repeal. [Approved November 6, 1894.]

No. 38.—AN ACT to facilitate the establishment of free public libraries in cities, villages, and towns of this State by devise or endowment.

SECTION 1. That whenever property, real or personal, has heretofore been or shall hereafter be devised or bequeathed by last will and testament, or granted, conveyed, or donated by deed or other instrument, to trustees, to be applied by them to the foundation and establishment in any of the cities, villages, and towns of this State of a free public library, it shall be lawful, when not otherwise provided in said will or other instrument of gift, for the acting trustees in any such case, in order to promote the better establishment, maintenance, and management of such library, to cause to be formed a corporation under the provisions of this act, with the rights, powers, and privileges hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. Such acting trustees may make, sign, and acknowledge before any officer authorized to take acknowledgments of deeds in this State and file in the office of the secretary of state a statement in writing in which shall be set forth the intent of such trustees to form a corporation under this act; a copy of the will or other instrument by which endowment of said library has been provided; the name adopted for the proposed corporation (which shall not be the name of any other corporation already existing); the city, village, or town in which the library and the principal place of business of the corporation will be located; the number of managers who may be denominated trustees, managers, or directors of the corporation; and the names of the trustees, managers, or directors who are to constitute the original board of such officers, and who shall hold until their successors respectively are elected and qualified, as in this act provided.

SEC. 3. Upon the filing in his office of such statement as aforesaid, the secretary of state shall issue to the incorporators, under his hand and the seal of State, a certificate, of which the aforesaid statement shall be a part, declaring that the organiza-

tion of the corporation is perfected. The incorporators shall thereupon cause such certificate to be recorded in a proper record book for the purpose in the office of the county clerk of the county in which the said library is to be located; and thereupon the corporation shall be deemed fully organized, and may proceed to carry out its corporate purposes, and may receive, by conveyance from the trustees under said will, deed, or other instrument of donation, the property provided by will or otherwise as aforesaid for the endowment of said library, and may hold the same in whatever form it may have been received or conveyed by said trustees until such form shall be changed by the action of said corporation.

SEC. 4. Organizations formed under this act shall be bodies corporate and politic, to be known under the names stated in the respective certificates or articles of incorporation; and by such corporate names they shall have and possess the ordinary rights and incidents of corporations, and shall be capable of taking, holding, and disposing of real and personal estate for all purposes of their organization. The provisions of any will, deed, or other instrument by which endowment is given to said library and accepted by said trustees, managers, or directors shall, as to such endowment, be a part of the organic and fundamental law of such corporation.

The trustees, managers, or directors of any such corporation shall compose its members, and shall not be less than five nor more than nine in number, shall elect the officers of the corporation from their number, and shall have control and management of its affairs and property; may accept donations, and in their discretion hold the same in the form in which they are given, for all purposes of science, literature, and art germane to the object and purpose of said corporation. They may fill by election, subject to the approval of the chief justice for the time being of the supreme court of Vermont, vacancies occurring in their own number by death, incapacity, retirement, or otherwise, and may make lawful by-laws for the management of the corporation and of the library, which by-laws shall set forth what officers there shall be of the corporation and shall define and describe their respective duties. They may appoint and employ from time to time such agents and employes as they may deem necessary for the efficient administration and conduct of the library and other affairs of the corporation. Whenever any trustee, manager, or director shall be elected to fill any vacancy, a certificate under the seal of the corporation, giving the name of the person elected, shall be recorded in the office of the county clerk where the articles of incorporation are recorded.

Whenever by the provisions of such will, deed, or other instrument by which endowment is created the institution endowed is declared to be and is free and public, the library and other property of such corporation shall be forever exempt from taxation.

The trustees, managers, or directors of such corporation shall, in the month of January in each year, cause to be made a report to the governor of the State, for the year ending on the 31st day of December preceding, of the condition of the library and of the funds and other property of the corporation showing the assets and investments of such corporation in detail.

SEC. 5. This act shall take effect from and after its passage. [Approved November 27, 1894.]

No. 39.—AN ACT to provide libraries with certain public documents.

SECTION 1. When a town has established a public library under the provisions of No. 53 of the acts of 1892, said town may at any annual meeting vote to place in such library a copy of such documents and volumes heretofore received by said town for it or its town clerk's office, as it shall designate, and also a copy of such documents and volumes hereafter to be received from the State, except the Vermont reports and other books and documents provided by law to be kept in the town clerk's office, as it shall designate; the ownership of such books to continue in the town, but their use to be enjoyed by the library till said town shall otherwise vote.

SEC. 2. The State librarian is directed to deliver to any town public library that shall have been voted by its town the use of books owned as above by the town such duplicate documents and volumes published or provided by the State as can in the judgment of the trustees of the State library be delivered without prejudice to the State library, said books to be delivered upon application stating what books have already been received from the town, and the property in said books to remain in the State, but their use to be in the public library to which they shall be delivered until the State librarian shall be directed by law to demand their return to the State library.

SEC. 3. When a public library exists in a town and is not established under the provisions of said act No. 53 of 1892, said town may at any annual meeting by a two-thirds vote make the provisions named in section 1 of this act, in respect to use by the library of books therein named owned by the town; and in case of such vote the provisions of section 2 of this act shall apply to such library the same as if it were organized under said act No. 53 of 1892.

SEC. 4. The clerk of each town, village, and city in this State shall each year supply any library in the town or city in which he lives with two copies of the annual reports (if printed) of his town, village, or city; and shall also send to the State library for its use two copies of the same. Said copies shall be so delivered by the clerk within two weeks after receipt of such printed reports by him. And officers making such printed reports are hereby directed to supply the town, village, or city clerk with the four copies necessary for him to comply with the provisions of this section.

SEC. 5. The first three sections of this act shall apply to cities as well as towns. [Approved November 27, 1894. Laws of Vermont, session of 1894.]

VIRGINIA.

The secretary of the Commonwealth to be general librarian.—He shall be general librarian and have charge of the library fund. He shall account for, apply, and pay over all moneys which may come to his hands as librarian, and his official bond shall be a security for the performance of all his duties both as secretary and librarian.

Library fund.—The books and maps belonging to the State shall constitute the library fund, except such books or maps as may be appropriated in some way inconsistent herewith.

Donations from fund.—Out of the books and maps constituting the library fund such donations may from time to time be made to public libraries, learned societies, colleges, and other institutions as may be deemed advisable by the library committee hereinafter mentioned.

The general librarian shall furnish the universities, and any incorporated college of the State in which a law school is established, and the College of William and Mary for its law school, and which has not heretofore been furnished, out of any surplus copies on hand, with one copy of Henning's Statutes, the journal, debates, and ordinances of the several State conventions, the journals of the senate and house of delegates, of the acts of assembly, and of the codes, and also eight copies of any law reports on hand or which may hereafter be on hand, and every incorporated college and academy in the State with a copy of the maps.

Books and maps to be sold.—All the rest of the books and maps constituting the said fund, except such as it may be proper to have in the libraries belonging to the State, shall be sold.

How sold; prices.—From time to time he may place a reasonable number of copies of the reports of decisions, of the maps, and of any other books which may seem to him advisable in the hands of booksellers to be sold upon a reasonable commission, selecting such booksellers as may seem to him best, and taking in every case an obligation from the bookseller, specifying the books and maps placed in his hands, the prices at which they are to be sold, and for what commission, and binding him, when thereto required by the librarian, to account for the said books and maps, return such as may not have been sold, and pay for those sold at the prices specified, after deducting the commission for selling. The librarian may himself sell any of the said books and maps or make exchanges thereof for other works.

Library committee to fix prices of reports.—The library committee shall determine the prices at which the several volumes of reports of decisions of the court of appeals shall be sold and the amount of commissions to be allowed on such sales.

Library committee, its general duties; report.—A joint committee of the general assembly, to be called the library committee, shall be appointed biennally, which shall have the direction of the library and library fund, may make such rules for the regulation of the library, not inconsistent with this chapter, and prescribe such penalties for violations thereof as may seem to it proper. The general librarian shall, annually, make a report to this committee of his proceedings, stating therein, among other things, in detail all purchases made, from whom made, and at what prices, and render an account of the receipts and disbursements of the library fund. The committee shall examine his accounts and proceedings, and determine the prices at which the books and maps constituting the library fund may be sold. A journal of the proceedings of the library committee shall be kept by the general librarian, who shall act as its clerk, and the committee shall report fully to the general assembly.

Additions to the State and law libraries.—There shall be annually procured such books in law, literature, science, and the arts and such maps and charts as it may seem to the committee desirable to procure. After making the purchases necessary for the State library the committee shall cause to be purchased, out of the library fund, such books as may be required by the judges for the law libraries at Staunton and Wytheville: *Provided*, That not more than three hundred dollars shall be expended in any one year in the purchase of books for each of the libraries at said places.

Historical works and relics.—The committee shall especially cause to be procured from time to time as opportunity may offer a copy of any book, pamphlet, or manu-

script, work of art, or relic relating to the history of Virginia not now in the general library, which can be obtained on reasonable terms, and may cause to be printed any manuscripts relating to the history of Virginia which have not been published, including such portions of the executive journals and executive letter books and of the legislative papers as the committee may deem proper to print in the calendar of State papers, and shall cause the legislative papers to be so printed to be arranged for that purpose and preserved for reference.

Librarian to make purchases.—The general librarian shall make such purchases and do such other things as the committee may direct within the scope of their powers. And he shall have under his care, in the room provided therefor in the capitol, the general library and every thing therein.

General library, when to be opened.—The general library shall be kept open every day in the year (Sundays and holidays excepted), such hours in each day as the library committee may direct.

Doorkeeper of library; his pay.—There shall be a doorkeeper of the general library, appointed by and removable at the pleasure of the secretary of the Commonwealth, by whom his duties shall be prescribed. He shall receive for his services thirty dollars per month, payable out of the public treasury upon the certificate of the secretary of the Commonwealth.

Who may use the general library.—The judges of the court of appeals, the governor, attorney-general, reporter of the court of appeals, members of the general assembly, and such other officers of government as the library committee may deem proper, shall be allowed to use the general library. And any of them may, under such regulations and penalties as the committee may prescribe, take from the library any book, except such as the committee shall determine is necessary always to be kept therein.

In transmitting the above, Hon. John E. Massey, State superintendent of public instruction of Virginia, observes: "I regret to say that nothing, practically, has been done in this State looking to the organization of school libraries. In several of the cities some attention has been paid to the matter, but nothing like a movement has ever been made in the State, so far as I know.

"The State constitution provides that 'The board of education (State) shall provide for uniformity of text-books and the furnishing of schoolhouses with such apparatus and library as may be necessary, under such regulations as may be provided by law.'

"The statute provides that 'uniformity of text-books and the furnishing of schoolhouses with such apparatus and library as may be necessary shall be provided for on some gradual system by the board of education.'"

WISCONSIN.

AN ACT to promote the establishment and efficiency of free public libraries in the State of Wisconsin.

The people of the State of Wisconsin, represented in senate and assembly, do enact as follows:

SECTION 1. The governor shall appoint two persons who, with the president of the University of Wisconsin, the State superintendent, and the corresponding secretary of the State historical society, shall constitute a State library commission. One of the members appointed by the governor shall be appointed for a term of five years, and the other shall be appointed for a term of four years. All subsequent appointments shall be for terms of five years each, except appointments to fill vacancies. The commission shall annually elect a chairman and a secretary.

SEC. 2. The commission shall give advice and counsel to all free libraries in the State, and to all communities which may propose to establish them, as to the best means of establishing and administering such libraries, the selection of books, cataloguing, and other details of library management. The commission may also send its members to aid in organizing new libraries or in improving those already established. The commission shall make a biennial report to the governor, and one thousand copies of this report shall be published as other official reports are published.

SEC. 3. No member of the commission shall receive any compensation for services as a member, but their traveling expenses in attending meetings of the commission or in visiting or establishing libraries and other incidental and necessary expenses connected with the work of the commission shall be paid: *Provided*, That the whole amount shall not exceed the sum of five hundred dollars in any one year. All bills incurred by the commission or by its members under this law shall be certified by the chairman and secretary of the commission to the secretary of state, who shall cause the same to be paid from the State treasury, and there is hereby annually appropriated from the general funds in the State treasury, not otherwise appropriated, a sufficient sum to carry into effect the provisions of this act.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication. [Approved April 19, 1895. Laws of Wisconsin, 1895.]

WYOMING.

TERRITORIAL LIBRARY.

SECTION 1736. There shall be a Territorial librarian who shall be appointed by the governor of the Territory, by and with the consent of the legislative council, who shall hold his office for the term of two years, and until his successor is duly appointed and qualified. [C. L. 1876, ch. 110, § 1.]

SEC. 1737. The librarian shall have the charge and custody of all books, maps, papers, charts, engravings, paintings, and all other things properly belonging to the library, or directed to be deposited therein, and shall also keep a regular file of all newspapers published in the Territory which shall be donated thereto.

SEC. 1738. It shall be the duty of the librarian to receive and transfer all books or documents sent by other States or Territories to the Territorial library from the post-office or other depot to which they may have been consigned, and to properly label and arrange them in the library.

SEC. 1739. The Territorial librarian shall cause the receipt of each book, map, or other document that may come into his possession to be acknowledged, and he shall keep a record of all books and documents so received, and shall report the same as provided by law.

SEC. 1740. And the librarian shall have full power to make any rules and regulations proper and necessary for the preservation and increase of the library not inconsistent with law, which the librarian shall in all cases observe, and to superintend and direct all expenditures and appropriations made for the library, under the supervision and control of the judges of the supreme court.

SEC. 1741. The librarian is hereby directed to exchange statutes, journals, legislative documents, and other books with other legislative bodies and libraries, as he shall deem proper.

SEC. 1742. It shall be the duty of the librarian to issue books upon the order of the chief justice or either of the associate justices of the Territory, or upon the order of the governor of the Territory: *Provided*, That in each case said justices and governor shall become responsible to the Territory of Wyoming for the return of said books in as good order as when they were taken from the library, and if any damage be done said books, or they be lost, the librarian shall estimate the damage or value of said books, and, if necessary, recover the same of either the party authorizing the loan or the party receiving them, by civil process, in the name of the Territory of Wyoming.

SEC. 1743. The librarian shall, on the first day of each regular session of the legislature, make a full and complete report of all receipts and expenditures, and of the condition of the library, and all other matters in relation thereto, for the information of the legislative assembly.

SEC. 1744. It shall be the duty of the librarian to issue a printed circular to the citizens of the Territory, inviting them to deposit in the Territorial cabinet such minerals and geological specimens as any citizen may find on his premises or in any portion of the Territory.

SEC. 1745. Whenever any such specimens may be deposited in the cabinet it shall be the duty of the librarian to correctly label and classify each specimen, and to enter in the book kept for that purpose the name of the donor and the character and quality of each specimen donated.

SEC. 1746. The circular of the librarian will specify the kind and quality of specimens desired, both in geology, mineralogy and fossils.

SEC. 1747. The cabinet so collected shall be open for inspection of all persons, subject to the rules and regulations of the librarian for the proper preservation of such specimens, during the hours as provided by the library.

SEC. 1748. It shall be the duty of the librarian to keep the library open from the hours of ten o'clock a. m. until twelve o'clock m. and from two o'clock p. m. until four o'clock p. m. on each day during the year, Sundays and holidays excepted.

SEC. 1749. The librarian before he enters upon the discharge of his duties shall give a good and sufficient bond in the penal sum of five thousand dollars, to be approved by the governor, to be filed in his office, made payable to the Territory of Wyoming, conditioned that he will faithfully discharge the duties of his office and deliver over to his successor in office all books and property belonging to the library according to laws and such regulations as may be adopted by the legislative assembly.

SEC. 1750. The compensation of the Territorial librarian and ex officio superintendent of public instruction shall be a salary of eight hundred dollars per annum, payable quarterly, which salary shall be in full for all services which he may perform in said office.

SEC. 1751. It shall be the duty of the Territorial librarian to insure in some first-

class insurance company and on the best terms for the Territory the Territorial law library for a sum not less than twelve thousand dollars, the policy to run to the Territory of Wyoming.

SEC. 1752. It shall be the duty of all officers and persons who now have, or may hereafter receive, any books, maps, charts, or other documents designed for the use of the Territory of Wyoming to deposit the same immediately on receipt thereof with the Territorial librarian, to be by him placed in the Territorial library.

SEC. 1753. The Territorial librarian is hereby authorized to sell all such copies of the compiled laws of Wyoming as may not be needed for the use of the Territory to any person desiring to purchase the same for the sum of one dollar per volume, and the revenue arising from all such sales to be reported to the Territorial treasurer.

SEC. 1754. All moneys received upon the sale of said compiled laws shall be applied by the Territorial librarian to the purchasing of books for the Territorial library, under the direction of the judges of the supreme court. [Revised Statutes of Wyoming, 1887.]

COUNTY LIBRARIES.

SECTION 684. When the county commissioners of any county have received proper and sufficient guarantees, whether in the form of conveyances or bonds of citizens, or associations or corporations, that a suitable place will be permanently furnished for the protection and use of a public library, as a condition precedent to their own action under the provisions of this section, it shall be their duty to levy annually a tax of not less than one-eighth of a mill nor more than one-half of a mill on the dollar on all taxable property in the county, for the establishment and maintenance of a public library, to be located at the county seat of such county.

SEC. 685. The tax authorized by the preceding section shall be levied and collected at the same time and in the same manner as other county taxes of such county are levied and collected, and the whole amount so collected shall be set apart and shall be designated the county library fund: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed into authorizing any additional levy to that now authorized by law.

SEC. 686. The control and use of said library fund shall be intrusted by the county commissioners of any county to three competent and responsible citizens of the county, to be appointed by said commissioners, and to constitute a board of trustees for this purpose. As soon as appointed they shall incorporate as a body, with an appropriate name, they shall serve without compensation, and the treasurer of the board shall give bonds, to be approved by the county commissioners, for the faithful performance of his duties. It shall be their duty, upon notification from the county commissioners that a library fund is at their disposal, to expend so much of the said fund as shall be found available in the purchase of books for the library herein provided to be established: *Provided*, That the books so purchased shall be of a kind best suited to inform the mind and improve the character of the reader, that neither sectarian nor professional books shall be purchased out of such fund, and that not exceeding twenty-five per centum of such fund so expended shall be used for the purchase of works of fiction.

SEC. 687. The said board of trustees is authorized to receive donations of real estate, money, or books in aid of the establishment or maintenance of the library, for which said trustees are hereby made responsible, and as trustees of the donor shall carefully observe the conditions accompanying every such gift, and if any incorporated literary or library association shall donate to such county library property equal in value to one thousand dollars, or shall annually contribute to its resources a sum exceeding two hundred and fifty dollars in money, such association shall be entitled to name one person to be an associate member of said board of trustees, who shall have all the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of the other members thereof. When no provision can be made for otherwise furnishing the library with the necessary accommodations for its books and other publications without expense to the library fund arising from the public tax, it shall be the duty of the board of school trustees or directors of the school district embracing the county seat to provide accommodations for them in the best-situated school building over which such board of school trustees have control. The board of trustees shall also appoint a competent person to have the immediate charge of the library, with such duties and compensation for services as they shall fix and determine.

SEC. 688. Every library established and maintained under the provisions of this chapter shall be forever free to all residents of the county to which it belongs, on the condition that such persons comply with such rules and regulations for the safety and management of the library as the board of trustees shall prescribe, which rules and regulations may be enforced by legal proceedings in a court of competent jurisdiction: *Provided*, That in the management of the library, the best possible provision shall be especially made for the convenient use of the books thereof by the residents of such county residing out of the town wherein the library is situated.

SEC. 689. It shall be the further duty of such board of trustees to keep a careful record of all its doings, with duplicate vouchers for all expenditures, one set of such vouchers to be kept in the office of the secretary of the board of trustees, the other to be filed with the county commissioners at the end of each calendar year. The board of trustees shall also, at the end of each year, report to the county commissioners all the important transactions for the previous twelve months, specifying in each report the sum of money received from the county library fund, also the moneys and property received from other sources, the use and disposition made of such moneys and other property, the number of books and other publications then in the library, the number of books and other publications added by purchase and gift during the year, as well as the number of books lost and missing, the number, title, and cost of books, maps, and charts purchased out of the county library fund, the number of books loaned out, with the general character of such books, the number of persons who have drawn books from the library during the year, and the number of visitors thereto, together with such other facts deemed of public interest, a copy of which report shall be furnished by the clerk of said board of county commissioners for publication in at least one paper of general circulation in the county.

Only persons resident of the county shall be allowed to obtain a loan of books from the library, and in every case when books are lost or destroyed by such parties, or withheld from the library by such person, then in that event such persons shall be responsible for the loss of such book or books, and the value of said book or books may be recovered by proper action at law in any court of competent jurisdiction in the county. [Revised Statutes of Wyoming, 1887.]

CHAPTER X.

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF POPULAR EDUCATION AMONG CIVILIZED NATIONS: ADMINISTRATION OF POPULAR EDUCATION.[1]

POPULAR INSTRUCTION DURING THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Various expressions have been proposed by which to characterize the nineteenth century, and though many are appropriate to it by reason of the multiplicity of its work, nevertheless the name which it particularly merits is that of the century of popular education. But this designation is not applied to the nineteenth century because it has originated public schools, for they existed centuries ago, and every civilized people, whether Buddhists, Mussulmans, or Christians, have taught their children to read and write. The merit of the nineteenth century lies in the universality of its work in educating the masses of humanity.

The Reformation contributed to the dissemination of instruction among the populace because it saw in education a means of advancing the cause of religion, yet it did not operate with equal force in all parts of Europe, as the history of education in England and Germany will bear witness. The eighteenth century in its turn also promoted the diffusion of education among the people, but not for the advantage of religion but in the name of humanity, as may be proved by the history of the German Empire of that period, of Scandinavia, and of many Catholic States. Nevertheless, the nineteenth century is the first which has systematized and generalized the education of the people for the value of education in itself, irrespective of its effect upon any particular form of worship. It has made education truly a matter which belongs to and is administered by the state. It is true that laws had been promulgated before the year 1800 regarding public education; indeed, the French Revolution furnishes a well known example. But these laws, speaking generally, were inoperative, and if some states were more advanced than others it is still a fact that at the opening of this century the majority of the people of the civilized world could neither read nor write.

The growth of democratic ideas and of the application of industry to science has been favorable to the cause of popular education. It began to dawn upon the people how profitable it would be for each inhabitant of a country to be able to communicate with or receive communications from others through ability to write and read. This ability once gained and used, it was seen, would break down the barriers which cut off a large part of the people from the influence of the current of the intellectual life of the nation, and also in a certain measure would efface the inequality which is caused by the neglect to provide any kind of instruction for the masses.

But people differed upon this subject. In Protestant countries the difference of opinion was, in general, less than in Catholic countries. There have been those, especially in Catholic countries, who were alarmed lest the instruction of the people should lay open the minds of the masses to the influence of new and dangerous

[1] From the French of E. Levasseur, member of Institute of France, translated by Mr. Wellford Addis.

notions; lest such instruction should develop a spirit of examination and criticism and thus weaken the respect for social status, and inspire the lowly with unattainable desires and entice them from the labor befitting the position into which they were born. In Catholic countries it was also maintained that popular education will lead to atheism. There are even now men and parties who hold these opinions.

But there were others who were convinced that it is the duty of society to ameliorate as far as possible the physical, moral, and intellectual well-being of its members; that the education of the people is the primal instrument of their intellectual amelioration, which in its turn will influence their moral amelioration and the amelioration of their physical environment, and that consequently the education of the people is a debt virtually contracted by society with the child, which debt society should pay either by favoring the establishment of schools or by assuming the expense of popular education. These persons have by degrees convinced the people and the Government of each nation that they are right. Most frequently it is the liberal party in each State which champions the cause of the education of the masses. "Shower (repandez) instruction upon the heads of the people, for you owe them such a baptism," exclaimed, at the close of the Napoleonic wars, the French advocates of the Bell and Lancaster systems of monitorial instruction.

The Christian Brothers had, indeed, from the beginning of the eighteenth century, a method of instruction which the Abbé de la Salle had originated and published under the name of "Conduite des ecoles Chrétiennes." Pestalozzi also, inspired by Rousseau, had founded the Institute of Neuhoff, in Switzerland, about 1777, and had passed the rest of his life in the exposition of his ideas and in exemplifying the manner in which they should be applied. Prussia had, it is true, the school law of Frederic the Great, promulgated in 1763. Saxony had confirmed many times the laws of the sixteenth and seventeeth centuries, and Bell and Lancaster had, indeed, created two different types of the monitorial system in the closing years of the eighteenth century. But, in truth, it is only during the nineteenth century that systems of pedagogy became the subject of much study and wide application and that the governing bodies energetically took up the question of schoolhouses, school furniture, and schoolbooks as something of public importance. In short, the nineteenth century has been infinitely more prolific in discussions, in pamphlets, and in books upon pedagogical subjects and works than all the preceding centuries put together, including the sixteenth, which was particularly fruitful in these particulars.

The Government in every civilized country has since 1801 either enacted a law or has taken measures for the general introduction of public education. In Holland the first laws regarding public instruction were those of 1801, 1803, and 1806. In Bavaria compulsory attendance dates from 1802. In Prussia the ordinance of 1819—given out two years after the creation of the department of ecclesiastical affairs, education, and medicine, a position so acceptably filled for twenty-three years by Altenstein—laid down the conditions of compulsory attendance in that State. In the Grand Duchy of Baden popular instruction was created in 1834. In the second half of the century the greater number of the German States multiplied continuation schools and made education compulsory. The greater number of the Swiss cantons created a system of schools between 1830 and 1848. Sweden, where education had been already well introduced in the eighteenth century, promulgated its organic educational law in 1842, and since 1850 this same law has been the law of Norway, transforming her itinerant schools into definitely located establishments. In Finland, long a dependence of Sweden, the schools that the Reformation had called into being proved inadequate, and the public schools were organized by the laws of 1858 and 1866, while Hungary has made strenuous efforts to raise her schools to the level of those of the German peoples.

In France the basic law, at least the first which was really efficient, is the law of 1833. It owed its origin to the Government of Louis Philippe, and more particularly

to M. Guizot. In England the first reform bill had opened the doors of Parliament to the mercantile class (bourgeoisie), and it had made the first appropriation for the construction of elementary schools. The committee of the privy council on education was instituted by the English Parliament in 1839, but the first organic educational law was not passed until 1870. Some of the Italian States had school laws in the first half of the nineteenth century, but when, in 1859, Italy became a united kingdom the law of Piedmont was adopted for the whole peninsula and its islands. The law of Spain was passed in 1857.

In the United States, after a formative period divided into a colonial and an organizing period, Horace Mann was appointed in 1837 secretary of the board of education of Massachusetts, and the first State normal schools were founded soon after. In 1867 a National Bureau of Education was founded. In Canada the fundamental law of public instruction in the province of Quebec went into effect in 1841. The school system of Ontario is due to Superintendent Adolphus Egerton Ryerson, who assumed the duties of his position in 1844. The first law of the province of New Brunswick was promulgated in 1833. During the second half of the present century almost all the Spanish American republics modeled, partly at least, their school systems on those of the United States.

The same activity in organizing public education has been shown in the colonies and countries under European control, as, for instance, in Algeria, Cape of Good Hope, India, British Australasia, and the Antilles. Japan, entering resolutely into the ideas of European civilization, created a system of public schools in 1872.

The development of the idea of universal education has changed the moral equilibrium of the world. With science, which has changed the processes of industry and enormously increased the power of man over nature; with steam, which in annihilating distance by land or sea has given new facilities to commerce and new habits to nations; with the political changes, which have given to democracy either the dominating or at least a considerable place in the government of the majority of civilized States—with each of these achievements of the nineteenth century the instruction of the people is assuredly to be ranked as the most considerable phenomena of the nineteenth century and one of the most productive of happy results. The increase during the last fifty years of books, reviews, and journals published each year, of letters and printed matter transported by mail, furnishes a numerical proof of progress, though inadequate to give its full measure.

There can be no question that the results have sometimes failed to justify the hopes that apostolic enthusiasm had engendered. The founding of the school has not dispensed with the prison, for criminality has numerous causes, both individual and social, that can not be overcome by teaching children to read and write. The advancement of material well-being is not indissolubly joined, nor is it necessarily proportionate to the progress of education. It is even true that people may desire to feed upon debasing literature, as the success of more than one French periodical and more than one French novel will testify. The venality of the press is also an evil the growth of which it is deeply regrettable to see. But it is not necessary to conclude that this corruption by the agency of the press is entirely unremediable under the régime of liberty. Who, pray, should be impeached! The journal that wishes to live by obscenity and sophism, or the people who keep it alive by paying for it. Yet let us admit that revolutions so considerable can not happen without troubling certain interests, unclassing some persons, and causing to arise in some minds perverse desires.

But it is not proper to judge such revolutions exclusively by the general trouble they cause and by their unpleasant details, for they must be judged in their entirety. It is undoubtedly not a matter of indifference that during the transition from ignorance to knowledge the mob should exhibit an effervescence of confused ideas and a vomiting forth of insatiable desires, and that it should become more unmanageable. But ought not a thinker to ask himself whether those who deprecate these unquestioned evils do not find the mob so difficult to govern because

it is less inclined to be governed according to their wishes and whether their wishes have always been for the interest of the mob?

It is reiterated, especially in France, that when everybody shall be educated no one will desire to perform menial or arduous work, such as that of a domestic or a common laborer with pick and shovel. Assuredly, the diffusion of education will interfere with the present poise of the social strata and individual relations, and will, in addition, influence both the salary and condition of persons. There will be occupations which will offer fewer chances of employment and there will be others in which such chances will abound, but as it is necessary, after all, that almost every human being shall live by work, it is inevitable that each should come to the point where he will be willing not only to accept, but even to seek an occupation by which a living can be made.

Yet these inconveniences are of secondary importance. When the reconstruction is viewed as one whole its grandeur is apparent. It is therefore no exaggeration to say that public instruction has, in certain respects, been the redemption of humanity. If the desire of the savant to be always increasing his knowledge for the perfection of himself is respected, why refuse, even independently of all practical considerations, some knowledge to the great majority of men. In the daily business of life how profitable would it not be to the mass of humanity, made up as it is of men in their character of workers and of citizens, to participate in the living ideas of their times.

When the nineteenth century shall render an account of its work to history it can not say that its own exclusive work in the domain of popular education has settled all social questions. Popular education is not a panacea. Nor is it a sedative, as it sometimes even gives birth to new questions; for, in spite of exceptions that may be named, it tends to enfeeble rather than to strengthen the religious sentiments of the masses whatever may be the particular form of worship concerned. As popular education acts thus because it gives rise to doubt and the spirit of personal investigation, it is asked if the school can replace the church in inspiring the soul with the principles of morality indispensable to social life.

Again, the school is intrusted with the duty of forming the intelligences of the masses and it should give not only elementary instruction, but should also contribute to the making of a manly character and a good citizen. Therefore it is again asked whether it is easy to obtain teachers having the qualities which are necessary to bring about this double end, and whether the pupils in whom manhood and patriotism are to be developed are always sufficiently amenable to the instruction necessary to accomplish the double end.

But let us not despair of the future and let us not turn our backs to it because the present, like every other historical epoch, presents a mixture of good and bad. When the twentieth century shall have half run its course the people of that age will be astonished that the nineteenth century was even able to debate the question of the education of the masses, but they will be thankful that it settled that question, while democracy, whose advancement the school has aided, will thank the century for what it has done.

MUTUAL RELATIONS OF THE SCHOOL, RELIGION, AND THE CHURCH.

There is evidently a connection between the form of worship practiced by a people and its public instruction. In every religion the ministers being concerned especially with the needs of the soul, are naturally prompted to ponder upon the subject of intellectual development, and they have, speaking generally, more influence than any other class of persons in causing schools to be founded and in pursuading parents to send their children to them. Both the Protestants and the Israelites are usually more advanced than the Catholics in this respect, just as the Catholics are more advanced than the Greeks, the Mussulmans, and the Buddhists. Almost everywhere the Israelites establish small churches, the members of which are in the habit

of sustaining and supervising their own schools. Among the Protestants it is necessary that the faithful shall be able to read the Bible in order that each may seek in it the basis of his faith and the rule for his conduct, and they place the age of confirmation so late in life that the child is retained in school longer than is the case among the Catholics, who, although required to learn the catechism, receive their religious instruction principally from the mouth of the priest and their moral guidance in the confessional. Further on it will be seen that with rare exceptions, the States which have at least 15 children in school for every 100 inhabitants are Protestant or have a majority of Protestants within their borders, while of those States which have fewer than 10 children in school for each 100 inhabitants none are Protestant. Among peoples professing the Greek religion the most advanced nation has only 5½ children in school for every 100 inhabitants. Of course this rule is not universal and does not apply to the southern portion of the present German Empire, nor to Algeria, nor to Lower Canada, while the departments in the east of France show that a Catholic people can rival the Protestants in the matter of school attendance.

Before the Reformation, the school in Christian countries was to some extent the child of the church; when the church had founded a school, she kept it under her control and when some one else had founded an educational institution she invariably demanded the right of directing or at least of supervising it. The cause of this early subordination of the school to the clergy is this: In the Middle Ages the monks (clerks), being almost the only members of society that were educated, were the only persons capable of educating others and from that very fact, education tended especially to form monks. When Protestantism had divided the Christian world the Protestant ministers were compelled to teach the children of their congregations, because the reading of the Bible was necessary for the acceptance of the Protestant faith just as the Catholic priests for the same reason were compelled to teach the catechism. The chief object of education in those times being to make adherents to the Christian religion, both sects were solicitous that instruction should not deviate from the purpose each had in view, and for this reason the clergy was invested by the civil power with authority over the schools. In very many countries, both Catholic and Protestant, the ministers of religion retained this authority for a long time after the people had determined that instruction properly so called should be the principal aim of the school. Thus, in France, the first minister of public instruction was a bishop, but from the time of the restoration of the Bourbons (1815) to that of the third Republic (1875) the question of the authority of the Catholic clergy over the public schools was the subject of long and angry debates. M. Guizot, who introduced the law of 1833, while minister of public instruction in the monarchy of that date, writes in his memoirs these sentences: "It was upon the preponderating and united influence of church and state that I counted in striving to found a system of public instruction, yet the dominant fact that opposed my efforts both on the floor of the House of Deputies and throughout the country was precisely a feeling of mistrust and even of hostility toward both the church and state. What was feared for the schools more than anything else, was the influence of the priests and the central power."

This law of 1833 made a place for the curé both on the communal and on the departmental committee. Under the second Republic (1848) the bill of M. Carnot, minister of public instruction, made the school entirely lay, though the amendments made by the constitutional assembly authorized religious instruction outside of school hours. The law of March 15, 1850, however, which was voted under the idea that it was necessary to oppose increasing revolutionary ideas by religious influence, declared that the public school ought always to be open to the minister of the gospel, and assigned an important place to the clergy in the departmental council and in the higher council of public instruction. These provisions, however, though they were in great part inserted in the law of 1873, were omitted in the law of 1879.

Since 1879 there has been no ecclesiastic either sitting in the "councils of instruction" or filling the office of inspector.

The law of 1882 has in France removed from the programme of public education the subject of religious instruction and has replaced it by instruction in morals and civics, has withdrawn from the clergy all right of inspection and of superintendence over schools, whether public or private, and has enacted that religious instruction must be given outside of the schoolhouse. These provisions of the law of 1882 were considered by its authors as obligatory upon the Government, because of the compulsory education feature which the law also contained, for though it was proper to oblige the parent to educate a child, it is improper to compel it to receive instruction in a form of worship not its own. The law of 1882 was completed by the law of October 30, 1886, the seventeenth article of which relates that "in the public schools of every grade instruction is exclusively intrusted to persons not connected with a religious order (exclusivement confié à un personnel laïque)." In this way there have originated in France the public school, compulsory education, free instruction, and laic instruction, which is the very programme that the republican party had formulated before coming into power.

But there are other nations which have maintained in their legislation the tutelage or superintendence of the ecclesiastical authorities over the schools. Thus, in Spain, the law of 1857, still in operation, has expressly stipulated that neither in the public nor in the private schools shall the exercise of the right of the bishops to watch over religious instruction and the purity of faith and manners be impeached in any way. In Russia the parish schools, which form a considerable part of the whole body of educational establishments and whose principal aim is "to strengthen the faith of the people," are under the authority of the Holy Synod, which also administers several other classes of schools, such, for instance, as Sunday schools. It is to be observed, however, that the city schools of Russia are under the minister of public instruction and have no sectarian character.

In Hesse the ministers of the gospel are members of the school council, but neither ecclesiastics nor members of a religious order can direct a public school. In Wurtemberg the schools are under the minister of education and worship, and are sectarian, and the teacher must be of the faith of the majority of the inhabitants. In Bavaria the communal school commission is presided over by the curé or the pastor, and the inspector of the district who formerly was in orders is now ordinarily the oldest [minister] in the district.

In Lutheran Sweden the educational committee in each district is presided over by the pastor of the congregation, and the inspection of the schools is confided to the clergy, but the bishop and the convocation in each diocese inspect the schools and annually report to the King. In Norway the bishop and the oldest pastor supervise the schools, in respect to religious instruction, in concert with the school director. In Denmark the schools are closely connected with the Lutheran Church. In Greece the general supervision of religious instruction and of the moral tendencies of the schools is lodged in the bishop of the diocese (eparchie), and the nomination of the masters who are to teach religion are confirmed by him. In the Province of Quebec, where Catholicism is supreme, though under the monarchy of England, which has a state religion of its own, the council of public education, which partakes with a cabinet minister the administration of the schools, is composed of two committees, one Catholic and one Protestant, each committee having charge of the schools of its own faith. In the Province of Ontario, where Protestantism is supreme, the school is called "unsectarian," and the religious exercises are limited to a prayer and to reading the Bible; but the schools established by the Catholics have in certain cases rights which are analogous to those of the public schools.

Among the greater number of the remaining nations of the world there has been for the fifty years last past a very marked movement to separate the school and church. In the Dominion of Canada, Manitoba changed in 1890 an educational

law similar to that of Quebec to one which is detrimental to the interests of the Catholic party as far as sectarian schools are concerned. In the United States public schools which were [at a very early date] sectarian have been for a long time in every State nonsectarian. Prayer and reading the Bible without comment alone are authorized [in a few instances]. Many of the States of the American Union have even made this neutrality one of the articles of their constitution. The Catholic Church in the United States, however, establishes sectarian schools and is striving to secure the adoption of a system analogous in some respects to that which is in vogue in Ontario.

New South Wales in 1880 suppressed all subsidies to sectarian schools. In Victoria the school is divorced from the church except to the extent that twice a week the session is closed earlier than usual and a minister of the gospel replaces the teacher.

In Europe many States had antedated France in adopting the principle of neutrality in religious matters as far as concerns the public elementary school. These countries are Holland, by the law of 1806, the constitution of 1848, and by the laws of 1857 and of 1878; Switzerland by the federal constitution of 1874, which also obliged the parent or guardian in all parts of the republic to educate their children; Austria, by the law of 1869, and Italy, by the law of 1877, which permitted the communes to eliminate from the school programme the subjects of religious instruction, catechism, and sacred history. In Hungary, where Joseph II had already mooted this question by his regulations, where also the revolution of 1848 had proclaimed nonsectarianism only in turn to be disregarded by the reaction of 1852, the communal schools must not be made sectarian unless they are under the care of a religious or other association. In England the grants of the education department are made only to schools which are open to every child irrespective of religious belief, and in which no child shall be called upon to receive instruction in religion against the will of the parents. The schools established by the English school board by virtue of the law of 1870 are nonsectarian, or at least the Bible is read without comment. In Scotland grants are made to schools where the children are not obliged to take part in religious instruction.

In Prussia, where in 1854 religious instruction in the schools became strongly entrenched as a result of the reaction against the revolutionary tendencies of the era of 1848, the law of March 11, 1872, took away from the ecclesiastical authorities the inspection of the schools with which they had previously been endowed, or at least narrowed the sphere of that authority to religious instruction merely, while giving to the Government the supervision of both public and private schools. The same provisions are found in Saxony, where an early law had put the school under the church, but where also a law of 1873 has reserved to the State the right of inspection. It is also the same in the Grand Duchy of Baden, where, after an active opposition, the exclusive right of inspection given by the organic law of 1834 to the clergy was assumed by the State, and in Bavaria, where the ecclesiastical influence has given way twice since 1848 to the authority of the State, the second time in 1866.

Thus a marked movement of separation or, at least, of emancipation of the school from the church has taken place. The school now claims to exist for itself and to govern itself by itself. This emancipation has been caused in some Catholic States by an opposition to the Catholic Church because the clergy actively engage in politics, form a party, and thus provoke a feeling of bitterness in their opponents. This antagonism, which is by no means beneficial either in an ethical sense for the authority of the clergy nor for the education of the people, has been particularly manifest in France. But in the majority of States, especially Protestant States, the emancipation has been rather the result of a compromise between the different sects than an open hostility to religious worship. It has been recognized that the schoolmaster, not being able to teach the dogmas and the ritualism of each church, should observe a neutrality which does not imply hostility to the religious sentiment, but

nevertheless gives a disposition to regard the various forms of its manifestation with indifference.

The moral education of the child is one of the principal reasons for the intervention of the church in management of the school. It is said, "Without religion no morality," or at least no foundation on which to form and cultivate a true sense of morality. This assertion is certainly too absolute, since there are many people who are perfectly moral without being faithful adherents of any form of worship; and again people who go through religious forms without being secured against immorality. There have been nations in ancient times, and there are still races in existence, who have nothing more than religious superstitions devoid of an ideal, and yet they are not deprived of a moral sense in their private life and social relations. Still, there is no doubt but the present religions of civilized nations, especially the Christian religion, which on the one hand exhibits the divine origin of duty and on the other the sanction during life and after of good and evil actions, are powerful supports to morals and the consciousness of duty. To abstain from speaking to children of God, of worship, and of duty under pretext of not wishing to interfere with their liberty of conscience is not to be truly impartial, because such restraint will allow the tendency to indifference to implant itself in the soul. Experience shows that the troubles of life are more apt to extinguish religious belief than sceptical indifference is, and from this it would appear that a man who has been bred in the belief of his fathers is not on that account unable after maturity to discard it. But religious instruction of the child and that given under the authority of the church are two distinct things.

RELATIONS OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION AND POLITICS.

"Give me the school and I shall govern public opinion, and through public opinion the state." Thus many legislators have thought. But by being too absolute in their dictum they deceived themselves in as far as they imagined that programmes mold the minds no matter what the sentiments of the people may be. They have been right in thinking that when these two factors are not in direct opposition education can greatly facilitate and generalize the development of certain ideas, and that when education constitutes a national system which is seriously applied it will contribute in giving the nation greater moral cohesion. It was a political idea that inspired the United States when they made great sacrifices in every township, every county, and every State in order to train citizens, and the same idea is the cause of their redoubled efforts to-day to Americanize the children of immigrants through the school. The Swiss Republic, when the Federal constitution imposed compulsory school attendance in all cantons, and the French Republic, when it voted the laws of 1881 and 1882, were both inspired by a political idea of the same nature. It is easy to recognize the ties which connect many other organic laws of primary instruction with politics: The law of 1833 in France, the law of 1859 in the Sardinian States, the law of 1872 in Prussia, and the law of 1868 in Hungary, etc.

In most countries where the mass of the population has a certain participation in the management of public affairs there is a more lively interest in primary instruction displayed than under absolute Governments: Switzerland, the United States, the Canadian Provinces, and Australasian colonies may serve as examples. But one influence may be replaced or paralyzed by others. In Sweden the primary school had its beginning during the reign of absolute monarchs and through the aid of religious influence; on the other hand, in some Republics of Latin America the climate, the divisions which separate the strata of society, the apathy of the Indian race, and revolutions have counteracted the effects of a democracy which is, it must be admitted, more nominal than real.

The colonies which are peopled by the European race rank among the first in primary instruction; for example, Algeria, Upper Canada, New Brunswick, New South Wales, Victoria, and the United States, all which have the same European origin. Perhaps this superiority is due to that origin; for emigration and coloniza-

tion presupposes, as a rule, a certain degree of intelligence and energy, and those who in this manner create new societies, understanding the value of instruction, wish to assure its benefits to their children. There are, no doubt, exceptions to the rule. The Slavic race which is pouring itself into America at present disquiets the American educators on account of its ignorance, and La Plata, which is principally colonized by southern Europeans, counts a large number of illiterates. When a colony contains inferior races, as coolies, negroes, etc., like Réunion, the Cape of Good Hope, French Guiana, and New Caledonia, then the ignorant preponderate and the level of instruction is very low.

From this it may be concluded that race and climate exercise some influence upon primary instruction. It is only the people inhabiting southern Europe or the hot countries of South America that have an enrollment in school of fewer than 10 pupils for every 100 inhabitants, except in Russia, Finland, and Manitoba, which are laboring under special climatic and social conditions. The Teutonic race, comprising the Scandinavians, Germans, Dutch, and Anglo-Saxons, appears in our day to occupy the first rank as far as concerns the development of primary instruction, and it must be admitted that these races are mainly Protestant. The Slavic race, and still more the Mongolian, are evidently the least advanced races inhabiting Europe. Outside of Europe most of the countries that are peopled by half-breeds of Indian and Spaniard stock are on a still lower level.

But the severity of a winter climate is no insurmountable obstacle to instruction, as is proved by the Scandinavian States and Canada. During the long months of winter, when all agricultural labor must cease, the farmer can send his children to the village school or teach them at home, though during the summer, when the stock are in the pasture, and especially during the busy days of harvest, the children can not be spared. These conditions occur in the most widely separated countries, whether it be the United States, or Switzerland, or France.

It is legitimate to inquire what effect the relatively great wealth of a nation has upon the education of its people. As it is necessary to expend constantly very large sums in order to educate the whole mass of a nation, it is indisputable that the possession of wealth gives great facilities to popular education. The Australasian colonies and the United States seem to be the countries where the expenditure is largest per capita of population and of attendance at school; but as the relation of the expenditures to the attendance is far from being exact, it is better not to be too positive in laying down the rank that each State is entitled to from such data, for Switzerland and Scandinavia, although only moderately wealthy, instruct their children well. Certain it is, however, that the absence of pecuniary resources in the open country is an obstacle to securing satisfactory schools in such localities, and this obstacle is, especially in Russia, one of those that neutralizes the zealous activity of educators. If the influence exerted by rich manufacturing industries is inquired into, it is found that on the one hand they permit the maintenance of large schools well fitted with apparatus and placed in the immediate vicinity of the pupil's home, but that on the other hand the business of the city, the seat of large industries, attracts the children by the opportunity of earning money (appât de salaire), thus tending to take the pupils at an early hour from the school, and, further, that for various reasons the large cities are not always the most favorable places for attendance.

The school serves to instruct youth, but it also propagates ideas that will constitute the national spirit. This it accomplishes through nearly every branch of instruction, especially through the teaching of geography, history, and civics, but the most effective work in this line is done by the personality of the teacher. This tendency of the elementary school should not be disguised, for it is legitimate. It is necessary that in each nation there should exist above the clashing of ideas, of classes, and special interests a certain national spirit which binds together the

members of the social body, assuring concord and facilitating the administration of public affairs. But in this, as in many other political matters, the good may degenerate into the bad, as when a Government wants to impose its will in some matter for which there is no warrant other than a desire of subversion; for the school may in this manner become an instrument of oppression, by aid of which a dominating nationality may try to extinguish another nationality. Examples of this are seen in Alsace-Lorraine, in Poland, and in other countries.

The teacher may personally find himself mixed up with politics by becoming a kind of political agent—thanks to the relations he has with small cities and with the masses of the population. This is a deviation from his proper functions which, however seductive it may be to ambition, serves the ends of the master better than those of his school.

But the abuse of an institution should not cause the services which the institution renders to be forgotten, for if the sentiment called patriotism is more active and more widespread now than formerly, one is justified in attributing this fact partly, indeed, to the wars of the nineteenth century, but partly also to the training which the masses of the people have received in the elementary school.

CHAPTER XI.

EDUCATION IN FRANCE.[1]

France, Republic.—Area, 204,092 square miles. Population (actual), April 12, 1891, 38,095,156; domiciled or legal, 38,343,193.

Civil divisions.—For purposes of civil government, France is divided into 86 departments (90 if Algiers be included), each having its local legislative assembly formed by election. The departments are subdivided into arrondissements and these into cantons. The smallest civil divisions comprised within the cantons are communes.

For previous articles in the Reports of the Commissioner of Education see the following:

The educational system of France. (Report, 1888–89, Vol. I, pp. 112-149.)

Report of the educational congresses and exhibition held in Paris, 1889 (Report, 1888–89, Vol. I, pp. 41-186), by W. H. Widgery.

Brief view of the educational system, with statistics for 1888–89. (Report, 1889–90, Vol. I, pp. 249-261.)

Elementary education in London and Paris. (Report, 1889–90, Vol. I, pp. 263-280.)

Education in France: Statistics, 1890–91; progress of primary schools since Guizot's law, 1833; higher primary and classical schools of France. (Report, 1890–91, Vol. I, pp. 95-124.)

Education in France: Outline of the system, and statistics for 1892; State faculties; proposed transformations and development of teaching functions. (Report, 1891–92, Vol. I, pp. 73-95.)

Civil service in France, by W. F. and W. W. Willoughby. (Ibid., pp. 369-412.)

Education in France: Outline view, with current statistics; inspection of infant schools; recent changes in the baccalaureate; reorganization of medical studies, and of the scientific course preparatory thereto. (Report, 1892–93, Vol. I, pp. 219-237.)

Education in France, with statistics for 1891-92. (Report, 1893–94, Vol. I, pp. 187-201.)

Education in France: Statistics for 1891-92 and 1893; recent modifications in the department of secondary education; recent development of the faculties (universities); progress of the system of primary instruction; schools for adults; movements for the admission of American students to the universities of France. (Report, 1894–95, Vol. I, pp. 289-312.)

TOPICAL OUTLINE.—The French system under the Republic as preserving the form of the Imperial University, but gradually infusing therein the spirit of liberty; the organization and chief officials of the system — The State inspection of primary schools; obligation of the communes to establish schools and statistical evidence of their general compliance with the law—Statistics of enrollment in 1894–95 and decline since 1891–92 affecting public schools and secular private schools—Results of school instruction as shown by the number of candidates for primary certificates (elementary

[1] Prepared by Miss Anna Tolman Smith.

and superior grade)—Teachers, their number and status as regards diplomas and the average size of schools under a head teacher—Attendance upon normal schools—School savings banks decreasing, but deposits increasing—Communal funds in aid of pupils; decline in numbers, but increase in receipts and disbursements—Current expenditure for primary instruction; amounts showing increase for three successive years; also increase of communal appropriations for optional expenditure—Decline of illiteracy among conscripts—Department of secondary instruction, including lycées and communal colleges; difficulties in the way of modifying the traditional course of study and end of the lycées as typified in the bachelor's degree—Recent modifications and final proposal to abolish the baccalaureate—Department of superior instruction; the law investing the faculties with the legal title of university, the crown of a series of measures developing the essential conditions of university life; text of the law; elaboration of its motives and purposes in the speeches of the minister of public instruction and of the director of superior instruction; details of the scholastic and financial demands to which its provisions are addressed, especially emphasized in the speech of M. Louis Liard—Requirements for admission to the French faculties; statement by M. Paul Melon, showing in detail the requirements for admission to the several faculties of France for candidates who aspire to degrees—Status of medical students in France under the latest official regulations. APPENDIX—*Education in France, with especial reference to the lycées, by Dr. Alcée Fortier.*

Summary of educational statistics, 1894–95.

Classes of institutions.	Date.	Enrollment.		Teachers.		Current expenditures.
		Male.	Female.	Men.	Women	
Primary schools (public and private):						
Infant schools (écoles maternelles), ages 2 to 6	1894–95	(714,734)		.....	9,199	.....
Elementary primary schools (public and private), ages 6 to 13.	1894–95	2,790,710	2,749,385	(1,076) 66,931	82,906	*a* $37,048,012
Total	.....	6,254,829		160,112		.....
Secondary schools:						
Public, ages 8 to 20	*b* 1892	85,291	11,605	.....	.....	.....
Private, ages 8 to 20	*b* 1892	89,566	.....	.....	.....	.....
Normal schools:						
Primary, ages 16 to 20	1894–95	3,930	3,926	.....	.....	4,418,620
Universities:						
Faculties—						
Public	1895	25,887	.....	.....	.....	2,628,415
Private	*b* 1893	988	.....	.....	.....	.....

a Public primary only. *b* Latest date of official statistics.

THE SYSTEM IN GENERAL.

France presents the highest type of a centralized, unified State system of education. The form of organization is substantially that of the Imperial University established by Napoleon in 1808, and invested with the monopoly of teaching throughout the State. The system suited admirably the purpose for which it was created, namely, that of making a professional service that would furnish careers for subservient talent and at the same time afford a channel for the general diffusion of imperial ideas. In maintaining the form of this system, at least as regards its main features, the Republic has had also the purpose to infuse into it the spirit of liberty and to make it the means of encouraging free initiative. This interesting experiment has illustrated in a very striking manner the cast and temper of the national genius.

The executive chief of the system is a cabinet officer—the minister of public instruction, fine arts, and worship. The portfolio generally changes hands with every cabinet crisis,[1] but the permanency and steady progress of the system is not seriously affected thereby, as the directors of the three great departments of the system, i. e., primary, secondary, and superior, are retained for long periods, and even when changes occur the vacancy is generally filled by the logical successor of the departing officer. Thus, after nearly twenty years of service as director of primary instruction, M. Ferdinand Buisson[2] has just been transferred to the Sorbonne to fill the chair of pedagogy made vacant by the death of M. Henri Marion. The directorship in the ministry is filled by the transfer of M. Charles Bayet, who, as rector of the Academy[3] of Lille, has given proof of his adherence to the ideal of the Republic.

Each of the three great departments is charged with the interests of the corresponding grade of education; each has its separate budget and distinct body of laws, decrees, etc. The correlation of these separate orders is effected through the local or geographical divisions of the system. These are academies, seventeen in number, each of which comprises, under the general direction of a rector (appointed by the minister), all the schools, colleges, and faculties (university) of the respective districts.[4] The central authority does not hold undivided sway in academic districts; within each there is a system of primary schools established by the communes and supported and controlled in part by communal funds and authorities; there are also communal colleges or lower grade classical schools which are aided by the State, but established and partly controlled by local managers. Above these are the State classical colleges (lycées), which, until a very recent date, were rigidly controlled by State decrees; and crowning all are the faculties that, as we shall presently see, are now transformed into universities.

The superior council of public instruction is the great deliberative head of the State system. Its prototype was the council of the Imperial University, a body appointed by the grand master and subject to his will. The change in the constitution of this council is a striking illustration of the movement toward professional liberty which the Republic has fostered. Of the sixty members of the present council one-fourth only serve by appointment of the President of the Republic; the remaining three-fourths are chosen by their peers from the three orders of instruction.

A recent project for the reform of the council proposed the admission of members representing interests distinct from education, i. e., the

[1] The present minister is M. Rambaud, who succeeded M. Combes April 29, 1896.

[2] M. Buisson's appointment dates from 1879, Jules Ferry being then minister of education.

[3] It will be observed that the word *academy* is here used in a special sense; it means neither a school nor a society of learned men, but a district of educational administration, a division of the State system officered by Government appointees. These must, however, be men of approved scholastic attainments; thus the academy rector must be a graduate with the doctor's degree.

[4] The directorships of superior and secondary instruction are held, respectively, by M. Louis Liard and M. Rabier.

departments of justice, commerce, industry, etc.; this project failed, but the fact that after thirty years' discussion the idea has at last been submitted to formal debate, indicates that professional exclusiveness will find its limits. So far as education is concerned, the present council is eminently a representative body, even women who are inspectresses of infant schools or directresses of normal schools being eligible to membership.

Nine of the members appointed by the President and six elected members constitute a permanent section, which meets every week. The entire council holds two annual sessions—one in July, the other in December.

The permanent section deliberates upon matters which are to be submitted to the general council, and offers its advice upon the same. These matters relate to programmes and regulations for all classes of schools, the creation of university courses or facultés, of lycées, and of normal schools, the multiplication of chairs, choice of text-books, and, in short, to all questions pertaining to studies, administration, discipline, and standards which may be submitted by the minister. These questions are eventually deliberated in the general council, which prescribes the course of instruction in all public schools and determines the conditions under which private schools may be opened.

The council is also a final court of appeal from judgments rendered by the academic or departmental councils in certain cases of discipline or contention. The deliberations of the council are presided over by the minister.

In each "académie" there is a council for the assistance of the rector, composed of members chosen for the most part by their peers, and representing the two higher orders of instruction, to whose interests the deliberations of the council are confined.

Finally, in each department there is a council of primary instruction composed of members of the superior council and primary school directors, under the presidency of the prefect,[1] which deliberates, advises, and renders judgment in certain matters pertaining to primary schools.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION—STATE INSPECTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The State maintains a very close and intimate inspection of primary schools by means of a graded series of inspectors, (1) general inspectors, including nine assigned to particular sections of the country, several assigned to the oversight of special branches of study, and general inspectresses of infant schools. These officials report directly to the minister as to the manner in which the educational law is carried out. (2) Academic inspectors (inspecteurs d'académie), one for each department, who are subordinate to the rectors. They have the general direction of primary schools, conduct examinations for teachers' certifi-

[1] The prefect is a civil officer, the chief of a department.

cates, appoint all teachers on probation, and name the candidates from whom the prefects of departments may appoint full teachers. (3) Primary inspectors, at present about 450 in number, or one for every 150 primary schools. They inspect the work of individual schools, and report to the academic inspector. (4) Medical inspectors, whose duties include the examination of children with respect to their physical condition and of sites and buildings with respect to sanitary particulars.

COMMUNAL OBLIGATIONS.

As regards primary schools, however, the initiative of the people is enlisted in several ways. The law (1833) makes it obligatory upon every commune to establish a public school, which, under the law of June 16, 1881, must be a free school and, under laws of 1882 and 1886, secular and taught by a lay teacher. A commune, it must be remembered, is the simplest civil division in France. Its local affairs are controlled by a council, and a mayor chosen from the members of the same. A commune may have less than 20 inhabitants or it may be a populous city. Paris, indeed, is a commune, although differing somewhat from others in its form of local government. Large or small, the commune must establish a free primary school, provide the site and building, and a proportion of the current expenditure; not only so, but every commune of more than 500 inhabitants must have a separate school for girls (laws of March 15, 1850, and April 10, 1867).

The situation of the communes in these respects as shown by the official report for 1894–95,[1] was as follows: Out of 36,509 communes 35,582 had established a public school, 841 were united for the purpose with adjoining communes, 35 had only a private school, and 51 were without schools. The last class, however, are small communes of from 100 to 200 inhabitants, whose children obtain instruction in neighboring districts.

The general preference for the separate education of boys and girls is indicated by the constant increase in the number of communes providing a public school for girls. The number having a population of 500 or upward not making such provision fell from 1,427 in 1891–92 to 1,360 in 1894–95.

STATUS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS AS REGARDS ENROLLMENT.

The enrollment in primary schools continues to decline from year to year, as is shown by the statistics for successive years here presented:

Class of school.	Enrollment.			
	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1894–95.
School for boys	2,805,849	2,800,316	2,799,089	2,790,710
School for girls	2,750,621	2,753,799	2,749,091	2,749,385
Total	5,556,470	5,554,115	5,548,180	5,540,095

[1] "Résumé des états de situation de l'enseignement primaire," for the school year 1894–95.

The decline is slight, only three-tenths per cent from 1891 to 1895, but it presents conditions that are alarming. First, the ratio of decline is much greater for boys than for girls, five-tenths per cent against four hundredths per cent; second, it takes place in public schools only, the private schools considered as a whole showing steady gains, as will be seen from the following tabulation:

Classes of school.	Enrollment.			
	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1894–95.
Public schools:				
Secular	3,753,250	3,760,729	3,766,551	3,764,746
Clerical	527,933	497,208	475,361	450,665
Total	4,281,183	4,257,937	4,241,912	4,215,411
Private schools:				
Secular	147,727	143,536	139,668	135,494
Clerical	1,127,560	1,152,642	1,166,600	1,189,190
Total	1,275,287	1,296,178	1,306,268	1,324,684
General total	5,556,470	5,554,115	5,548,180	5,540,095

From an inspection of the particulars in the foregoing table it appears further that the decline in attendance affected public schools and secular private schools, clerical private schools showing steady increase, amounting, in the four years reviewed, to 5 per cent.

As regards the decline in the enrollment of boys, M. Buisson, in his comment upon the figures, expresses the belief that they contain some hidden error which the statistical commission[1] may yet discover. Special investigation of this point will be made and the results published in the next quinquennial report.

The enrollment in the primary schools, as given above, 5,540,095, is equivalent to 14.4 per cent of the population.[2] The enrollment, 714,734, in maternal or infant schools, that is for children 2 to 6 years of age, may properly be added to the above, as these are also under State supervision and partly supported by the State. This would give a general total of 6,254,829 pupils; 73 per cent of this total, viz, 3,452,764 pupils in the primary and 118,456 in the infant schools, were of the obligatory school ages—that is, 6 to 13 years. This total is 87.2 per cent of the entire number of children of the ages specified. If Algiers be omitted, the proportion for France alone is 96.5 per cent. The very small number of children of the legal school age, 156,000, not found within the schools bears witness to the vigilance of teachers and school officers. It should be noted also that the preparatory departments of secondary schools receive many children of legal school age—in 1891–92 their rolls showed 64,413.

[1] This commission was constituted in the ministry of public instruction and fine arts in 1876 and has issued altogether five reports. The chief of the commission is the distinguished statistician and writer upon economics, M. E. Levasseur.

[2] This ratio is absolutely less than the corresponding ratio of neighboring countries, in Germany and England, for example, where it is 17 per cent, but it must be remembered that the child population of France bears a smaller ratio to the total population than in neighboring countries.

The superior primary schools which correspond to high schools of this country are included in these estimates. The public schools of this grade had an enrollment of 47,397 pupils, an increase of 13 per cent in four years. The private schools of the same grade had the enrollment of 56,051.

THE TEACHING SERVICE.

The primary schools employed 150,913 teachers, of whom 105,162 were in public and 45,751 in private schools. In maternal schools there were 9,199 teachers, all women. The following table shows the classification of the teachers of the primary schools with respect to their qualifications as indicated by the diploma obtained:

PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Class or grade of teacher.	Inferior diploma (brévet élémentaire).		Teacher's diploma (brévet supérieur).		No diploma.		Total.
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	
Full teachers (titulaires) directing a school	30,890	22,903	6,971	5,097	*a* 84	1,435	67,380
Full teachers in charge of a class	6,024	5,073	5,461	3,705	7	641	20,911
Probationers (stagiaires)	3,090	4,790	3,406	3,811	40	658	15,795
Total	40,004	32,766	15,838	12,613	131	2,734	104,086

PRIVATE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Directing a school	3,053	9,427	240	1,282	24	1,743	15,769
In charge of a class	6,459	15,709	415	2,478	767	4,154	29,982
Total	9,512	25,136	655	3,760	791	5,897	45,751

a Many of these have the bachelor's degree.

The increase in the number of public-school teachers provided with the full diploma above the number in 1891–92 is 5,753 (2,388 men, 3,365 women). The number having no diploma has diminished by 1,669 in the same time.

In view of the number of teachers in charge of a school (viz, 67,380 in public schools), it is interesting to note the number of pupils to a school.

In this respect the classification of the 102,506 schools was as follows:

	Per cent.
Having 50 pupils or less	90.1
Having 51 to 60 pupils	6.8
Having 61 to 70 pupils	2.1
Having 71 to 80 pupils	0.7
More than 80 pupils	.3

It appears also that there were 7,271 schools enrolling less than 20 pupils.

The number of pupils seeking the certificate of elementary primary studies steadily increases. In 1895 there were 233,806 candidates

(128,181 boys, 105,625 girls), as against a total of 228,170 in 1892. Of the number presented for examination, 185,467 obtained the certificate in 1895 (175,675 in 1892). Pupils may offer themselves for the examination at 11 years of age. The certificate procures exemption from further attendance at the elementary schools and also admits the holder to the superior primary school. The certificate for superior primary schools is also sought by an increasing number of pupils, 3,359 in 1895 against 3,049 in 1892. The number of certificates of this grade delivered in 1895 was 2,035; in 1892 only 1,850.

The normal schools for elementary teachers belong also to the department of primary instruction; these in 1895-96 enrolled 7,856 students, 3,930 men, 3,926 women.

Evidences of the good results of the instruction obtained in the schools are afforded by the decline of illiteracy among conscripts. The proportion able to read and write, which was 92.2 per cent in 1892, had risen to 94.2 in 1895.

SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKS AND FUNDS IN AID OF POOR CHILDREN.

The use of school savings banks (caisses d'épargne scolaires) as a means for teaching thrift is apparently not increasing, the number of banks having fallen from 19,826 in 1893 to 17,793 in 1895, and the number of depositors from 419,896 to 410,188. The amount deposited, however, increased in the same time from $2,589,050 to $2,597,068. There is also apparently a slight diminution in the number of communes maintaining funds in aid of poor children (caisses des écoles). The number of such funds was 15,893 in 1895 against 16,121 in 1893. The receipts and disbursements, however, show increase in the same time, the former from $1,032,612 to $1,061,334; the latter from $804,255 to $871,390.

FINANCES.

The current expenditure for public primary schools (including the elementary and superior primaries) reached the following totals for the years specified:

1892	$34,254,839
1893	35,002,400
1894	37,048,012

This expenditure is divided between the State and the communes, the ratio borne by each having been the same for the three years, viz, 64 per cent for the State, 36 per cent for the communes.

The expenditure for primary normal schools not included in the above amounted in 1894 to $1,780,900 borne by the State. The State not only bears the largest part of the expense of primary instruction, but, excepting in the large cities, is the animating impulse and controlling authority in respect to courses of study, qualification of teachers, and standards of exmination. This comes about very naturally among a people long

accustomed to take their educational direction from an ecclesiastical hierarchy. Evidences of the growing interest of communes, however, seems to be afforded by the increased funds which they contribute for optional expenses.

Omitting Algiers, which is included in the statistics heretofore given, the contributions of the communes under the head specified have been—

1892	$3,940,915
1893	3,980,133
1894	4,418,620

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

To the department of secondary instruction belong the lycées (State classical colleges), 107 in number, established and maintained by the State with the cooperation generally of the cities in which they are located, and the communal colleges, numbering 235, an inferior grade of classical school established by communal authorities with the aid of the State. No recent statistics of this department have been published. The latest will be found in the general table on page 612.

THE LYCÉE IDEAL AND ATTEMPTED MODIFICATIONS.

The lycée course embodies the French ideal of liberal culture. "It is in the lycée," says M. Bréal, "that the élite of our youth, magistrates, administrators, officers, diplomats, authors, receive all the general instruction that they will carry into life. In them is accomplished the apprenticeship of mind, and it may be said in advance that whatever gaps and deficiencies exist in secondary instruction will show themselves in the intellectual life of the nation."[1] Because of this relation peculiar importance attaches to all efforts for the modification of the general conduct, the course of study, and the official recognition of these typical institutions. No problem before the superior council of public instruction has occupied more time or given rise to more serious efforts than that of the scope and adjustment of the lycée course. Some important changes were effected in the method of classical instruction by the new programmes of 1890, but the composition of the course and the predominance given to Latin show the tenacity of the old conception of liberal education. The modern course introduced as "enseignement secondaire spécial" in 1865 by M. Duruy was changed in name, "moderne" being substituted for "spécial," and also rendered more scholarly or less utilitarian by a decree of 1891. As to the effect of these changes no official report has yet been made.

The plan of a trifurcated course and a triple baccalaureate introduced also by M. Duruy in 1865 was abandoned under the decree of 1890 and a single bachelor's degree adopted. The course was made uniform for all students of the full or classical division up to the last year, i. e., philosophy, when options are allowed. According to the choice made

[1] "Quelques mots sur l'instruction publique en France," page 157.

the successful candidate has his diploma inscribed: "Lettres, philosophie;" "Lettres, mathématiques," or "Lettres, sciences physiques et naturelles."

A proposition to abandon the baccalaureate altogether has recently been submitted to the superior council. The present minister of public instruction is opposed to the measure in this extreme form but favors the substitution of a leaving examination similar to the "Abiturienten-Examen" of the German gymnasia. This movement appears to have two motives, one to lessen the distinction now existing between the classical and the modern course, the other to change somewhat the relation of the lycée course to the general scheme of State education. As we have already stated, the province of the lycées has been to determine the tone and provide the means of liberal culture for the élite of the nation. All higher institutions are for special study. It has long been recognized that the French system needed to be deepened and extended as regards provision for general study. With the development of the university idea the disposition to make liberal culture the work of the faculties of letters and of science has increased. The present movement tends in that direction and excites naturally intense opposition from those who fondly cherish the traditional system. It is impossible at this moment to forecast the outcome. The lycées are not secondary schools in the American sense of the word; they correspond rather to our colleges, and they hold the devotion of their graduates by the memory of all the delightful associations which cluster around the word "alma mater." The State has strengthened the tie by turning the public exercises of the lycées into an imposing and brilliant ceremony.

The characteristic ceremony is the annual competition of lycée students held at Paris. An account of this public festival, for such it is, with an intimate view of lycée work, written by Dr. Alcée Fortier,[1] is appended to this chapter, and may fittingly close the review of this division of the French system. From this letter it will be seen that the system has a repressive influence, which increases the difficulty of getting new ideas into practical operation.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

In the department of superior instruction important movements have been going on during the past decade which have been explained in the recent reports of the Commissioner of Education. They have tended, all, to the gradual transformation of the State faculties into autonomous universities, and their culmination is the law that passed the lower Chamber in May and the Senate in August of the present year (1896), giving the faculty groups the legal title of university. The law is here cited, together with extended extracts from the speeches made in the Senate, which explain the full purport of the measure and show its relation to previous measures in the series.

[1] Professor of Romance languages, Tulane University, New Orleans.

The Senate in its session of July 7, 1896, upon a resolution of urgency, adopted by a vote of 291 against 31, the project of law relative to the constitution of the universities.

The following is the text of the law:

ARTICLE 1. The corps of faculties instituted by the law of April 26, 1893, shall be called universities.

ART. 2. The council general of the faculties (i. e., of each faculty group) shall be called the council of the university.

ART. 3. The council of the university is substituted for the academic council[1] in the consideration of disputed and disciplinary matters pertaining to superior public instruction.

ART. 4. From the date, January 1, 1898, the required fees for courses, registration, use of library and laboratories, paid by the students, shall be retained by the respective universities.[2]

These funds can be applied to the following objects only: Expenditure for laboratories, libraries, and collections; construction and furnishing of buildings; establishment of new courses of instruction; equipments for the advantage of the students.

The fees for examination, for certificates of aptitude (certifying that the candidate has passed the examinations required for a diploma), fees for "visa" (that is, signatures upon duplicate diplomas) paid by candidates for the degrees or titles recognized by law, as also the fees for "dispense" (that is, exemption from the customary term of study), and for equivalence (i. e., recognition of foreign diplomas) will continue to be collected into the public treasury.

The law met with opposition from those who desired complete autonomy for the individual universities and those who are opposed to any innovations upon the existing system. Even among those who voted in favor of the measure there were signs of discontent with its provisions, particularly with the recognition accorded to incomplete faculty groups—that is, having less than four distinct faculties. The minister of public instruction, M. Rambaud, made an eloquent speech in defense of the project. The epitome of the minister's address here presented comprises his principal arguments in favor of the measure.

Referring to the history of the university bill which, in one form or another, has been before the legislature since 1890, M. Rambaud recalled a succession of ministers who had been pledged to its support—M. Berthelot, M. Fallières, M. Wallon, and others. Its purpose he declared was to give life to higher instruction. Following the advice of Jules Ferry, its friends had proceeded without precipitation or recklessness. From the foundation of the third Republic the most urgent reforms had been first considered. * * * For more than thirty years, from the ministry of Victor Duruy to that of Jules Simon, the faculties had suffered chiefly from the want of suitable equipment. This miserable condition has been overcome. One by one the buildings have been reconstructed, laboratories equipped, libraries supplied. The teaching personnel has been reenforced and increased, the audiences of hearers

[1] An academy is one of the seventeen districts of educational administration.

[2] Heretofore all fees have been paid into the public treasury.

have gradually been replaced by veritable students, and thus life has been imparted to the poor and isolated faculties.

The beginning of this development, which has culminated in the present project, was the inquiry ordered by M. Jules Ferry. One of his successors, belonging to a different political school, M. Goblet, has collected together the results of this inquiry; it is he also who countersigned the decrees of July 25[1] and December 28, 1885;[2] these decrees were followed by a law of July 18, 1889, regulating the finances, after which came a new decree, February 22, 1890,[3] then a new financial law, that of April 18, 1893, and finally the decrees of August 9 and 10, countersigned by M. Poincaré.

Thus nothing has been left to hazard or to chimerical notions. Progress has taken the experimental course. That is to say, the effort has been to create a condition before giving it a name. This method has been justified by its practical success, and first and chiefly by the constantly increasing number of students in the schools of higher instruction depending upon the minister of public instruction. In 1885 the total number of students was 16,579. In December, 1895, it was 25,887. This great increase has not had the effect of overcrowding the Paris faculties. All the faculties of France have shared in the advantage, the provincial faculties even in larger measure than those of the capital.

The minister quoted from a table which showed that while the rate of increase in the total number of students from 1885 to 1896 was 60 per cent, the ratio at Paris was only 37 per cent. The faculties of the provinces greatly exceed this rate. Besançon has seen its student population increase in the time by 103 per cent—that is, more than double. It is nearly the same at Aix, Bordeaux, Dijon, Nancy, Poitiers, Rennes, where the rate varies from 89 to 95 per cent. At Lille, Lyons, Montpellier, the increase is still higher, from 103 to 119 per cent. Thus, as regards students, a veritable decentralization has been going on. This increase in the student population of the provinces is in direct proportion to the hopes that these university groups have founded upon the pending bill.

Referring to the charge of a critic who had declared, "If we have many students it is because we pay students to be instructed, which is done only in France, the minister said:

There is great exaggeration in both of these statements. What is the total number of scholarships offered by the French Republic in the faculties of letters and of

[1] Instituting a general council of the faculties of each "académie" and empowering the faculties to hold property, receive gifts, and manage their own estates.

[2] Extending the authority of the general councils to all matters pertaining to the internal conduct of the group, such as the courses and coordination of studies, estimates of expenditure, the division of common funds, etc. The same decree constituted a council of each faculty composed of the titular or full professors and an assembly of each faculty comprising full professors and agrégés (fellows). The functions of the former pertained to the general affairs of the faculty, and of the latter to scholastic work.

[3] Relating to finances.

science, for the question only arises with respect to these? There are no scholarships either in the faculties of law or in those of medicine. The total number is at present 371, a number small indeed, it must be admitted, in comparison with the number of students in letters and science, which is 6,000.

Now, why have we these scholarship funds? It is because they are demanded by the service. We do not pay young men to study in order to fill up the benches before the professors; but we need them for the recruitment of the teaching force of secondary schools. Observe that this total of 371 scholarships in letters and science furnishes each year from 80 to 100 candidates for the professorships of secondary instruction. In respect to letters particularly this number is quite insufficient.

Without doubt the free students, by the increase of their numbers and of their knowledge, have furnished us a most valuable source of recruitment. In proportion as these free elements have been supplied the credits demanded from Parliament for the scholarship funds have been diminished. Since 1888 (when the total amount allowed under this head was $144,000) there has been a decrease of about $40,000. The present year the amount is reduced by about $6,000.

And when it is asserted that France is the only country where they pay young men to be instructed, I respond that this same thing is done notably in Germany; but in Germany it is not so readily apparent, because there students are not supported solely by State appropriations, but partly also by endowments.

In the Empire of Russia, if you wish to make comparison, you will find that the free students are nearly one-third the entire number in the Russian universities. So much for the declaration that "this is done only in France."

As another evidence of the success of the late reform, the minister noted the increase in the number of foreign students in the French faculties. In January, 1896, the total had reached 1,828. The largest proportions were furnished by Russia, Turkey, Bulgaria, Roumania, and Greece; that is to say, by countries in which the equipment for superior instruction is meager, and hence they come to take, as it were, "the watchword from French science."

M. Rambaud noted further that even among the scientific representatives of the older countries with richly endowed universities there is heard unmistakable expressions of admiration for the work accomplished in France.

As to the reproach of opponents of the proposed bill, that it confers nothing more than a name upon existing institutions, M. Rambaud reminded his hearers that there are names that create the things named. Hence the Latin saying, "Nomina numina." The institution which is a university in all but the name, lacks legal existence in its true character. Herein is the value of the name. It stands for an important and imposing idea, the universality of science, or, as expressed by Father Didon, "the true higher learning in its liberty, its universality, and its unity."

As to the objection urged in some quarters that it is a vain endeavor to seek to unite in general councils professors teaching subjects so unlike as science and law, as letters and medicine, M. Rambaud reminded his hearers that all the reforms already accomplished have been the outcome of conferences between the minister of public instruction and the general councils of the faculties, especially that of the faculties of Paris. To such collaboration is due the late measure

obliging students of medicine to pass one year in a faculty of science to acquire general scientific culture, the reform of the "license ès sciences" (degree of licentiate in science), which gives recognition to important specialties, the reform of the doctorate of law, etc.

To cite these is sufficient to dispose of the objection that professors of different branches united in conference do not speak the same language and are incapable of understanding each other.

The minister advocated the university idea particularly as tending to correct the extreme professional bias.

"Universities," he said, "by the general character of their instruction, counteract the professional weakness (tare) among those who practice the liberal professions. They enable specialists to acquire easily that general knowledge which, even in respect to the speciality itself, constitutes the real value and originality of the man."

As to the criticism that the measure is opposed to the development of specialties demanded in the various localities, the minister showed that these have been strengthened as the university idea has grown. He said:

At Bordeaux, besides the general instruction given in the faculty of sciences, there has been created a laboratory of industrial chemistry specially devoted to the researches pertaining to the culture of the vine and the industries depending thereupon. To this laboratory is to be credited the remedy for mildew. At Lyons, the center of the silk and dyeing industries, there has been created a chair of industrial chemistry whose incumbent devotes himself to experiments in dyeing. Every year he sends out thirty or forty students, who go forth to apply in the local manufactories the knowledge acquired in the faculty. At Nancy, the center at once of agriculture and of brewing, the endeavor has been to meet the double demands of the region. Hence a chair of agricultural chemistry and a brewing laboratory, so that in the subsoil of the faculty of sciences model beers, ideal beers, are elaborated, which become the standards for the neighboring breweries. At Lille there is found a course in industrial chemistry and agriculture and a course in industrial physics. It is understood that physics can be made equally with chemistry the precious auxiliary of industry. I can not enumerate all the chairs, all the courses of agriculture or industrial chemistry. They are found in nearly all our university centers, and always adapted to the local demands. At Caen there exists as an annex to the faculty of sciences a laboratory particularly valuable in a seacoast and fishing place, namely, a laboratory of maritime zoology. At Besançon, center of manufactures and of clock making, we have a professor of chronometric science and an observatory of chronometry.

So much for the faculties of science. They are inspired with the ideas appropriate to each section of France; they have sought to meet the demands of trade, and beside the general instruction which is their province they have founded this special instruction.

The same is true of the faculties of letters. At Bordeaux there is a chair of the history of the southwest; at Nancy, a chair of the history of the east of France; at Lille, a chair of the languages and the literature of Picardy, and of the Wallons, and a chair of the Russian language and literature. Why the Russian language? Because that this region, from the seventeenth century, from the time of the formation of the "Company of the North" by Colbert, has been in relations with Russia through Dunkirk.

At Aix there is a chair of Provençal literature; at Rennes, a course in Celtic language and literature; at Toulouse, a chair of the history of the middle region of France, and a chair of the Spanish language and literature; at Grenoble, a course

in Italian literature; at Caen, a chair of Norman literature and art; at Poitiers and at Clermont, chairs consecrated to the history of the province. But all this does not prevent the teaching of the same chemistry at Lyons as at Bordeaux.

The movement toward these varied creations appears to me very wise because it tends to attach the faculties to the region in the center of which they are installed; because it will naturally lead them to love it and will result in their finding in the sympathies of the region, in the liberality of citizens justly proud of their little provincial possession, inexhaustible resources. This will enable them, thanks to the freedom which this law imparts, to develop the special local features of their work. In effect they will henceforth only be limited in respect to those matters that concern the obligatory courses of a general character.

It should be observed further that the funds for the greater part of these chairs, these courses, laboratories, and observatories, which I have just enumerated, have been furnished, either in whole or at least one-half, by the cities, departments, or sometimes the regions.

Having thus disposed of the objection that the interests of special instruction would suffer from the new law, the minister proceeded to consider its effect upon the national character of the institutions.

The possibility of this character he illustrated by the German universities, to which he paid a noble tribute as "vigorous factors in the national evolution" and "the incarnation of the national idea."

In replying to certain objections against the law the minister found occasion to contrast the ideal of the newly constituted universities with that of the old universities, and also with that of the Imperial creation.

Only the principal points of contrast dwelt upon are here summarized. So far as possible that is done by verbatim citations.

In the universities of the Middle Ages theology held first place. The new universities "will be, above all, secular and free."

The old institutions were essentially "international." "The University of Paris in the thirteenth century was as much foreign as French; that is to say, the students of foreign countries, those who were divided into 'nations,' English, German, Flemish, were perhaps more numerous than the French." But in the university of to-day the national character predominates, and the end to which their instruction is directed is national. In the old universities the separation between the different orders of instruction, between theology and law, between law and medicine, were strongly marked. They had no internal unity. Now, it is precisely the establishment of this internal unity that is sought in the proposed reform.

The universities of the Middle Ages, and this should be particularly noted, were poorly endowed. The professors refused to accept new colleagues in order to secure for themselves all the revenues of the corporation, all the profits from tuition fees. We have the spectacle in the seventeenth century of such a university, that of Bourges, reduced to be the fief of a father-in-law supported by his son-in-law.

It is precisely because of poverty that the French universities have given nothing to the Middle Ages and to modern times, because it is impossible to accomplish anything for science without instruments and without material. Now, we desire, as is well known, universities amply endowed to fulfill the mission that we propose to confide to them.

We desire for our universities modern manners as well as modern studies. Between the universities of the Middle Ages and those of to-day there is nothing in common; nothing excepting the name; nothing apart from the idea, always just, that those who desire to study should associate themselves together.

We realize that science being so extensive professors ought to devote more time to their students, to become their intimate collaborators. We realize also that science

being so vast in its variety, and each of its divisions and subdivisions forming in itself a science, it requires ample equipments, and a numerous teaching body, and for this work the resources of an association united to those of the State are none too great.

In considering the objections of those who hold that the new measure is contrary to the spirit of the French Revolution, the minister showed that the charge is unfounded, first, as regards the instruction proposed. This is to be general in its nature, encyclopedic as it were; but "the encyclopedia is the very essence of the eighteenth century itself," "it is the French Revolution itself."

The work of the lycée, as proposed by Mirabeau, was "to teach letters, sciences, and arts." Condorcet defined the lycées as "establishments where all the sciences will be taught in their whole extent." How does this differ, asks the minister, from the universities proposed by the new law? "This idea of the lycée," he says, "this university idea, that is not of special schools, but of schools for general knowledge, was discussed during the entire period of the Convention, and among its advocates are to be found Romme, one of the authors of the revolutionary calendar, Lepeletier de Saint-Fargeau, and Robespierre."

The reaction against this university idea, according to the minister, was the work of the Consulate and the Empire. Napoleon was devoted, and that in an ever-increasing degree, to special schools. The cause is easily understood, for they met his immediate and pressing demands for officers, magistrates, engineers, and doctors.

As to the faculties that he created—that is, the 27 faculties of letters and the 27 of science—"this apparent luxury of provision was in reality only poverty and weakness." The faculties of Napoleon were recruited from the neighboring lycées (not the lycée of Condorcet, but that of to-day, which is also a creation of Napoleon). The professors of the higher classes of the lycées constituted in effect the faculties of letters and of science, and the "proviseur," or principal, of the lycée was the dean of the faculty.

And moreover the faculties thus constituted were simply examining juries.

There were, it is true, illustrious professors—in the faculties of Paris, many celebrated and glorious. Some such might be mentioned in the provinces also; but this does not obscure the fact that the general state of superior instruction was that of mediocrity and sterility.

In contrast with this conception of higher instruction, comprising on the one hand special schools intended to supply candidates for certain professions necessary to the State and on the other isolated faculties having no proper being, stands out the liberal conception of 1789 in respect to education, the encyclopedic conception embodied in what were called lycées in the time of Condorcet and in what are to-day called universities.

While from some quarters it had been urged that the proposed universities would have too much liberty, from others the complaint was heard that they would not have enough. The minister observed that the two objections refuted each other. For himself he disclaimed any

desire to repress their free development. "I believe," he said, "that it is the essence of a republican State, developing in all directions the consequences of its own principle, to put freedom everywhere together with universality; not alone in letters and in science, but also in the arts."

The actual innovations made by the law into the existing system as explained by the minister relate to finances and programmes.

The universities will have the full control of part of their funds, with respect to others they will have a determining voice, and for the rest they will be limited to the mere privilege of giving advice or opinions.

It will be the same with the programmes of study. These will comprise portions obligatory upon the universities, because they correspond to the examinations and decrees prescribed by the State; but there will also be a wide margin for free options. From the funds which will belong to the universities and which for the most part will be provided by benefactions at their own disposal, the universities may create whatever instructions they desire, courses in Egyptology, in Assyriology, but they can not restrict the courses which the State judges to be necessary and which are maintained by the funds of the State.

As to the general reorganization of public instruction, the law makes no changes. There will still be a rector at the head of each academy. Above the council general of each university there will be the superior council with its permanent section; the professors and "agrégés" (associated professors or fellows) will be appointed; the project of law voted exactly as at present. Although appointments to professorships are made by the President, upon the advice of the minister, this is now scarcely more than a form, since the choice of the minister is greatly restricted. "There are not many countries," said M. Rambaud, "where the minister upon the presentation on the one side of the faculty interested and on the other of the permanent section is obliged to appoint the person whose name heads the list."

All things considered, the future universities will be as independent as the German universities. The only restriction imposed upon the former relates to the programmes. This is explained by the difference between the French diplomas and the German.

The new project, far from destroying the University of France, will, in the opinion of the minister, give it a higher value. It will also have the effect of drawing benefactions into the treasuries of the new universities.

Already, under the impulse of the recent movements, bequests to the amount of $600,000 have been received from private sources. Montpellier has been unusually favored in this respect, having received $300,000 in a single legacy. At Paris two chairs have been privately endowed, one of the history of the French Revolution and a second by the Count de Chambrun of the history of economic doctrines.

The minister was followed by M. Louis Liard, director of superior

instruction, who confined himself chiefly to the statistics pertaining to his department. The following are the principal facts brought out in his statement.

From 1884 to 1895 there was a notable decrease in the public expenditure for superior instruction. The State appropriations in the former year were $2,310,471. In 1895 they were $2,628,415, but during the same time the receipts from fees increased from $781,200 to $1,326,400; that is, while the expenditure increased by $300,000 the receipts increased by $540,000.

During the same period the net expenditure for a student declined, being $109 in 1884 and only $54 in 1895. In no country, said M. Liard, not even omitting Germany, does a student cost less.

For the purpose of comparison with the resources of the French universities, M. Liard submitted the following statement as to German universities. The total receipts he gave in round numbers as $4,740,000, derived as follows: From endowments and revenues, $600,000; from fees for courses, examinations, and matriculation, $540,000; subvention from the State, $3,600,000. In France, if the amounts received during the year by the establishments of superior instruction and which are turned into the treasury be subtracted from the State appropriations for the same, it will be found that the net cost to the State has been only $1,301,825.

It is desirable to note further that the net cost of a student is 271 francs ($54). In Germany the net cost to the State—that is, after deduction of the university revenues—is 645 francs ($129). It may be noted further that the expenditure for a university student per capita of the population is in Switzerland from 96 centimes to 1 franc (19 to 20 cents), varying in different cantons; in Germany it is 37 centimes (7 cents), in France it is only 16 centimes (3 cents).

Far from being excessive, as some have urged [said the director], the contribution from the State is actually insufficient. Take, for example, the budget of the Paris faculty of medicine, which comprises more than 4,000 students. The budget is considerable, but divided between the varied and important services, consider how small the appropriation for each. For the chemical laboratory only 5,215 francs ($1,043) per annum; for the physical laboratory a sum total of 1,460 francs ($292); the laboratory of histology, 2,020 francs ($404); the laboratory of anatomy, 1,250 francs ($250); that of therapeutics, 2,015 francs ($403); that of legal medicine, 1,720 francs ($344); of hygiene, 2,470 francs ($494); that of surgery, 1,190 francs ($238); that of comparative and experimental pathology, 2,470 francs ($494). This is pitiable.

I will now give the sums allowed for materials for each of the clinics of the Paris faculty of medicine. These are also mere pittances; no other word can be used. The medical clinic of the Hôtel Dieu receives 1,930 francs ($386); the surgical clinic, 1,200 francs ($240); the medical clinic of the "Charity," 1,610 francs ($322); the surgical clinic of the same hospital, 1,720 francs ($344); the medical clinic of the "Pitié," 790 francs ($158); the surgical clinic, 1,190 francs ($238).

The situation is nearly the same for the faculty of sciences at Paris. You know the éclat that this faculty has imparted to superior instruction and the discoveries by which it has contributed to the progress of science. Well, the appropriations for the laboratories, for the cost of instruction in this faculty, which comprises 25

experimental branches, is only 60,000 francs ($12,000); that is, about 2,400 francs ($480) for each.

The Bordeaux faculty of sciences, which has 10 experimental branches, receives only 14,500 francs ($2,900); that is, about 1,450 francs ($290) each. That of Lille, for 11 experimental branches, receives 15,550 francs ($3,110), or on the average 1,400 francs ($280) for each. The same penury for the libraries. The university libraries have been constructed and already well furnished, but how meager their budgets, especially by comparison.

Compare, for example, Strasburg and Nancy. Strasburg receives annually for the material of its library 72,500 francs ($14,500); Nancy only 21,625 francs ($4,325); Göttingen, which may be compared with Lyons, received 55,887 francs ($11,177); Lyons only 24,000 ($4,800); Halle has 30,000 francs ($6,000) and Poitiers 11,750 francs ($2,350).

M. Liard called attention further to what has become a matter of absolute dishonesty in the financial system.

The students pay certain fees annually for the use of libraries, laboratory facilities, etc. These sums are turned into the public treasury. As the number of students increases the product of the fees increases also, and since the State appropriations are not proportionately augmented, it follows that a part of the income from fees goes to the profit of the State instead of to the benefit of the institution and the students.

For example, at the Paris faculty of medicine the student is charged 50 francs ($10) for the use of laboratory the first year and 40 francs ($8) for the second and third year each.

In making up the balance between the funds from these fees which are thus received into the treasury and the appropriations allowed by the State for the same purpose, it appears that by reason of the increase in the number of students the resources of the faculty are actually reduced by an average amount of 21 francs, 34 centimes ($4.26) per student.

It is the same with the superior school of pharmacy, and with all the faculties where practical work is maintained. One of the most important of all the faculties is that of medicine and pharmacy at Lyons; the number of students who took part in the practical works in 1895 was 1,065. The amount allowed for these works in the budget of public instruction was 19,350 francs ($3,870) or 18 francs 17 centimes ($3.63) per student, but the amount turned into the treasury from the fees paid by the students on account of the experimental work averages 45 francs ($9) each.

The same thing occurs with respect to the libraries. Each student pays a library fee of 10 francs ($2) per annum. At Paris, in 1895, the total receipts from this source were 63,200 francs ($12,640). The appropriations from the State for the university library and for the libraries of the faculties of medicine, of theology, of law, and of the superior school of pharmacy, collectively, for the purchase of volumes and for subscriptions, were only 45,900 francs ($9,180). It is fully recognized that this is an injustice that ought not to be tolerated, and for this reason, among others, the new law has been submitted, which will put an end to these abuses after January, 1898.

Under this law the State will continue its appropriations as heretofore, but after the law goes into operation each university will retain the laboratory fees, library fees, and fees for courses as expressed in article 4.

REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO THE FRENCH FACULTIES.

The Report of the Commissioner for 1894–95 contained an account of important efforts for facilitating the admission of American students to university privileges in France. The initiatory impulse to this move-

ment was given by Professor Furber, of Chicago, who met with an immediate and cordial response from the ministry of public instruction and the university professors of France. A committee of university men was formed under the name of the "Committee Franco-American," to promote the object, and subsequently an advisory committee was organized in the United States under the presidency of Prof. Simon Newcomb. Concessions were secured immediately respecting admission to the faculty of science, as explained in the previous report. The following paper, for which the office is indebted to M. Paul Melon, of Paris, general secretary of the "Committee of patronage of foreign students," sets forth in detail the existing requirements:

Explanation of terms used in this paper for which there is no exact English equivalent, or whose equivalent in English is misleading.

1. *Facultics.* Equivalent to universities of other countries.
2. *Cours.* The instruction or lectures of the professors.
3. *Dispense.* An official certificate entitling the holder to exemption from certain examinations in consideration of other and equivalent proofs of capacity, and upon condition of paying the accumulated fees for the examinations from which he is exempted. Because of the latter condition the "dispense" is said to give the right to the candidacy for the higher degree by "titre onéreux" (literally, burdensome title).
4. *Inscription.* The act of registering on the roll of a faculty; for this formality, which must be renewed every three months, a fee is charged. Only those who have taken the required number of inscriptions can be admitted to examination.
5. *Stage officinal.* Period of practical work in compounding medicines required of students in pharmacy.
6. *Travaux pratiques.* Practical works which differ in the different faculties. In the faculty of medicine, they comprise anatomical dissections, hospital practice, etc.; in the faculty of sciences, experiments, and, in general, laboratory work.

Higher education in France is given in the faculties and the special schools. The faculties form groups which, while a part of the State system (that is, dependent upon the State), preserve a certain autonomy. The courses are absolutely free.[1] There are four faculties, that of letters, of sciences, of medicine, and of law. They are as freely open to foreigners as to the natives, either being admitted to take their degree. Both foreigners and natives are required to furnish proof of certain preliminary study. For foreigners this proof consists in the production of a certificate of secondary study. This is then referred to the judgment of the minister, who decides whether the scientific value of the certificate produced is sufficient to admit of the course being followed with profit. This is called a "dispense" (i. e., exemption or authorization). This authorization, however, does not carry the right to enter the desired course excepting by "titre onéreux," that is to say, that the candidate pays the accumulated fees for the terms of study or the examinations from which he is exempted by the "dispense."

This "dispense" is never granted for the degrees of licentiate or doctor; but a waste of the time for studying may be obviated by the cumulative concessions of a certain number of "inscriptions" (terms), granted on the condition that the student shall submit to a probationary examination. The foreign doctor of medicine who wishes to take the title of doctor in French medicine may perhaps be authorized to take an aggregate of sixteen inscriptions simultaneously,[2] but he must undergo an examination and submit a theme. The foreign pharmacist may obtain a "dispense" or exemption from the stage of practical work (stage officinal) and the concession of twelve terms, but he must submit to three definitive examinations. When a

[1] Fees are required for registration (inscription), for use of laboratories, libraries, etc., for examinations, diplomas, etc., but the regular courses under the professors are free.

[2] Representing sixteen terms of study.

foreign student who has graduated from a foreign university wishes to take the course in a French university he is required to send to the minister of public instruction a request for a "dispense," accompanied by the diplomas obtained in his native country after they have been translated and legalized; also a certificate of birth (original and translation). When the certificate produced by the grantee shows obscurities or gaps, the foreigner is subjected to a trial examination by a commission of the faculty in which he wishes to enter. This examination is based on the matter which was not clearly indicated by the certificate which had been shown. The complementary Latin examination consists in a theme and translation written at sight.

This applies only to the students who aspire to the degrees conferred by the faculty; but those who wish simply to profit by the instruction have the greatest liberty allowed them in following the course.

The foreigner who has furnished proof of the necessary preliminary instruction is admitted to the greater number of our special schools, either as pupil or as free auditor, and especially is this the case with the Superior Maritime School, the School of St. Cyr, the School of Forestry at Nancy, the School of Manufactures, the Superior School of Mines, the School of Bridges and Roads, the School of Telegraphy, the School of Agriculture (Institut National Agronomique), the Schools of Decorative Arts and of Fine Arts, the "Écóle Centrale," the "Écóle Pratique des Hautes Études," the Conservatory of Music, etc.

In order to obtain the degrees in higher education it is necessary to pay the fees for inscription for the library, for practical work, examinations, and diploma.

The fee for inscription (which carries the privileges of the course for one term) is 30 francs ($6) for three months, that of the library 10 francs ($2) per annum, that of the diploma varies from 40 to 100 francs ($8 to $20).

The diploma fees shown in detail are:

Theology: Baccalaureate in theology, 155 francs ($31); licentiate in theology, 155 francs ($31); doctorate in theology, 190 francs ($38).

Law: Certificate of capacity in law, 255 francs ($51); baccalaureate, 700 francs ($140); licentiate, 430 francs ($86): doctorate, 570 francs ($114).

Medicine: Doctorate, 1,305 francs ($261); diploma of surgeon dentist, 960 francs ($192).

Science: Certificate of study (in chemistry and natural science), 300 francs ($60); baccalaureate, 120 francs ($24); licentiate, 230 francs ($46); doctorate, 140 francs ($28).

Letters: Baccalaureate, 120 francs ($24); licentiate, 230 francs ($46); doctorate, 140 francs ($28).

Pharmacy: Diploma of pharmacy, first class, 144 francs ($28.80); diploma of pharmacy (higher), 400 francs ($80).

The degree conferred by the faculties in France are those of bachelor, of licentiate, and of doctor.

No student can be registered for the course in which he presents himself for examination unless he is a bachelor of letters, excepting for the faculty of science, in which a diploma of bachelor is sufficient.[1]

To be admitted to take the examination of bachelor in theology it is necessary to follow a course of three years in one of the faculties of the French Republic, commencing with the first year of preparatory study, terminated by an examination called the ascension in theology. Students provided with the licentiate of letters are exempted from the preparatory year. Every six months the student must present himself for examination (examen de passage). For the baccalaureate one must undergo a written and oral examination and submit in public a printed thesis.

For the licentiate in theology it is necessary to show proof of four terms taken

[1] The official decree of August 8, 1890, instituting a single bachelor's degree for the three formerly recognized was waived for candidates for the degree of bachelor of science until November, 1894. Hence many candidates for higher degrees have only the science baccalaureate.

since the oaccalaureate, and one only receives the degree of licentiate after undergoing a written and oral examination and submitting two theses, one of which is in Latin.

In order to be received as doctor in theology one must submit a general theme after having proved four inscriptions taken since the licentiate.

Examination for law.—In order to obtain a certificate of capacity in law a diploma of bachelor is not necessary. It is necessary to take four inscriptions, to follow during one year the course of civil law for the first and second years, and also the course of criminal and civil procedure, and to pass an examination on matters connected with each of these courses.

The course for the baccalaureate is one of two years. For the licentiate there is a supplementary year. At the end of the scholastic year each student must pass an examination on all the subjects taught during the year. The second examination confers the degree of bachelor of law; the third, that of licentiate in law.

The last is divided into two parts. The written examination consists in two compositions, one on a question of civil law, the other on a question of commercial law. The candidate may make use of the Code.

Only candidates (those who have taken the necessary inscriptions) are admissible to the examinations. There are two ordinary sessions, one in July and the other in November. Unless for some very serious reason the student must present himself in July.

In order to obtain a diploma of doctorate in law the candidate must first be a licentiate in law, pursue a four-years course of study, pass two examinations, and sustain a public act (disputation in which the candidate maintains a certain proposition).

The diploma of doctor of law must make mention of one of the following subjects: Science of jurisprudence, political and economic science.

The candidate recognized as prepared for a degree in one of the above-named subjects may obtain the other by passing the examination and composing and sustaining a second theme.

Doctorate in medicine.—The aspirants for a doctorate in medicine, in order to take the first inscription, must produce the bachelor's diploma of classical studies (lettres-philosophie) and the special certificate of studies (pnysics, chemistry, and natural sciences).[1] They must pass five examinations and sustain a thesis. The subject of the thesis is chosen by the candidate.

The first examination takes place between the sixth and eighth terms; the second between the eighth and tenth; the third between the thirteenth and sixteenth; the fourth and fifth after the sixteenth. The fourth and fifth and the theme must be submitted to the same faculty.

Examination in the faculty of letters.—The candidate for the examination of licentiate must possess the title of bachelor of letters and take four terms in the course of the faculty. There are four classes of the licentiate of letters—literary, philosophical, historical, and living languages.

There are two sessions (of the examining board) per annum, one in July and the other in November. At Paris there is an extraordinary session in April.

Pharmacy.—Inferior diploma. After the twelfth term the students who have fulfilled the required term of study are admitted to the three examinations at the end of the course. The candidate who presents a thesis showing original research

[1] Certificate of studies, physics, chemistry, and natural sciences. To be admitted to the course for this special certificate, which is given in the faculty of sciences, candidates must be provided with the diploma of bachelor or the teacher's diploma (brevet supérieur) or the certificate of studies of the superior primary schools. In order to be admitted to the examinations the student must have finished four terms and must have taken part in practical work. The examination comprises four interrogatories and four proofs of practical study in the following subjects: Geology, chemistry, zoology, and botany.

may, with the consent of the school,[1] be exempted from the second part of the third examination.

The superior diploma is obtained after four years of study, made valid by an examination and the submission of an original theme approved by the school.

The diploma of higher instruction is equivalent to the doctorate of physics and natural sciences.

Besides these there are, in certain faculties of letters, of science, and of law, certificates of higher studies and of legal study. The conditions for obtaining this certificate are left to the faculties, who have the greatest liberty in regard to the same. This certificate, as its name indicates, simply bears witness to the kind of study pursued by the recipient and does not allow him any of the rights conferred by the diploma.

In the same manner there is given in the faculty of letters a diploma of higher study in history and geography. This diploma serves as the evidence of a scientific apprenticeship on the part of the student. This diploma is delivered after the following proofs:

(*a*) Examination and discussion of a topic in history or geography, which is chosen by the candidate and approved by the professors or masters or lecturers in history and geography of the faculty of letters or of the superior normal school.

(*b*) Discussion of a question in history and of a question in geography indicated to the candidate three months in advance.

(*c*) The critical explanation of a historical or geographical text chosen by a candidate.

(*d*) Examination upon a subject drawn by lot, at the choice of the candidate, either from the sciences auxiliary to history (archæology, ethnography. paleography, diplomacy, bibliography) or from general geography.

The faculties of science deliver a certificate of higher study corresponding to the subjects taught by them. The diploma of licentiate in science is conferred on the student who produces three certificates of study.

The student is allowed to choose between the different subjects which are taught in the faculties, and, if he presents the certificates of higher studies, he may obtain the degree of licentiate.

Higher instruction is also given in a great number of schools or scientific establishments which have an independent life. These establishments do not grant degrees as do the faculties, but they confer certain diplomas having an exclusively scientific character. For example, the École pratique des hautes études (Practical School of Higher Studies), the School of Charts, the School of Oriental and Living Languages, schools or establishments such as the "Collège de France," the Museum of Natural History, the "École du Louvre" (School of the Louvre), all of which are veritable scientific laboratories in which one may pursue the investigation of truth. The courses in these establishments are open to foreigners as freely as to the natives.

As to the special schools of application, such as maritime schools, the school of forestry, the schools of agriculture, the school of mines, etc., foreigners are admitted as free auditors or as pupils, if they prefer, provided that they have had sufficient scientific instruction and are recommended by the minister of their own country residing in France.

In order to facilitate the sojourn of foreigners in the universities and in the schools, committees, called committees of patronage for foreign students, have been formed at Paris and in the most important educational centers of the provinces. These committees not only endeavor to do for the students everything possible as regards educational advantages and moral support, but also everything that is necessary from the point of view of material life. By means of their intervention between the student and the municipal authorities the sojourn in France is rendered as profitable and agreeable as possible. Many of these are organized to give foreigners every

[1] The superior schools of pharmacy have the same rank as faculties.

opportunity to acquire the French language. Installation in one of these is sufficient to procure hospitality of the broadest and most comfortable sort. These committees are found at Aix, Bordeaux, Montpellier, Nancy, Paris, and Toulon.[1]

The following statement relative to recent official regulations respecting the status of foreign students of medicine in France was drawn up by Mr. Henry Vignaud, chargé d'affaires of the United States at Paris. The paper was transmitted from the State Department to the Department of the Interior and referred by the Secretary of the Interior to this office for the purpose of bringing its contents to the attention of those specially interested in the information:

EMBASSY OF THE UNITED STATES,
Paris, July 24, 1896.

SIR: American medical students who come to Paris with the view of graduating in one of the medical schools of France were heretofore allowed certain facilities to enter these schools. When they were graduates of our well-known colleges, or held a diploma of doctor of medicine issued by a reputable foreign scientific institution, they were permitted, upon application being made through this embassy, to follow the regular courses of the French medical schools exactly like French students who had graduated from the French faculties, and at the end of the course, in the fall, if successful in the final examination, were awarded the same diploma as those to Frenchmen—diploma which carried with it the privilege of practicing in France.

The number of foreign students in France having by degrees considerably increased, and the proportion of those who, for a certain time at least, remain here to practice their profession having also become much larger, the French Government has adopted a stricter rule for the admission of foreigners to the French medical schools.

In the future, foreigners desirous of obtaining the same diploma of doctor of medicine as that awarded to Frenchmen will have to submit to the same conditions imposed upon French students; that is to say, that the diploma they may have obtained abroad or in any private institution will not be at all considered, and that before being allowed to register at any of the French medical schools, they will have to produce, like French students, a French State diploma of "Bachelier de l'Enseignement classique," and the "Certificat de Sciences physiques, chimiques et naturelles."

To the foreign students who do not propose to practice medicine in France the facilities usually extended to them will be continued and even enlarged, but they will only be entitled to a special diploma solely intended for foreigners of that class and granting no rights to practice in France.

These regulations were issued on the 21st instant. They are not applicable to foreign students already registered.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

HENRY VIGNAUD.

Hon. RICHARD OLNEY,
Secretary of State.

[1] For the American student who wishes to pursue his studies in France the committee at Paris is able to obtain a reduction of 30 per cent on the steamers of the Gallic-Transatlantic Company.

APPENDIX.

EDUCATION IN FRANCE.[1]

By Dr. Alcée Fortier.

Paris, *July 31, 1895.*

Since my arrival in Paris nothing has interested me more than the general competition of the lycées and colleges at the Sorbonne. I was fortunate in obtaining an admission card, and I had an excellent seat, where I heard perfectly the addresses of the orator of the day and of the minister of public instruction. The following extract from the Temps of July 31 gives a good idea of what took place:

"At noon the minister arrived, escorted by a platoon of policemen on horseback. A double line of policemen pushed back the idlers on the sidewalk of boulevard St. Michel and of rue des Écoles.

"M. Gréard, vice-rector, received, on the steps of the Sorbonne, M. Poincaré, who was accompanied by M. Liard, director of superior education; M. Rabier, director of secondary education; M. Xavier Charmes, director of the secrétariat; M. Bernard, chief of the cabinet, and M. Grant, private secretary.

"The minister entered by the middle door and went to the reception hall, the drums beat, and the foot guard were ranged in a row in the grand vestibule.

"The cortége went by the gallery of the faculty of letters toward the grand amphitheater. The mace bearers of the faculties walked ahead, then came the members of the academic council, of the general council, of the faculties of the superior council of public instruction, of the institute, of the diplomatic corps, etc. All these high dignitaries took their seats on the platform around the minister.

"The hall was entirely filled. In the hemicycle were seated M. Gréard, the proviseurs (presidents) of the lycées, and the faculty professors, behind them the students. In the tribunes and the galleries were the relations of the students and the persons holding cards. The music of the republican guard played a selection. Then M. Poincaré called on M. Bergson, professor of philosophy at the Lycée Henry IV, for the oration of the day."

M. Bergson chose for his subject, "Good Sense and the Classical Studies," and spoke with great elegance.

The address of M. Poincaré was really very fine. Here are some passages which impressed me:

"Our education is made, in part, from what we receive from others, and, in part, from the free working of our will. The lessons of the school and of the college complete one another, in the course of our lives, by the teaching of things and by the example of men; they are sharpened by the secret action of conscience. Our youth is passed in continuing the education of our childhood; our mature age, in perfecting that of our youth; our old age, in regretting our not having had the time to terminate that of our mature age. But we leave after us a little of that education always incomplete, and that little enters, for the benefit of future generations, the common fund of humanity.

"In that continuous evolution which constitutes education the school and the college will never give to the mind of the student but a first orientation, but what is indispensable is to make exactly that direction in the path of right and truth.

"We do for you, my friends, what we can. We do not answer for remote deviations and unforeseen accidents. We set the needle as best we can. Let each one of you then regulate his march, survey his route, and maintain the initial velocity.

"But if I repeat thus, writing them purposely, these two fraternal expressions of school and college, it is because education has not, according to the degree of instruction, distinct aims and contrary paths; because the impetus, weaker here and stronger

[1] Translated by the author from his "Voyage in Europe in 1895."

there, must be everywhere in accord; because everywhere the clear and just perception of life must be awakened, and because in the college as well as in the school, the work of the state, unless it be inert and useless, is the initiation, prudent and resolute, of childhood to contemporary reality."

These are very liberal ideas, this is what modern education should be; it must not be always directed toward the past, it must attend to the present and look the future boldly in the face in order to be able to surmount all the difficulties which might present themselves.

The list of premiums was ready, and the students came to receive their prizes, which consisted in books, and in a crown which the minister or one of the high dignitaries on the platform placed on the heads of the students. When the grandson of M. Gréard was called the latter rose from his seat and kissed the boy on both cheeks. That caress of a grandfather was truly French and was loudly applauded. There were a first premium, a second premium, and eight accessits (second bests). Among that large number of pupils representing all the lycées of Paris I was astonished to hear only two historical names called, d'Argenson and de Maurepas. This fact shows the changes in society made by the French Revolution.

The distribution of prizes in Paris does not resemble at all the commencement exercises of our colleges; besides, the French lycées are entirely different from the American colleges. M. Foucin, general secretary of the Alliance Française, was kind enough to procure for me the following authorization, which I reproduce here to show what are the formalities requisite to visit the schools and lycées in Paris.

"ACADEMY OF PARIS, UNIVERSITY OF FRANCE,
"*Paris, July 13, 1895.*

"M. Alcée Fortier, professor in New Orleans, member of the Alliance Française, is authorized to attend a few classes in the following establishments:

"Lycée Janson de Sailly, rue de la Pompe.

"Collège Chaptal, boulevard des Batignolles.

"École Turgot, rue de Turbigo.

"École normale d'institutions de la Seine et école primaire annexe, 10 rue Molitor.

"The proviseur and directors will please give all facilities to M. Fortier.

"THE VICE-RECTOR, GRÉARD."

With this authorization I presented myself at about 8.30 a. m. at the Lycée Janson de Sailly, situated at Passy, between Paris and the Bois de Boulogne. It is a magnificent establishment, which comprises, according to the prospectus, "four colleges really distinct," where the students, according to their age, form four separate divisions, which do not communicate with one another. They each have their court for recess, their study halls, their classes, their refectories, and dormitories. The first two colleges form the "grand lycée," directed by the proviseur; the last two colleges constitute the "petit lycée."

Children are admitted at the lycée at the age of 6, and they remain there until they have obtained the bachelor's degree, between 16½ and 17 years. We see that young men in France leave the lycées at about the age when, in the United States, they enter college; that is to say, if classes were named, as with us, freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior, the bachelors in France would be of the age of the freshman class, or rather of the sophomore. It is true that in leaving the lycée the young man may go to one of the great schools of the Government—Superior Normal School, Polytechnic School, Central School, St. Cyr, Agronomic Institute, School for High Studies, etc.

At the Lycée Janson de Sailly "religious instruction is given to the boarding students for whom a special dispensation has not been asked by the parents. Conferences are given in each division, and give rise to periodical compositions and annual premiums, as in the other branches. Two chaplains of the Catholic religion, a pastor, and a rabbi are attached to the house. On the demand of families, the day scholars are admitted gratuitously to the religious conference."

I regret that I was able to visit only one class at Janson de Sailly. On arriving at the lycée I asked for the proviseur, and his secretary told me that he had just left his office with the inspector. I was requested to wait in an antechamber, where through the windows I saw the boys playing in the yard. I did not lack time to study the games of the students, for the proviseur did not return. After having waited for an hour, I asked the secretary whether I could not visit the lycée with some other person than the proviseur. The secretary seemed to be terrified, and exclaimed: "Oh, sir! Visit the lycée in the absence of Monsieur le Proviseur!" I waited half an hour longer; then I left. I came back in the afternoon, at 2 o'clock, and had the good fortune to meet the proviseur. That gentleman received me perfectly, and replied with great politeness to the numerous questions which I asked him about education in France. I could not help expressing my astonishment that they should have made me wait for an hour and a half in an antechamber without allowing me to visit the establishment in his absence. I told him that in my country if a professor in a French lycée were to visit one of our colleges he would not wait five minutes; in the absence of the president any one of the professors would willingly take him all over the college. The proviseur told me that what had happened to me was the result of the inordinate centralization in France. He introduced me then to the censor, who took me to a Latin class—the third class, I believe. The class was reading an extract from Seneca, but the professor told me that the author read by the class was Livy, which appeared to me an advanced grade for boys of 13 or 14. The pronunciation of Latin is entirely French, and differs completely from that of the American colleges. The students begin Latin and Greek one year earlier than with us, and I believe that they are right in France. The professor's seat is on a platform and the students' benches are in rows raised one above the other. I was well pleased with the method of teaching, although it seemed to me that the professor spoke a little too much about Seneca and did not question the students sufficiently. In a class of young pupils it is better that they should translate the Latin and explain the grammatical construction than to hear the professor give a kind of lecture on the author whose work is being read.

On leaving the Latin class I was invited by the censor to return the next morning to the lycée. I arrived at the appointed time, but to my great surprise the censor told me that the students were standing their examinations and that the presence of a stranger might embarrass them. I was astonished at this reasoning, for according to M. Gréard's letter all facilities were to be given me to study the system of education in France, and there is no better way to understand what a class is doing than to attend the examinations of that class. I said to myself that either the Lycée Janson de Sailly was not a very hospitable place or at that school there was exaggerated red tape.

I went immediately to the normal school for teachers of the Seine, and there I was most cordially received. I did not wait a minute, and I attended the examinations of several classes—French grammar, mathematics, English, and explanation of French texts. The examination in grammar was not brilliant, and I saw that pupils in France do not distinguish themselves in that branch any more than in America. The explanation of texts was very good, and the examination in English very interesting. The examination in mathematics was satisfactory. The pupils present themselves four or five at a time before two teachers and are examined orally.

I was anxious to see Chaptal College, of which my friend Dr. Devron, a former pupil of that institution, had often spoken to me. I was admitted immediately, and I attended M. Hinzelin's class in literature. At Chaptal College there are two classes of professors—the general professors and the special professors. The former are charged "first, to be present at the courses of the special professors of a division; second, to classify weekly the pupils of that division."

M. Hinzelin is a special professor and a poet of talent. I listened with great interest to a lecture which he gave on Alfred de Musset. He made a critical analysis of the

principal works of the poet and recited hundreds of lines. I was impressed by some of his remarks. He said that the Andromaque of Racine was parodied by Musset in his Marrons du Feu, and made an interesting comparison between the two works. He said also that Musset resembles La Fontaine; that he affects laziness like the great fabulist; that he unrhymed his verses purposely. M. Hinzelin's rôle is limited to giving lectures to the pupils; the latter take notes and are examined on these notes by another professor. It does not seem to me that this system is good. In that way the professor does not exert a sufficient influence on his pupils.

I took a special interest in M. Gricourt's English class. This professor, whom I had already met at the normal school for teachers of the Seine, pleased me very much. I have never met a more charming man. He speaks English very well, without any trace of French accent. His class was reading David Copperfield and translated very creditably that novel difficult to translate. M. Gricourt does not believe in the natural method, and uses in the beginning of his course an English grammar written in French. He tries, however, as much as possible to speak English to his pupils. He requested me to speak to them in English, and I questioned them on what I had told them. They answered very well.

Chaptal College belongs to the city of Paris and was founded by Prosper Goubaux in 1844. It corresponds, to a certain extent, with the German Realschule; that is to say, Latin and Greek are taught, and much attention is given to the physical and natural sciences, to the modern languages, and to the French language and literature. The following extract from the prospectus explains the aim of the founder:

"In organizing, in 1844, Chaptal College, the city of Paris had for its aim to create an establishment where the young might find, at the same time as the principles and the general instruction which are the basis of any good education, an instruction which should prepare them for examinations requiring a more special study of the sciences, for the different occupations of banking, of finance, and of the administration, as well as for the professions specially devoted to industry, commerce and agriculture."

Chaptal College, as well as the lycées, receives boarders, half-boarders, and day scholars, and the instruction is not free. The building is immense and very handsome. A. Dumas fils and Claretie are former pupils of Chaptal. I had the pleasure of receiving a visit from M. Hédoux, secretary of the friendly association of the alumni of Chaptal College, to whom Dr. Devron had kindly introduced me.

Secondary education is given in the lycées and colleges, and is not free. It is even costly, but the Government grants a certain number of scholarships in each lycée or college. Let me explain here that by "University of France" is meant the whole system of education directed by the Government, and by "academy" the institutions comprised in a certain locality. Thus, the Academy of Paris forms part of the University of France, and signifies the institution of the Government situated in Paris.

Besides the lycées and the colleges and the schools of the Government, there are everywhere in France private schools and schools directed by the religious orders.

Secondary education is divided into two parts, classical secondary and modern secondary. The elementary division comprises the preparatory class and the classes of the eighth and seventh grades; the division of grammar comprises the classes of the sixth, fifth, and fourth grades; the superior division comprises the classes of the third and second grades, of rhetoric, and of philosophy. The programmes of the modern secondary are about like those of Chaptal College, and do not differ much from those of the German Realschule. In the latter, however, Latin is taught, but not Greek, which is replaced by a more complete study of mathematics, of modern languages, and of the physical and natural sciences. In the French modern secondary, Latin and Greek are not taught. The classes of rhetoric and of philosophy of the classical instruction are replaced in the modern by the first class (letters) and the first class (sciences). The bachelor's degree of the modern secondary course gives access to almost all professions. There are also in the lycées special classes of mathematics,

where one studies arithmetic, algebra, geometry, descriptive geometry, and analytical geometry. In the regular course of mathematics descriptive geometry and analytical geometry are not taught.

The student who has received his bachelor's degree may prepare himself for the excellent institutions for superior instruction in Paris, but it seems to me that it would be better if the studies of the lycées were continued two or three years longer, and if there were universities in the principal cities of France, as before the revolution, and as in America and in Germany to-day. The system of instruction in the lycées appears to me very judicious, but I fear that there is overwork in the study of Greek and of Latin. I like very much the study of the modern languages, German and English, begun in the preparatory class and continued to the end of the course, in the class of philosophy and in the first grade classes. There are also optional classes in Italian, Spanish, and Russian.

As far as I can judge the system of education in Paris and, consequently, in France, is excellent. The Government, however, does not offer as many facilities for superior instruction as in the United States. With us, in almost every State, there is a State university where tuition is free. In France all the great schools for superior education are in Paris, and that must prevent a number of young men from rising higher than the bachelor's degree. The great advantage of France over the United States is that primary elementary education is compulsory. By that system, in a few years, all Frenchmen will know how to read and write, and France need no longer fear, as was said in 1870, to be vanquished by the German schoolmaster.

CHAPTER XII.

EDUCATION IN MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA.

By F. F. Hilder.

Mexico and the Republics of Central America have a history which is exceedingly interesting to every thoughtful and unprejudiced student of human life and progress on this continent.

To the people of this country Mexico has a peculiar interest, not only from her being our nearest southern neighbor, separated from us by a merely imaginary boundary line 1,250 miles in extent, but from the fact that in her long struggle for liberty she has always looked up to the United States as her model, and has proved her confidence in our institutions by adopting them as a basis for her own. In her efforts to establish a republican form of government Mexico has labored under tremendous disadvantages as compared with our own battle for independence.

English rule in this country was based on the spirit of liberty, and however far the Government may have departed from that spirit, the people of the colonies were enlightened and in every way prepared by nature and training for self-government. In Mexico and Central America the material for citizenship was very different. During the years of Spanish dominion the ruling class was Spanish or of Spanish blood. The Spanish-American or mixed race then had little influence, and a middle class hardly existed. There was only a ruling class, rendered autocratic and tyrannical by centuries of domination over a downtrodden and enslaved people, and the great toiling masses who lived the life of the serfs of feudal times, so ignorant that they did not know enough to be unhappy in their lot, nor to form plans to improve it.

The chaotic past has been very dark, and to the superficial observer it may have often appeared almost hopeless to expect that a free and progressive republic could arise from the discordant elements, but each upheaval has left the country a little in advance, and the outlook for the past few years has been brighter than ever before.

In the construction of their constitutions the United States and Mexico made grievous errors, which in both instances came near destroying the Governments. The United States guaranteed slavery and made religion free. Mexico abolished slavery but restricted the right of worship to a single sect. Both of these errors have been rectified, but by a fearful expenditure of blood and treasure, and in the case of Mexico by the prolongation of her exhausting struggle for freedom.

The enlightened and sagacious statesmen of Mexico can look backward with pride on a history teeming with the details of a heroic struggle for liberty, and to the future as offering a brilliant prospect for the enjoyment of the benefits and blessings of republican institutions.

For the full fruition of their hopes and aspirations the great necessity is that the people, by the diffusion of knowledge and the spread of education, may become worthy citizens and judicious conservators of the liberty that has been won for them.

Popular education must now do for Mexico what no other agency can accomplish toward building up a government "of the people, for the people, and by the people," whose foundations must be laid in an intelligent and self-respecting citizenship.

The population of the Republic of Mexico in 1893 was 12,056,046. The predominating race, in numbers, of the present day is not the Indian, as in former times. An official authority classes the present population as consisting of 19 per cent European and Spanish-American, 38 per cent Indian, and 43 per cent of mixed blood.

There is now a very large and influential middle class, composed of both Indian and mixed races, which is every year, by the spread of education, gaining large accessions from the humbler class, who are making wonderful progress by aid of the fine educational advantages now offered them. It is from this class that are springing from year to year men of genius and talent, who by toil and study are taking their position in the front rank of the army of progress, in commerce, literature, art, and science, which is the reward of labor, fidelity, and patience.

It is to the credit of the statesmen who have directed the career of the country in its heroic struggle for liberty that they have always recognized the fact that popular education is one of the primary functions in the life of the State; that no republican form of government can exist without it, and that the question of the education of its citizens is one which concerns the life and permanence of the State. They saw clearly that it was a question for the State, and one that could not be left to a church or a parent to decide; that the Republic must claim the right to educate its citizens, not only from a humanitarian point of view, but to preserve its integrity and existence.

In spite of all the unrest and turmoil of the years which followed the downfall of the Spanish power in Mexico, the attention of the Government was directed toward the question of education. The first law on the subject, which was compiled by Don Jose Louis Mora, during the presidency of Gen. Antonio Lopez de Santa-Anna, was promulgated in October, 1833. It was based upon advanced and liberal principles, and contained an excellent plan of study for use in the public schools. It, however, contained also a provision authorizing the appropriation of some real estate belonging to the church to provide the necessary funds. The clergy were excluded from taking any part in public education maintained at the expense of the Government, and the ancient Clerical University was suppressed.

The reactionary and clerical party were strong enough to create a revolution, which resulted in the restoration to the church of the property which had been taken, and the reestablishment of the university under the direction of the clergy.

For several years the country was convulsed by war with France and civil war within its borders, but in spite of these troubles the cause of education was not lost sight of, and in August, 1843, the Government issued a decree for the purpose of establishing uniformity in methods of teaching and a graded system of classes in the schools. In November of the same year a decree was published centralizing in the City of Mexico the whole direction of the educational system of the country. This remained in force until October, 1846, when the centralization was abolished and the right returned to the states to control the educational systems within their own boundaries.

The war with the United States for several years prevented any progress in national educational matters, and the revolution of 1852, which led to the establishment of the dictatorship of General Santa-Anna, again caused a retrograde movement toward the old antidemocratic system. In 1855 this insupportable tyranny was overthrown and a constitutional republic was established, one of the first acts of which was to restore the educational law of 1843. In April, 1861, when Don Ignacio Ramirez was minister of justice, he obtained the passage of another law on the subject, which was one of the most liberal that had been promulgated, and true to the spirit of the law of 1833. The disturbed condition of the country, the invasion by the French army, and the disastrous reign of Maximilian prevented a practical application of the law, and it was not until the establishment of a constitutional republic that the cause of education emerged from the deplorable condition into which it had fallen during the continuance of the struggle which had convulsed the country. A law was passed in December, 1867, for reopening the establishments for secondary instruction, which

had been closed; for the improvement of the primary schools, and to eliminate from the methods of teaching such ideas as were not in harmony with republican principles. This law was amended by another promulgated May 15, 1869, giving a still greater impetus to instruction, extending the privilege of education to all social classes, and making primary instruction obligatory in the federal district and territories. At last, after fifty years of almost continuous wars and revolutions, the party of liberal opinions had definitely triumphed. The results of this triumph have been the complete separation of church and state, universal religious toleration, a constitution based on the broadest republican principles, a free press, and free schools.

As the ground swell which had been raised on the sea of Mexican life by the storms that had swept over it subsided and the ship of state floated in calmer waters, a tremendous task lay before the Government, nothing less than the education of millions of poor and ignorant people in the knowledge to be obtained from books, in the habit of thinking, and in all the essentials of self-respecting citizenship. Under the most favorable circumstances considerable time must be required for such an undertaking. Nothing can hasten beyond a certain point the solution of the problem, and it is not surprising that great difficulties were encountered.

In April, 1873, the Government formulated another plan for public instruction, but owing to unforeseen obstacles was unable to put it in operation. In October, 1887, the committee on public instruction of the House of Deputies presented a bill to enforce compulsory education within the Federal District and Territories, which became a law in 1888.

The principal provisions of this law were the making primary instruction obligatory and free for all children between the ages of 6 and 12 years, directing the establishment of a primary school for boys and another for girls for every 4,000 inhabitants, which proportion might be raised in the Territories of Tepic and Lower California, the schools to be placed under control of the local authorities, who were to have control of the funds and appoint directors and teachers.

For the support of the schools the law provided that subsidies should be made from time to time by the Federal Government, and appropriations by municipal corporations from taxes levied for the purpose, and from such fines as might be imposed by law and devoted to the schools. In order to carry out the principle of compulsory education, all persons having charge or control of minors were required to prove that the children for whom they were responsible had received the necessary primary education. The penalty for violation or neglect of this order was fixed at from 10 cents to $10, or from one to ten days' imprisonment.

The law required that this plan should be put in operation within one year, but as it was desired to extend its provisions to all the States of the Republic its organization was suspended until this object could be attained.

Here was encountered the principal difficulty caused by a lack of uniformity. In all educational matters a condition of chaos existed, as every State had its own school legislation; hence there was no uniform system in the curricula of secondary schools and preparation of teachers, while in the primary schools matters were still more complicated by changes and modifications made by municipal authorities. Educational theories were taken from foreign pedagogical works without being thoroughly understood, and new methods and ideas were blindly accepted or rejected. Even in the course of a single school year changes were made and courses lengthened or shortened, to the confusion and bewilderment of both students and teachers.

With a view to overcoming these difficulties, and to establish a uniform system in the legislative and scholastic regulations throughout the Republic, and to secure more satisfactory results from the efforts and sacrifices made by the Government in the cause of education, Señor Joaquin Baranda, minister of justice and education, one of the most enlightened and progressive of Mexican statesmen, issued a circular in June, 1889, for the purpose of organizing in the City of Mexico a congress to be composed of eminent educators and representatives from the different States, to be appointed by their respective governors. This was followed by another circular

issued on October 5 of the same year, requesting the governors to furnish for the use and guidance of the convention statistics giving the number of pupils receiving instruction in the schools, number of schools, resources for their maintenance, and copies of all the laws, regulations, programmes, and rules for study in use in their respective States.

The convention met on November 28 in the chamber of the House of Deputies in the City of Mexico, under the presidency of Señor Baranda, and the formal sessions commenced on December 1. It remained in session until March 31, 1890.

The points submitted for the deliberation of the convention are comprised in the following extract from the circular issued by the minister:

"First. Primary, laic secular instruction, compulsory and gratuitous, including the age at which children should be received, the classes to be taught, the progressive order of study, the number of years to complete the course, the means of enforcing compliance with the rules, the establishment in towns of small schools for children and adults, and of rural schools, with itinerant teachers.

"Second. Preparatory instruction, gratuitous and voluntary, including the studies necessary for a complete and vigorous course, such as preparation for professions, the scientific distribution and order in which they are to be taught, the programme, and number of years to complete the course.

"Third. Professional instruction, voluntary and protected by the State, including the subjects to be comprised in each course, the order and method of teaching, number of years to complete the course, practical professional programmes, and rules for professional examinations."

The work of the congress on all these points was well done, and immense progress was made in the direction of insuring uniformity in methods of national education, but in spite of the admirable spirit and industry of the delegates many minor questions were left unsettled at the conclusion of their labors.

In order to continue and perfect the work the minister of justice addressed another circular to the governors of the States, dated June 19, 1890, requesting them to appoint delegates to a second educational convention to be opened on December 1 of the same year. This convention met at the appointed time and completed the work assigned to it, closing its sessions in March, 1891.

The work of these pedagogic congresses was very effective in harmonizing and introducing uniformity of administration; in awakening and renewing public interest in the establishment of schools and the whole subject of public education, and have promoted the adopting of measures which are a happy combination of local independence, with a degree of centralization sufficient to insure greater economy of means and equality of conditions and methods of instruction.

The result of the work done by these two conventions was embodied in a law promulgated by the Executive of the Republic on March 21, 1891, to take effect January 7, 1892.

The principal provisions of this law may be stated as follows:

Primary elementary instruction made obligatory for children of both sexes from 6 to 12 years of age, and may be obtained in any public or private school, or from private tutors, instruction in the public schools to be laic (secular) and gratuitous.

The course of obligatory primary instruction for boys, to be completed in four years, to comprise:

Instruction in the practical and civic duties of life; the national language, including reading and writing; arithmetic; rudiments of physics and natural sciences; elements of geometry; rudiments of geography and national history; drawing and sketching of common and simple objects; singing; gymnastic and military exercises.

A similar programme to be adopted for girls' schools, with the necessary modifications in gymnastic exercises, and manual instruction in the following branches to be added:

First year: Embroidery; stitching; hemming; knitting with wool and thread with wooden needles.

Second year: Straight backstitching; knitting of designs; forked and coarse stitching; embroidery with colored threads; band stitching.

Third year: Sewing; backstitching; double sewing; tucking; knitting with metal needles; embroidery on coarse materials.

Fourth year: Marginal embroidery; simple fastenings; raveling out; practical and simple ideas for cutting and making the principal garments.

In cases where it is impossible to comply with the above programme of compulsory education, a four years' course to comprise the following items will be considered as a sufficient compliance with the law:

Practical ideas of the duties of life; instruction in civics and history of the nation; the national language, comprising reading and writing; arithmetic; such general lessons as may be convenient; gymnastic exercises.

For the primary schools the scholastic year to consist of ten months, to commence January 7 and ending November 2, when the classes shall be suspended to commence the examinations. The scholastic week to consist of five days, from Monday to Friday, inclusive. In the first year the daily work not to exceed four and a half hours, in the second year five hours, five and a half hours in the third, and six hours in the fourth year. In the first year the time occupied in any lesson not to exceed twenty minutes, in the second year twenty-five minutes, thirty in the third, and forty in the fourth year. Half an hour for recreation to be included in the hours for daily work.

No punishments to be administered that may degrade or injure the children.

In the public elementary schools there shall be a director to have charge of not to exceed fifty pupils, an assistant to be appointed for every fifty in excess of this number.

In the schools where not more than one teacher is employed the supplementary programme to be adopted instead of the full course.

In places where from lack of funds it is not possible to establish two schools the same programme shall be used in mixed schools, the boys to attend in the morning and girls in the afternoon, or vice versa.

In order to stimulate teachers prizes consisting of medals and premiums of money are offered as rewards for meritorious and painstaking work, as indicated by successful examinations of their pupils. At the termination of ten years' faithful service teachers are given a bronze medal, a silver one at the end of twenty years, and one of gold at the completion of thirty years' service, when they are entitled to retirement on full pay, or to receive double pay if they choose to continue their work.

In the month of June, 1891, a body called "the superior body of primary instruction" was established, to which all matters relating to elementary education are intrusted.

Committees have been formed in the municipalities of the Federal District and the Territories to see that the law is complied with in respect to compulsory education. In the States, and particularly the less populous ones, and where the Indians predominate, compulsory attendance, although recognized by law, can not yet be enforced. The extension of education among the rural population and the more remote communities is a problem that only time can solve.

The Indian population, although uneducated, have the imitative faculty largely developed, and they display marvelous ingenuity in the construction of an infinite variety of articles. They manipulate straw, wax, wood, marble, grass, and hair; their productions from these substances and in clay and glazed pottery are marvelous. Their feather work also is beautiful, delicate, and artistic. There are profound possibilities in this race; with the dissemination of education among them they will enter the field of industrial competition with an equipment which, combined with their frugality and habits of patient labor, will in time elevate them to a much higher social plane.

There are still in the mountains and remote parts of Mexico many Indians who

are yet uncivilized, for whom special schools have been established, in which the teachers are young Indians taken from the same tribe and trained in the Government institutions for teachers.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The Government of Mexico, while making provision for the dissemination of elementary instruction among the masses of the people, has not been unmindful of its duties in meeting the demand for higher education and scientific training. It has laid under contribution the most advanced scientific research and experiments, and has organized schools and colleges covering almost every branch of education in science and art.

NATIONAL COLLEGE OF ENGINEERS AND MINING.

One of the most famous of the older scientific schools of Mexico was founded by royal ordinance in May, 1783, which ordered the establishment of a seminary for the teaching of metallurgy and mining. The college was opened January 1, 1792. It was afterwards installed in the magnificent building which it still occupies. This fine structure, which was commenced in 1797 and finished in 1813, cost, including repairs which have since been made, $1,500,000. In December, 1867, the national school of engineers was established in the same building, and in November, 1881, together with the school of agriculture, it was taken from the jurisdiction of the secretary of justice and assigned to the secretary of colonization, industry, and commerce. In May, 1883, however, both of these schools were again placed in charge of the secretary of justice and a decree published establishing new rules and regulations for their guidance. At the same time new classes were formed and the programmes promulgated determining the course of study for the different branches of the professions concerned.

In order to be enrolled as a student the candidate must present a certificate from the national preparatory school showing that he has passed a successful examination either at that or some other official school in the States covering the following subjects: Spanish grammar, Greek roots, French, English, elements of German, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, mechanics, experimental physics, natural history, cosmography, physical and political geography (especially that of Mexico), logic, and linear and landscape drawing.

The curricula of professional studies as established by law are as follows:

For assayer and metallurgist: Analytic chemistry and assaying of minerals, sorting and grading ores, coining and management of mints, and industrial chemistry, with practical work in all these branches.

For topographic and hydrographic engineer: Higher algebra, analytic geometry and integral calculus, descriptive geometry, topography, hydrography, meteorology, topographical drawing, and practical work in these branches.

For industrial engineer: Higher algebra, analytic geometry and integral calculus, descriptive geometry and hydrography, stereotomy, carpentry, analytic and applied mechanics, industrial mechanics, construction and installation of machinery, analytic and industrial chemistry, meteorology, study of building materials, theory and practice of building, topographical, mechanical, and architectural drawing, and practical work in all.

For road, bridge, and canal engineer: Higher algebra, analytic geometry and integral calculus, descriptive geometry, topography and hydrography, stereotomy and carpentry, analytic and applied mechanics, meteorology, theory and practice of building, study of building materials, roads and railways, bridges, canals, harbor works, graphic statics, topographical, mechanical, and architectural drawing, and practical work.

For mining engineer and metallurgist: Higher algebra, analytic geometry and integral calculus, descriptive geometry, topography and hydrography, analytic and applied mechanics, stereotomy and carpentry, study of building materials, theory

and practice of building, analytic chemistry and assaying, meteorology, mineralogy, paleontology, geology, mining work, artesian wells, mining legislation, metallurgy, graphic statics, topographical, mechanical, and architectural drawing, and practical work in branches named.

For geographical engineer: Higher algebra, analytic geometry and integral calculus, descriptive geometry, topography and hydrography, physics, meteorology, analytic mechanics, elements of cosmography, geodesy, physical and practical astronomy, elements of geology, topographical and geographical drawing, and practical work in all.

There are in connection also with this college schools in various places in the country for the practical teaching of mining and metallurgy and the training of managers and overseers of mines and specialists in the various branches of mining industry. In these schools the prescribed course is: Elementary studies in arithmetic and algebra, geometry, trigonometry, physics, mechanics, chemistry, metallurgy and mining work, and accounts, and in practical application of all these elements to the management and economy of mines and reduction works; Spanish, and linear drawing. These studies, however, are subsidiary to the actual practice which forms the prominent feature in these schools.

The college has a meteorological observatory and a well-assorted library of scientific books; also a museum of building materials, ores and minerals, fossils, and objects connected with geodesy, astronomy, and industrial mechanics.

Two classes of pupils are admitted, viz, those who take the full course with the intention of adopting one of the professions taught in the college, and those who merely wish to attend one or two of the classes. All the classes are open to the public and any person may attend them. The instruction in the college and schools in connection with it is free, and no fee is required on entrance or at time of receiving a degree or diploma.

MEDICAL COLLEGE.

The medical college was founded by royal decree in 1768, and was established in the old convent at Belem. It afterwards occupied various other buildings until 1853, when the Government purchased the structure formerly occupied by the Inquisition for the sum of $50,286 for the use of the college. Its classes were opened there in 1854, and it still occupies the same premises. The established courses are medicine, surgery, obstetrics, and pharmacy. Classes are established and lectures delivered on the following departments of medical science: Descriptive anatomy, pharmacy, physiology, histology, internal and external pathology, therapeutics, operative surgery, obstetrics, hygiene, and meteorology, medical jurisprudence, and medical, surgical, and obstetrical clinics.

For the profession of pharmacist the prescribed studies are: Theoretical and practical pharmacy, chemistry, and chemical analysis, history of drugs and materials used in medicine, and practical pharmaceutics.

Female students are admitted to study for qualification as midwives in classes of theoretical obstetrics and the clinical lectures on that subject.

There are also advanced and post-graduate classes in ophthalmology, gynecology, bacteriology, and pathological anatomy and histology.

NATIONAL MEDICAL INSTITUTE.

This institution was established by the Government in 1888, and was formally opened in July, 1890, for the purpose of the study of the botany, fauna, climatology, and medical geography of the country and their practical application in the science and practice of medicine. It is controlled by the department of colonization and industry, and is governed by a faculty consisting of a director and prefect, subprefect, secretary, assistant secretary, and a treasurer appointed by the General Government. For carrying on its work the following departments have been established:

First. Natural history, in charge of three professors, who must be doctors or phar-

macists, aided by an assistant professor, two draftsmen, a photographer, a collecting anatomist, and a clerk. Its objects are the collection of plants and animals, to classify and distribute them, and to study their history, properties, and character; to form herbariums and anatomical collections of animals, and to furnish the other institutions such specimens and data as they may require.

Second. Analytic chemistry, in charge of three professors, who must be doctors or pharmacists, and five assistants. It is employed in analyzing and separating the elemental compounds of such products as may be sent to it by other departments, and when they are recent discoveries to make elementary analysis of them and arrange their formula; in making the requisite preparations for experimental use by the third department, and to furnish such data as may be required.

Third. Experimental physiology, in charge of three professors, who must be doctors, and another who is a veterinary surgeon. Its work is to determine the dynamic-medical action of the elements and preparations under consideration by the second department, and to give the results of their studies to the governing board, advising when the same may be applied to therapeutics, or their opinions on the subject.

Fourth. Clinical therapeutics, with two professors, one of whom is a physician, the other a surgeon, and six assistant doctors, assisted by such military surgeons and physicians, attached to public hospitals and private medical institutions, as may wish to become attached as coworkers. The subject being the study of clinical application that can be made of the substances that have been considered by the first, second, and third departments.

Fifth. Climatology and medical geography, with two medical professors, an assistant, and a clerk. Its objects are the study of the distribution of epidemic diseases in all parts of the Republic; the distribution and spread of epidemics; local etiological conditions in relation to the preceding subjects, and the nature of the diseases; climatic conditions and classification of the variations of the climate throughout the country for the purpose of forming a general climatological chart; distribution of water for the purpose of forming a hydrographical map, and the distribution of the races comprising the population and their classification.

Gold and silver medals and diplomas are conferred on such professors as may lend efficient services, or who publish original works on subjects comprehended in the plan of the institution.

The work done by the Mexican Medical College within the past few years is excellent, and it is now fairly entitled to be classed with the best institutions of this character in Europe and America.

NATIONAL COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND VETERINARY SURGERY.

An attempt to introduce the scientific teaching of agriculture in Mexico was made in 1850 by the establishment of professorships in the old college of San Gregorio. Classes were formed for theoretical teaching, and practical instruction was given on farms belonging to the college. In 1853 the Government founded an agricultural and veterinary school, which was established in February, 1854, in the building formerly used as the convent of San Jacinto, which was purchased for that purpose. By a law passed in 1883 the whole subject of agricultural and veterinary instruction received complete reorganization, and was placed under the supervision of the minister of public works.

Pupils are now admitted at 12 years of age and upward, the only qualification for admission being a good primary education, and passing a successful examination.

The full course of instruction occupies seven years, and is judiciously divided between literary and scientific subjects, theory and practice. For the latter a thoroughly equipped experimental farm has been provided.

The degrees granted by the college are agricultural engineer and veterinary surgeon; the courses of study are as follows: For agricultural engineer, arithmetic, algebra, trigonometry, analytic and descriptive geometry, integral calculus, analytic

and applied mechanics, topography and hydrography, cosmography and geography, especially that of Mexico, physics, meteorology, agricultural chemistry and technology, botany, zoology, geology, agronomy, hydrography, drainage and irrigation, farm buildings, zootomy, farm accounts, management and economy, agricultural legislation, Spanish language, Greek and Latin roots, French, English, and elements of German, landscape, topographical, mechanical, and architectural drawing, microbiology, political economy and logic; also practical work on the farm.

For veterinary surgeon, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, physics, meteorology, chemistry, botany, zoology, comparative and descriptive anatomy, study of domestic animals, farriery, veterinary physiology, surgery, obstetrics, hygiene, therapeutics, zootomy, medical jurisprudence and veterinary legislation, Spanish language, Greek and Latin roots, French, English, and elements of German, anatomical and landscape drawing, clinics, and practical work.

For the veterinary school there is a large hospital with stables and cattle sheds, containing various types of domestic animals. There are also farriery shops and other adjuncts.

At the termination of each college year scientific excursions are made to different parts of the country, giving the pupils the opportunity of studying the flora and fauna and the methods of cultivation appropriate to tropical, temperate, and cold climates, Mexico, in consequence of its peculiar topographical features, possessing all these variations of climate according to altitude. Industrial and agricultural establishments are also visited and inspected, so that at the end of the course the pupil is not only thoroughly equipped with professional knowledge, but he has acquired a practical knowledge of his native country and the various conditions he may have to encounter in his future professional career.

There is also in connection with the college a completely equipped meteorological and astronomical observatory, the observations of which are transmitted every month to the National Observatory through the minister of public works.

In addition to the appropriations for the support of the college the Government has established sixteen scholarships of $300 each for poor pupils, the retention of which, however, is subject to the condition of passing successful examinations.

The college is at once an institution of higher instruction and a first-class secondary school. The Government has been prodigal of expense in its establishment and maintenance.

COMMERCIAL COLLEGE.

This institution was established in the year 1868 in compliance with the law of December, 1867, as a higher school of commerce and administration. It occupies a fine building, which was erected in 1756 by a religious corporation; having been confiscated in 1861, it was afterwards purchased from the holder by the Government for $75,000 and devoted to its present use.

The regulations at present in use by the government of the college were promulgated in August, 1887.

For enrollment as a pupil the applicant must not be less than 14 years of age, he must have completed a satisfactory primary education, and if a minor must be presented by his father or guardian.

The following is the course of study: Arithmetic, fiscal accounts, bookkeeping, commercial correspondence, commercial geography, political economy, theory of credit, international law, diplomatic correspondence and usage, commercial, consular, and maritime law, administrative and constitutional law, practical knowledge of national and foreign finance, commercial chemistry, commercial handwriting, history, and particularly that of Mexico, statistics and history of commerce, financial, banking, and exchange operations, Spanish, French, English, and German languages.

There is a library of about 5,000 volumes for use of the students.

NATIONAL SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS.

In 1781 arrangements were made preparatory to establishing a school of art, and on November 5 of that year drawing classes were opened, a fund for their maintenance having been provided chiefly by private donations and subscriptions from the mining interests. This movement led to the issuing of a decree by Charles III, of Spain, in December, 1783, for the foundation of an academy of art, which was duly opened on November 4, 1785, rooms having been provided for it in the mint. In 1791 the academy was removed to an ancient building which had been used as a hospital, where it remained until 1825, when the building and neighboring houses which it now occupies were purchased for its use for the sum of $76,000. Since the year 1861 the establishment has been directly dependent on the Federal Government for its maintenance, and was then placed under the charge of a committee of the professors, with a director chosen from among themselves.

In 1868 a plan of studies was established and the name of the "National School of Fine Arts" was adopted, by which it is now known. The whole course of study is extended over ten years, five years preparatory and five years advanced. The programme for preparatory studies, some of which are also taught in the National Preparatory School, is as follows:

Spanish, Italian, and French languages, figure drawing, ornamental drawing, arithmetic, algebra and elementary geometry, preparative drawing from plaster casts, landscape drawing, drawing from classic models, anatomy, geography, sketching from nature, general and national history, natural history, and history of art.

The advanced studies are:

Section of painting: Study of light and shade, classic studies, drawing from the nude, copying pictures, sketching in colors from nature, history of fine arts.

Landscape painting: Elements of coloring, studies from nature, landscape and figure drawing, drawing of classic orders of architecture, anatomy, painting landscapes and figures, composition, history, and æsthetics of the fine arts.

Section of sculpture: Studies of the antique and living model, composition, anatomy, history and æsthetics of the fine arts, and the execution of studies in marble and metal.

Section of ornamental modeling: Copies of ornaments, drawing from plaster casts, anatomy, classic architectural studies, studies of still life, drawing from nature, history of the fine arts, composition of ornaments of every style, and practical work in plaster, alabaster, marble, and wood.

Section of line engraving and sketching: Use of burin and etching lines, preparation of backgrounds, field and drapery, drawing from the nude, pen sketching, burin and etched copies of pictures, engraving figures burin and etched, drawing from paintings and from nature, composition, history of the fine arts.

Section of mezzotint engraving: Studies of heads and casts of figures, engraving from the antique and from prints, anatomy, classic architectural studies, historical elements of heraldry, letter engraving and from ornamental models, historical models, drawing, composition and drawing from the nude, history, and history of the fine arts.

Section of architecture: For entry into this branch the pupils must have studied in the National Preparatory School and have passed a successful examination in mathematics, French, English, physics, cosmography, chemistry, geography, and history. The course in the academy consists of the following studies: Mechanics, descriptive geometry, elements of mineralogy and geology, study of the classic and other orders of architecture, and drawing of representations of the different orders, mechanics as applied to building, stereotomy, perspective, history of the fine arts, practical topography, composition, laws relating to architecture, estimates, and surveying.

There are also night classes for industrial and mechanical drawing. These are intended especially for mechanics and artisans, who are taught the styles adapted to their various trades and employments.

Artists and amateurs are permitted the free use of the school and art galleries for the purpose of study, or to copy the works contained therein.

Periodical exhibitions are held of the works of the pupils. On November 5, 1881, the twentieth exhibition was opened, which was also intended to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the foundation of the institution.

Annual examinations are held and prizes awarded, consisting of medals and diplomas. The works to which prizes are awarded are retained for the benefit of the school, and their owners are compensated by a payment not exceeding $400, the amount being fixed by the committee which awards the prizes.

According to the latest reports there are nearly 1,000 pupils enrolled, the majority of whom are men.

There is an excellent library containing several thousand volumes on architecture and the fine arts for use of the students.

The gallery of paintings contains many treasures of art. Among those by European artists are works of Zurbaran, Murillo, Rubens, Correggio, Velasquez, Leonardo da Vinci, and other masters. Mexican artists are represented by works of José and Louis Juarez, Echanove, Rodriguez, Arteaga, Cabrera, Parra, Baltazar de Chave, and many others. The sculpture galleries contain a good collection of the works of the celebrated sculptors, including many of the modern Mexican school, and a large number of plaster casts of famous statues and architectural works for the use of the students. The galleries of engravings and architectural prints and drawings are also magnificent.

Mexico presents great opportunities for the student of art, as the churches throughout the country contain pictures of great merit, and the picturesque landscapes, architecture, and street scenes afford good material for artistic study.

NATIONAL CONSERVATORY OF MUSIC.

This institution was founded in 1866 by members of the Mexican Philharmonic Society, and was supported by voluntary subscriptions and subventions from the Government until January, 1877, when the Government assumed full charge of the establishment, and indemnified the Philharmonic Society for all the funds it had expended upon it. In 1883 the institution and course of study was reorganized, and the plan of study adopted which has been in use ever since. The course is divided into the following classes: Preparatory, instrumental, higher technical, united studies, auxiliary studies, and finishing.

The subjects taught are elements of musical theory and preliminary knowledge of harmony, solfa, choral and choir singing without accompaniment, choral singing with accompaniment, and vocalization, knowledge of the anatomy, physiology, and hygiene of vocal organs, lyrical declamation, piano, harp, organ, violin, viola, violincello, bass viol, flute, hautboy, clarionette, euphonium, saxophone, flageolet, bassoon and trombone, trumpet, cornet, bugle, sax-horn, tuba, trombone, and ophiclide instruments of the Saxe system, percussion instruments, harmony, composition, accompaniment, musical æsthetics, both theoretical and applied, history of music and biographies of its great men, acoustics and phonography, religious music, symphony music, harmony and mixed music, musical writing, and the French and Italian languages.

The pupils are divided into three classes—the regular pupils, who intend to undertake the whole course of study prescribed by the establishment in the order prescribed; the supernumerary pupils, who only take some branch of study without reference to the whole course, and such pupils as attend the lessons on some particular instrument or branch without becoming enrolled as either regular or supernumerary pupils.

For admission as a regular pupil the candidate has to present the following credentials: A certificate of good character, of knowledge of reading and writing and the four rules of arithmetic, or to undergo an examination on these subjects; a certifi-

cate of vaccination, and one showing that he does not suffer from any contagious disease, and proof that his age is not less than 8 years.

In connection with the conservatory, an orchestra has been organized. In order to obtain admission to it the following qualifications are required: Good conduct, punctual attendance in the classes, best record in the annual examinations, the ability to read music at sight, good execution, and instrumental ability. If the pupil fulfills these conditions he is admitted, and the appointment is given in the form of a diploma, which is considered as an honorary title and certificate of ability. Most of the professionals who compose the orchestras in the theaters and opera houses of the capital, and the musicians and directors of the military bands, have been selected from the orchestra of the conservatory. An official report in 1893 gave the number of pupils as 1,656, of whom 617 were women and 1,039 men.

The Mexican people are great lovers of music, and musical culture is a leading feature in every institution of learning in the country. The talent for music is even more striking among the Indians and laboring people than in the cultured higher classes. It is no uncommon thing to see, in the country towns, bands composed of boys from 12 to 18 years of age, which render music in such a manner that even a professional musician could find small room for criticism, or to hear a ragged urchin of the streets whistling with wonderful precision and effect elaborate operatic music.

NATIONAL LAW SCHOOL.

During the colonial period and the earlier years of independence legal studies were pursued in the colleges of San Ildefonso, San Gregorio, San Juan de Letran, and the Seminario, all of them more or less under ecclesiastical influence, the latter particularly so. The National Law School was founded in conformity with the law of December, 1867, and was formally opened June 18, 1868, in the building formerly known as the Convent of La Incarnacion.

The studies are preparatory for the professions of lawyer, advocate, notary public, and business agent; the course is for six years, and embraces the following subjects:

First year, Roman and civil law; second year, second course of Roman and civil law; third year, code of civil proceedings, uncodified law, and first course of medical jurisprudence; fourth year, code of criminal proceedings, penal law, commercial code, and second course of medical jurisprudence; fifth year, constitutional law, first course of political economy, and international law; sixth year, administrative law, international law, second course of political economy, and forensic eloquence.

In order to matriculate for the full course, with right to come up for examination for a diploma, the pupil must have spent five years in preparatory study in the National Preparatory School, and have left it with credit. Supernumerary pupils are admitted without this qualification, but they are not eligible for the examinations or diplomas.

In addition to a full corps of professors, the officers of the institution consist of a director, secretary, assistant secretary, prefect, superintendent, and librarian.

NATIONAL MILITARY COLLEGE.

The Military College was originally established on a small scale in 1824 at San Carlos de Perote, but was afterwards transferred to the City of Mexico and was installed, in connection with the battalion of engineers, in the old Bethlemite Convent. In 1833 it was transferred to the building at San Lucas now used as a military hospital. In 1838 the college was reorganized and thoroughly equipped, and in 1843 it was removed to the castle of Chapultepec. This edifice having been captured by the American forces in the year 1847, the college did not reopen its classes until the following year, when it was located in the Rastrillo barracks and the building of San Lucas, where it remained until 1869, when it was removed to the building in the suburb of Tacubaya, which had been formerly used as the residence of the archbishop. In 1881 it was again transferred to the castle of Chapultepec, where it still remains.

The college is in charge of a director, who has the rank and authority of a colonel in the army; it has a very competent faculty consisting of thirty-five professors, four assistant professors, and three preparatory masters who teach physics, chemistry, and natural history. Professors appointed from civil life have the rank of senior captains in the army, but military officers appointed to the position retain their rank and line of promotion as if on active service in the army.

The qualifications required for entry as a pupil are as follows: He must be a Mexican citizen either by birth or naturalization, not less than 16 nor more than 18 years of age, although pupils may be admitted up to 20 years of age if they can pass an examination in the nonmilitary sciences which form a part of the first three years of the college course. He must have passed a successful examination in some public school in arithmetic, algebra, Spanish, and first-year studies in French, and must not have been expelled from any school or college for misconduct or incompetency. He must have been vaccinated, and has to undergo a rigid medical examination and produce a certificate from the medical officer of the college of his physical fitness for a military career.

The applicant for entrance must address his application, in his own handwriting, to the secretary of war, in the month of October or November of each year, giving his name, age, and place of birth, accompanied by a declaration by his father or guardian certifying that he agrees to his son or ward entering the army, a copy of his baptismal register, and a certificate from a school or college of his conduct, diligence, and proficiency in his studies.

Sons of soldiers are admitted as pupils from 15 years of age, who must send with their application, in addition to the documents required from other applicants, a certificate stating their father's rank in the army.

It is understood that from the day they enter the college they are members of the army and are at all times liable, whatever may be the condition of their studies, to be called upon by the Government for active service as officers in the army. Cadets are under obligation to serve as officers in the army for at least three years after graduation, and those who are promoted to the faculty must serve at least five years; those who are intended for the navy pass into the naval school on completing their course at the college.

The pupils are fed and clothed at the expense of the Government and are furnished with books, drawing materials, and stationery free of charge.

The courses of study for the various arms of the service are the following:

For officers of infantry and cavalry.—First year: Infantry tactics and drill in same. Military regulations for first year, from duty of the soldier to aid-de-camp, including general orders, military and general honors and salutes; geometry, trigonometry, French, landscape drawing, gymnastics, and swimming.

Second year: Cavalry tactics and drill, and service of cavalry in the field. Military regulations for second year, including the whole of the third government treatise and documents, theoretical and practical military topography, making military journeys and reconnaissances, and study of charts, geography (particularly of Mexico), topographical drawing, and military accounts.

Third year: Military regulations third year, including the whole of the third treatise, comprising the service of troops of all arms in the field, military legislation and laws of war, field fortification and encamping, history (especially that of Mexico), fencing and pistol practice, military hygiene, and veterinary medicine and surgery.

For artillery officers.—First year: Infantry tactics and drill. Military regulations for first year, from duty of the soldier to aid-de-camp, including general orders, military and funeral honors, geometry, trigonometry, French, landscape drawing, gymnastics, and swimming.

Second year: Cavalry tactics and drill, and service of cavalry in the field. Military regulations for second year, including the whole of third treatise and documents. English first year, geography (especially that of Mexico), analytic geometry, integral calculus, first-year water-color and geometrical drawing.

Third year: Field fortification and encamping. Military regulations for third year, including the whole of the fourth treatise, comprising service of troops of all arms in the field; higher algebra and second year of analytic geometry, integral calculus, history (especially that of Mexico), linear drawing, English second year.

Fourth year: Permanent fortification and military bridges, military legislation and laws of war, analytic mechanics, descriptive geometry, English third year, mechanical drawing first year.

Fifth year: Military hygiene and veterinary medicine, applied mechanics, physics, mechanical drawing second year, military accounts, stereotomy.

Sixth year: First year of artillery, fencing, and pistol practice. First year in chemistry, mechanical theory of building, study of building materials and practical building, topographical drawing first year.

Seventh year: Topography and hydrography, second year of artillery, fencing, and pistol practice, logic, and constitutional law.

For engineer officers.—First year: Infantry tactics and drill, military regulations from duty of soldier to aid-de-camp, including general orders, military and funeral honors, geometry and trigonometry, French, landscape drawing, gymnastics, and swimming.

Second year: Cavalry tactics and drill, and service of cavalry in the field. Military regulations, the whole of third treatise and documents, analytic geometry and integral calculus first year, geography (especially that of Mexico). English first year, water-color and geometrical drawing.

Third year: Field fortification and encamping. Military regulations for third year, the whole of third treatise, comprising service of troops of all arms in the field, higher algebra, and third year of analytic geometry and integral calculus. English second year, history (especially that of Mexico), linear drawing.

Fourth year: Permanent fortification and military bridges, military legislation and laws of war, analytic mechanics, physics, English third year, military hygiene and veterinary surgery.

Fifth year: Military accounts, fencing, and pistol practice, descriptive geometry, perspective and shading, spherical trigonometry, cosmography and theory of errors, topographical drawing.

Sixth year: Artillery, fencing, and pistol practice, topographical drawing second year, general topography, natural history, strategy and grand tactics.

Seventh year: Surveying and astronomy, including the theory of eclipses, logic, elements of constitutional law, geographical drawing and cartography.

The navy of Mexico being so small, there is no naval college, but the cadets are required to undertake the following course of studies for midshipmen of the national navy:

First year: Infantry tactics and drill. Military regulations from duties of soldier to those of aid-de-camp, including general orders, military and funeral honors, geometry and trigonometry, French, landscape drawing, gymnastics, and swimming.

Second year: Field fortification, analytic geometry and integral calculus, geography (especially that of Mexico), English first year, linear and water-color drawing, military legislation, and laws of war.

Third year: Fencing and pistol practice, analytic mechanics, cosmography, history (especially that of Mexico), English second year, military hygiene, mechanical drawing.

Fourth year: Theoretical and practical military topography, making military journeys and study of charts, navigation, dead reckoning, nautical terms and tactics, fencing and pistol practice, physics, English third year, logic, constitutional law, topographical drawing.

After the completion of this course, the naval cadets are transferred to one of the navy-yards on the coast, where naval schools are established, for technical instruction and practical seamanship.

Annual encampments of the cadets are formed from the 15th to the 30th of November each year, at distances not more than 8 leagues from the capital, to which the cadets make the march on foot, accompanied by regular troops. During this encampment the cadets are instructed in artillery and rifle practice, construction of fortifications and entrenchments, and field service in general.

The annual examinations commence on October 1 and end November 12. The prizes, diplomas, etc., are distributed by the President of the Republic during the first week in December of each year.

The Mexican army is an important feature in the educational system of the country. The Government has always fostered the education of its soldiers by every possible means. In addition to instruction in strictly military subjects, every soldier who is illiterate is taught reading, writing, and the principal rules of arithmetic, so that, however ignorant a recruit may be when he leaves his native place, he returns to it after his five years' service with a good elementary education, and is in every respect a more useful citizen. When it is considered that the Mexican army consists of about 30,000 men, the great bulk of whom are renewed every five years, it will be readily understood what an important part it performs in the education of the masses of the people.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The Normal School, for training male teachers of the City of Mexico, was founded by decree of the Government in December, 1885. It is under the immediate jurisdiction of the department of justice and public instruction.

The course required for the degree of professor of primary instruction extends over four years and embraces the following subjects: Advanced reading, recitations and exercises from memory, arithmetic and algebra, geometry, rudiments of mechanics, cosmography, geography (especially that of Mexico), history of Mexico, rudiments of physics and meteorology, chemistry, agriculture and natural industries, natural history and physiology, pedagogics, logic, scholastic organization and discipline and history of pedagogism, Spanish grammar and composition, French, English, general history, rudiments of medicine and domestic and scholastic hygiene, rudiments of constitutional law and political economy, caligraphy and drawing, gymnastics, choral singing, military drill, observation of methods of teaching combined with actual practice. To afford the necessary opportunities for practice, two schools have been established in connection with the Male Normal School, one for small children of from 5 to 7 years of age and the other for pupils of from 7 to 14 years of age. The course of instruction in the school for the younger children is for three years, and includes kindergarten instruction, objective calculation not exceeding the number ten, rudimentary ideas in relation to the three kingdoms of nature, cultivation of language, ideas of Mexican and universal history, and of moral and civic education, gardening, care of domestic animals, and gymnastic games. The course in the school for older pupils covers six years, and includes the following studies: Reading, writing, arithmetic, Spanish grammar, geography, history (particularly that of Mexico), rudiments of natural sciences, civic instruction, drawing, French and English languages, gymnastics, military drill, and choral singing.

The students of the normal school are required to teach in all the grades of these schools, commencing with the first year in the junior school and gradually ascending to the highest grade in the senior school, for the purpose of practice, and to obtain a practical knowledge of the duties of their profession.

The students who are trained in the normal school must promise to serve as teachers in the public schools of the federal district or territories for at least three years after their graduation.

Scholarships have been established carrying an annual salary as rewards for talent and superior application.

The Normal School for Female Teachers was established in June, 1888, in place of the National Secondary School for Girls, which was consolidated with it.

The course of instruction extends over five years, and embraces the following subjects: Arithmetic and algebra, caligraphy, geometry, cosmography and geography (especially that of Mexico), physics and rudiments of medicine and chemistry, history (especially of Mexico), domestic economy and duties of women, natural history, ideas of political economy and constitutional provisions, theoretical hygiene, pedagogics, rudiments of general and descriptive physiology, logic, scholastic organization and discipline, and history of pedagogism, Spanish, French, and English languages, needlework, music, drawing, and gymnastics. The following branches are also taught to those students who desire instruction in them: Bookkeeping, drawing from nature, horticulture and gardening, Italian, piano, cooking, aquarelle painting, taxidermy, and botany.

Two schools have been established in connection with the female normal school to afford the students the opportunity of acquiring a practical knowledge of teaching; one is for boys and girls of from 4 to 6 years of age and the other for girls of from 6 to 14 years. The course for the younger children covers three years and comprises the same studies as those taught in the junior school connected with the male normal school. In the school for older girls the course covers six years, and includes the following studies: Reading, writing, arithmetic, rudiments of algebra, geometry, Spanish grammar, geography, history, lessons on morals and civics, drawing, French, English, needlework, such knowledge of mechanics as may be useful to females, gymnastics, and choral singing.

Similar rules for scholarships and prizes exist as in the normal school for male teachers.

There is also in the City of Mexico a national preparatory school, in which all the preliminary branches of education are taught, to fit the pupils for entrance to the colleges for higher education.

NATIONAL SCHOOL OF ARTS AND TRADES FOR MEN.

This institution has been established for the purpose of affording manual and industrial training and a higher education for mechanics and the working classes in general.

In order to obtain admission, the applicant must not be less than 13 years of age and have finished a course of instruction in the primary schools.

The subjects studied in the classes are: Spanish grammar, geography of Mexico, writing, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, model and ornamental drawing, linear and mechanical drawing, wood carving, physics and mechanics, chemistry in general and as applied to the arts, French, English, music, and gymnastics. There is also a class for constitutional law and political economy. The workshops attached to the school are blacksmith and locksmith, carpentry and cabinetmaking, turners' shop for solids and hollow work, machinists', pottery, stonecutters', galvanizing works, and a foundry. Photography, typography, and lithography are also taught.

In March, 1842, the practical school for machinists was transferred from the National College of Engineers to this institution.

The studies comprised in the course are: Arithmetic, algebra, elementary geometry, trigonometry, elements of physics and mechanics, practical knowledge of the materials and tools used for the construction of machinery, assembling and taking apart machines, theoretical and practical knowledge of steam engines, especially of new or improved locomotives, practical working and management of steam engines and locomotives, laws and regulations relating to running railroad trains, linear and mechanical drawing, rudiments of French and English, practice and overseeing of railway machine shops, foundries, and industrial establishments. Fifty fellowships have been created for pupils of this institution, of which each state of the Republic has a right to one. Successful pupils are also rewarded by promotion to positions as directors and assistants in the various workshops.

NATIONAL SCHOOL OF ARTS AND TRADES FOR WOMEN.

This institution was founded by President Juarez in November, 1871, for the purpose of improving the social condition of working women and affording them an opportunity to obtain artistic and technical instruction in a sufficient measure to enable them to obtain remunerative employment in commerce or industrial business.

The instruction is general and technical, the former consisting of Spanish, English, arithmetic, bookkeeping, writing, drawing, and ideas of science and civics. The latter embraces painting, dressmaking, embroidery, bookbinding, printing, music, making artificial flowers, lace making, manufacture of picture frames, tapestry, cords and fringes for decorative purposes, upholstery, and gilding.

There is a store in the school where the work of the pupils is sold for the benefit of the institution. The Government provides the pupils with comfortable rooms and two good meals a day, and furnishes clothing for many who are too poor to provide themselves with appropriate garments. In order to obtain admission, the applicant must be not less than 13 years of age nor more than 25, and if a minor must be presented by her parent or guardian. She must have been vaccinated and be free from contagious disease, be able to pass an examination in reading, writing, and the four rules of arithmetic, and to prove her good moral character to the satisfaction of the director.

A neatly printed newspaper, called La Mujer (woman), is conducted and published by the pupils.

The average number of pupils in attendance is from 400 to 500.

Beneficent, Industrial, and Correctional Schools.

NATIONAL SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND.

This school was founded in 1870 by private charity, but was taken in charge by the Government in the following year. Poor blind children of both sexes from 8 to 16 years of age are admitted and supported without payment of any fee. On entering the school a photograph is taken of each pupil, which is pasted in a large book. By its side is written a full description, with age, date and place of birth, and quantity and quality of clothing.

Outdoor pupils may attend the classes and lectures without payment. The blind children of parents who are able to pay a small monthly sum for tuition are also admitted, and the fees thus received are used for the benefit of the establishment.

The course of study includes reading, writing, Spanish grammar, arithmetic, geography, geometry, history of Mexico, English, French, gymnastics, singing, and harmony. Musical instruction is a leading feature, and the course of instruction includes the piano, clarionet, mandolin, flageolet, hautboy, harp, violin, concertina, and other stringed and brass instruments.

The trades taught are tailoring, shoemaking, bookbinding, typography, carpentry, lace making, brush making, the manufacture of cigars, pasteboard boxes, and mats, weaving, needle and crochet work, and knitting.

Between thirty and forty teachers are employed at salaries of from $20 to $70 per month.

SCHOOL FOR DEAF MUTES.

A school for deaf mutes was founded in 1866 by the municipal authorities of the City of Mexico, but was nationalized in November, 1867. To enter the school, the applicant must be not less than 7 nor more than 12 years of age, must have been vaccinated and be in good health, and is admitted on probation, subject to an intellectual trial, for a period of one month, at the termination of which he is either admitted or rejected. Only the older pupils use the manual signs, as the most modern methods are now in use, the oral system having been introduced, and is taught by teachers who have been trained in the most celebrated European schools at the expense of the Government.

The subjects taught comprise reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, geometry, bookkeeping, horticulture, drawing, and gymnastics. The trades are lithography, tailoring, shoemaking, the manufacture of hats and artificial flowers, millinery, and dressmaking. On leaving the institution the pupils receive a gratuity from the amount of their earnings to enable them to commence business in the trade they have learned.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR ORPHAN BOYS.

This school was founded in 1877 and is under the direction of the interior department. Boys from 10 to 14 years of age who are destitute are received, provided with board and lodging, and may remain until they attain their eighteenth year.

In order to obtain admission, it is necessary that a petition be presented to the director by the person having charge of the boy, stating that he is an orphan and has no inheritance, or, if his father and mother are living, that the father is crippled or otherwise unable to work, and that both parents are too poor to bestow proper care upon him; that he has been vaccinated and is free from contagious disease, and that some person known to the director shall guarantee the safe-keeping of the clothes supplied to the pupil.

The instruction in this school is divided into two classes, elementary and secondary. The elementary course includes reading, writing, orthography, elements of Spanish grammar, the four rules of arithmetic, common fractions and decimals, teaching morality and politeness, rudiments of drawing, music, and gymnastics. The higher course consists of reading in prose and verse, writing, Spanish grammar, advanced arithmetic, the metric system, algebra, geometry, geography, history (especially that of Mexico), instruction as to the constitution and political organization of the Republic and duties and rights of the citizen, hygiene, music, and gymnastics. The trades taught are lithography, typography, bookbinding, weaving, carpentry, tailoring, shoemaking, and working in tin. The managers of the shops are expressly forbidden to exact from any pupil more work than is suited to his age and strength.

On the conclusion of the regular courses of study the pupils are given elementary instruction in physics, chemistry, and mechanics as applied to arts and trades, and French and English languages.

The institution has between 300 and 400 beds and is admirably managed, the cleanliness, ventilation, and sanitary arrangements being especially good, while the workshops are fitted with the best of modern machinery and appliances and are in every way adapted for their uses.

LA PAZ COLLEGE.

This institution owes its origin to the benevolence of a few wealthy gentlemen, and was founded in the year 1734 as a house of refuge and school for poor girls and a shelter for poor and invalid Spanish widows. During the colonial period it was under the direct patronage of the King of Spain and was governed by the rector and congregation of Aranzazu. This confraternity was suppressed, together with all similar religious organizations, by the law passed in June, 1879, and the management of the college and its property was assumed by the National Government. In reorganizing the institution the Government has preserved, as nearly as possible, the rules and arrangements established by the founders.

The school is admirably conducted and is divided into departments for boarders and day scholars. The course of instruction extends over six years and includes the following subjects: Reading, writing, Spanish grammar; origin, history, and growth of the Spanish language; arithmetic, metric system, geometry, bookkeeping, correspondence, geography, history, physics, pedagogy, general literature, telegraphy, hygiene, English, French, music; drawing, linear and ornamental and from nature; sewing and embroidery.

There is also an excellent library for the use of the pupils.

CORRECTIONAL SCHOOL OF TRADES AND PROFESSIONS.

This reformatory school was established in the year 1881 in the edifice formerly occupied by the Ecclesiastical College of St. Peter and St. Paul. It is intended for the education and reformation of boys under 18 years of age who may be committed to its custody by sentence of the police and criminal courts or by parents or guardians who find them to be incorrigible.

The object of the school is to correct and eradicate evil tendencies and the effect of vicious association and to teach habits of order and industry and such useful trades as may enable the pupils to become self-supporting and useful citizens when they leave the institution.

It is organized on a military basis, the scholars forming a corps known as the "Industrial battalion," in which strict military discipline is maintained. Good-conduct badges are given to such of the scholars as distinguish themselves by good behavior and strict compliance with the rules and discipline. The most deserving are promoted to the grade of corporal, sergeant, and captain.

The literary instruction is limited to two hours daily and consists of primary and secondary studies fully equal in character to the national public schools. The trades taught are the machinist's, iron working, brass working, carpentry, shoemaking, and tailoring. The workshops are fully equipped with the most improved modern machinery and appliances and are under the direction of skilled mechanics and workmen.

The foregoing colleges and secondary schools are all situated in the City of Mexico. They have been described and the several courses of instruction particularized, as they are fair exponents of the assiduous care which the Government is giving to the promotion of education, not only in the elementary and industrial branches, but also in furnishing the higher grades of instruction to fit the scholars for professional and scientific pursuits. They are also the models upon which the colleges and secondary schools are formed which exist in the cities and larger towns of the Republic. Many of these are institutions of high character, fit to be classed with the best and most advanced at the capital. For instance, the Instituto Literario, of Toluca, which may be taken as an illustration, is one of the most widely known among the institutions of learning in the Republic, and many of the most distinguished men of the nation have been educated there. Each municipality of the State has the privilege of sending one student, who must pass successfully a rigid examination in preparatory studies. The institution possesses a fine library and a museum of national history and is provided with every appliance for the study of physiology, physical sciences, history, chemistry, music, and drawing. The students have a gymnasium, warm and cold baths, and comfortable domitories; for all these advantages the price of board, lodging, and tuition is only $16, Mexican currency, per month. Morelia, capital of the State of Michoacan, has schools and colleges with modern equipments that would reflect credit on any country. The College of St. Nicholas, of which the patriot Hidalgo was at one time regent, was founded in the year 1540. It has now been thoroughly modernized in its methods and is largely patronized. Oaxaca, the capital of the State of the same name, has a famous college, at which President Diaz, Romero, Juarez, and Mariscal were educated, as well as many other Mexicans who have achieved extended reputation and fame. It has an average attendance of 500 students, for whose use there is an excellent library of 14,000 volumes. Guadalajara, Guanajuato, Puebla, and Merida are well supplied with institutions for higher education; in fact, the list might be extended to include almost every city and town of importance in the Republic.

LIBRARIES.

Soon after independence had been won the statesmen of Mexico, in their early efforts for the diffusion of education among the people, conceived the idea of establishing a national library, and decrees for that purpose were issued in 1833 and 1846,

but internal revolutions and foreign invasions prevented the accomplishment of the design. On the reestablishment of the Republic, after the fall of Maximilian, the times seemed more propitious, and a decree was issued in November, 1867, ordering the formation of the library, and the old church of San Augustin was assigned for its use. By the suppression of the ecclesiastical colleges and other institutions many books and documents fell into possession of the Government. These were given to the library to form the nucleus of a national collection, as many of them contained matter of great interest to the historian and scholar. The changes necessary to adapt the building to its new purpose have been made, and its appearance has been secularized as much as possible, both externally and internally. This work has not only cost the Government large sums of money, but consumed years of time, and it was not until April, 1884, that the establishment was formally opened to the public. This library now has on its shelves about 170,000 volumes, among which are many which are rare and curious. There are also other libraries in the metropolis in connection with the Government departments, schools, and colleges, the combined contents of which will probably bring the number of books in the libraries of the city to about 250,000 volumes. Most of the large towns and cities in the Republic have public libraries, many of which contain very creditable collections of books.

MUSEUMS.

Museums are established in nearly every State of the Republic, many of them being well sustained by funds appropriated by the States, and contain very valuable collections, which are being constantly increased. In the City of Mexico an attempt to establish a museum was made as long ago as 1786, but without any permanent result. The effort was renewed from time to time, particularly after the country became independent, but it was not until 1867 that an institution worthy of the name of a national museum could be said to exist. In that year it was properly organized, a competent director appointed, and the sum of $500 per month appropriated for its maintenance. Under efficient management it has now become an institution which is creditable to the Government. It occupies very spacious apartments in the building formerly used by the mint, which is a part of the national palace. It is divided into three departments—archæology and history, natural history, and the library. The sum of $12,000 is now annually appropriated for the purchase and preservation of specimens and for materials and repairs to the edifice.

The staff of employees consists of a professor of archæology and history, which office is usually filled by the director; a professor of zoology and botany, an assistant zoologist, a librarian, a secretary and treasurer, draftsman, photographer, and taxidermist.

SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY SOCIETIES.

The principal cities, such as Toluca, Morelia, Guadalajara, Guanajuato, Puebla, Merida, and many others, have their literary and scientific associations, and there are at least twenty such societies within the federal district. Of these, that named El Liceo Hidalgo ranks the highest, and is in fact intended as a national institute. It was established in 1849, and for some years had a rather precarious existence, but since the reestablishment of the Republic it has rapidly increased in membership and influence. The aim of this institution is the encouragement and development of native talent.

The material progress of the Republic of Mexico within the past thirty years has been marvelous, particularly since railroads have been so largely extended, inspiring more progressive methods, stirring the sluggish current of life, and spreading enlightenment among the people.

Mexico has seen many revolutions, but none of such momentous importance to the nation as that which commenced with the new era when President Juarez reestablished republican rule, separated church and state, and inaugurated a most impor-

tant forward movement in the educational policy of the Government. This enlightened system has been nobly carried out by his successors and their constitutional advisers, and is now beginning to be crowned with success. This is a revolution that can not go backward. It creates its own momentum, increases as it moves, and is exerting a most important influence on the national life and progress. Great as this influence has been on the community, its effect upon the women has been perhaps the most noteworthy. Under the old Spanish rule their intellectual status was deplorable. Among the lower classes there was little or no effort made to educate them; they were mere drudges, without any prospect or aim beyond a life of hopeless toil. In the higher classes, beyond a few showy accomplishments, they grew up mere children in intelligence or knowledge. Now no one can study the condition of education in Mexico without noting how eagerly the women strive to partake in it. This spirit is shown by the pressure for admission to the National Normal School, for female teachers, which is doing such splendid work in preparing a cultivated and trained womanhood for positions of influence in public education. The applications for admission have been so numerous that on several occasions it has been found necessary to close the books and receive no more candidates, as they were too numerous for the capacity of the schools. Of course it is in the larger cities that the effect of education upon women first manifests itself. In every class, from the highest to the lowest, the range of accomplishments and knowledge is being extended, to the manifest benefit of women both intellectually and morally. The result is shown more and more every day in the entry of women into the various departments of commercial, industrial, and professional life. It is not long since a young lady of the City of Mexico graduated in dentistry and became an assistant to her father—a most surprising revelation to those who have known the ancient condition of female life in Mexico. No better illustration can be given of the forward movement of education in Mexico than in the following extract from the message of President Diaz to the Mexican Congress on April 1, 1895:

"Public instruction still receives the special and well-merited attention of the executive. Statistical information of the scholastic year last past shows a considerable increase in the number of pupils matriculated and approved—not only in the national schools, but also in the municipal and private schools which have accepted the official programme or curriculum. From these figures may be obtained a most pleasing prophecy, and one that is welcome to all good wishers of the Republic—that education is largely in demand, and that the precepts of the laws relative thereto are voluntarily and patriotically complied with. The normal schools, especially those of lady teachers, have been obliged to close their books and receive no more applicants on account of the paucity of their accommodations. The executive is anxiously engaged in an endeavor to give wider scope to these schools. The Female Normal College established during the month of February a meteorological observatory; while in the Male Normal College, in celebration of the eighth anniversary of its founding, were inaugurated shops for hand work, as also a new and well-adapted audience room.

"An order has been sent for instruments and mechanical devices needed in the school of arts and industries for men, which, as is the case with the industrial college for women, must exercise beneficial influence upon the condition of the working classes, so worthy of protection and aid.

"The school of agriculture is receiving new pupils, furnished through the auspices of the various states of the Federation. There has been reestablished therein a course of veterinary surgery, the Government being enabled to remove the difficulties by reason whereof this course had been closed, and thus provision is made for a system of education which promises to be useful and well paying.

"In order to impart an eminently practical character to the provisional examination conducted in the school of engineers, the necessary provisions have been adopted, in accordance with the design of the various curricula in the school.

"The executive, being determined to omit no effort nor any expense which might redound to the honor of the nation and to the advantage of its studious youth, has created an anatomia-pathological museum, with the double purpose of furnishing a new and efficient element of instruction to the school of medicine and also for the purpose of appreciating worthily the scientific labors which are to be presented to the second Pan-American Congress when it meets in this capital in 1896."

According to the latest statistics obtainable there were in the Republic about 8,000 public schools for primary education, the number of scholars enrolled about 500,000, and the amount appropriated by the Government for educational purposes about $3,500,000 per annum. In the Federal District there were 62 private free schools, 195 private schools in which the pupils paid for their education, and 113 public schools for primary education. In the private schools there were 10,355 pupils, and in the public schools 21,159 pupils were enrolled.

GUATEMALA.

From the year 1524, when it was conquered by the Spanish forces under the command of Pedro de Alvarado, until 1821 Guatemala formed a part of the Spanish dominion in America. In September, 1821, its independence was proclaimed; then followed the attempt of Mexico to annex Central America to the ephemeral empire of Iturbide, and it was not until 1823 that the Central American Republic was established. Party rivalry and the jealousies of ambitious leaders caused the dissolution of the federation in 1839, and the Republics of Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica resumed their autonomy and have since been governed as independent Republics.

From the date of its separation from Spain Guatemala was torn with internal strife, and when at peace was under despotic rule inspired by the old conservative and reactionary party, supported by the aristocracy and clergy. But in 1871 the liberal party, which in spite of all obstacles had rapidly increased in numbers and influence, succeeded in shaking off the yoke of the administration that had so long kept the country in inaction and ignorance. The liberating army had within its ranks a young man of high intelligence and indomitable energy, J. Rufino Barrios, who was elected President of the Republic in March, 1873. He was the Juarez of Guatemala, and from the day of his inauguration the country started on a new career of reform and progress. Every branch of the public service received his attention. The church, which had previously overshadowed the state, was finally separated from it. No priest nor minister of any sect was permitted thenceforth to control institutions of public instruction, and education was made public, free, and obligatory. Before his time a few parochial schools under the tutelage of the priesthood were the only provision for public instruction. He conferred upon the country an admirable public school system, devoted exclusively to secular education. Public instruction has ever since been placed within the reach of everyone, without distinction of race or social standing; and not only is tuition free, but text-books are furnished by the Government.

Professional education, which in the United States is not considered to be a part of the system of free public instruction, is in Guatemala, as in Mexico, undertaken by the Government. The result of this enlightened policy is that the rising generation is essentially liberal and enlightened in ideas and is displaying the benefits of education, the masses are gradually becoming elevated to a higher grade of civilization, and every insignificant Indian village boasts of at least one primary school.

The indigenous race forms a very large percentage of the population. In general the natives are honest, laborious, gentle, and docile; they accept readily the benefits of civilization, and rapidly improve under the influence of education.

There are at present between 1,300 and 1,400 schools for primary instruction in the Republic, of which less than 50 are private schools. There are also 15 kindergartens. The course of instruction is very similar to that of the Mexican elementary schools;

but in the primary schools of Guatemala the theory and science of agriculture in all its branches forms a part of the regular course of instruction. For this purpose a text-book has been prepared by Señor J. M. Garcia Sulas, a professor of primary education, which contains all that is necessary to give the pupils a theoretical knowledge of agriculture, particularly in relation to those productions best adapted to the soil and climate of the country. It also includes a short treatise on animal industry and on the method of keeping farm accounts. For a country so largely agricultural this is a very useful addition to the usual course of primary education, particularly in the rural districts, where, as a rule, the larger portion of the scholars never get beyond such education as is afforded in the primary schools. In fact, the whole system of education in Guatemala is admirably suited to the country and the people.

In addition to the primary schools for the young of both sexes there are numerous night schools for adults; even the prisons are not neglected, and elementary schools are established in them, so that the most ignorant prisoner on regaining his freedom has received at least the rudiments of education.

SECONDARY AND COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

While the Government has devoted great attention to the development of public primary education, it has not been unmindful of the needs of the people in the direction of secondary, technical, collegiate, and professional instruction. The city of Guatemala now possesses not only the largest number of higher educational institutions in Central America, but the most celebrated and best appointed. This is so generally recognized that many of the wealthy families of the other Republics send their children there for instruction, instead of to the United States or Europe, as was formerly an almost universal custom.

The national institute for secondary education is one of the best institutions of its kind on the continent. More than 500 students from all parts of Central America are enrolled on its register. It has a geological museum, a cabinet and laboratory for the classes in physics and chemistry, an astronomical observatory, and numerous other buildings.

The Belen Female Seminary, which occupies an old convent of that name, is a high-class institution for secondary instruction. It has an excellent faculty, and the pupils receive an excellent education.

There are also in the capital 13 schools for secondary education, 7 of which are for boys and 6 for girls. There are also a number of private schools and colleges for higher education.

Collegiate and professional education is well cared for in the National University, the Law School, the College of Medicine and Pharmacy, the College of Engineering, and the Polytechnic School, which is modeled on the plan of the celebrated École Polytechnique of Paris. The Conservatory of Music is an admirably conducted institution, directed by a faculty of 12 professors. There are also 14 schools of music, which are subsidized by the Government. The people of Guatemala, in common with those of the other Central American Republics and Mexico, are great lovers of music, and show great aptitude in learning it. These institutions have therefore produced remarkable results. For the students of the western part of the Republic the Government has provided colleges for the study of law, engineering, and medicine in the city of Quezaltenango. There are in the capital two schools of arts and trades, one for men and the other for women; also a similar school in the city of Quezaltenango. These are supported entirely by grants from the national treasury. There is also a school of arts and trades for men in the city of Totonicapan, which is supported by several municipalities, aided by a monthly subvention of $200 from the National Government.

There is an excellent national library at the capital. At present it contains only between 30,000 and 40,000 volumes, but it is under able management and is constantly being improved and its collection of books enlarged.

SALVADOR.

Salvador is the smallest of the Central American Republics, having an area of only 7,255 square miles. Being smaller in size, more compact, and more densely populated than the other Central American countries, it has been easier for the Government to extend its care over the mental improvement and material progress of the people. The upper classes are, as in other parts of Central America, either of pure white blood or have a large admixture of it, but the indigenous race still composes the majority of the population. They are naturally docile and tractable, and generally honest, orderly, and industrious.

The efforts of the Government to extend the benefits of education to all classes of the people are producing admirable results, as the inhabitants of the cities are attaining a degree of culture and refinement that is remarkable, when all circumstances are taken into consideration, while the Indians, who form the majority of the agriculturists and laborers, are exhibiting marked evidences of progress.

Article 33 of the constitution of Salvador reads as follows:

"Education is free. Primary instruction is compulsory. The instruction given in the establishments supported by the State shall be laic and gratuitous, and shall be subject to the proper regulations."

It is to the credit of the Government that it has honestly endeavored to carry out this provision and has made great efforts to improve and develop the educational facilities of the country.

The spirit in which this has been done is well exemplified by the following translation of an extract from President Ezeta's message to Congress delivered February 20, 1893:

"Profoundly convinced of the beneficial influence which education and instruction exercise on all social classes, I have contrived during the past year to extend to this important branch the most decided protection.

"The large number of educational establishments sustained in greater part by the State has rendered necessary the investment of large sums in the salaries of professors and in the purchase of supplies and text-books. Knowing the difficulties under which authors labor in a young country like ours, I have ordered the printing at the public expense of various important works produced by some of the best talent in the country. Some of them unite intrinsic merit with fitness for use as text-books in our educational establishments."

According to the latest statistics there exist in the Republic nearly 600 primary schools, with an average daily attendance of nearly 30,000 pupils. The curriculum in use has been carefully considered, and is admirably adapted to the needs and intellectual capacity of the pupils.

The kindergarten system has been introduced in the city of San Salvador by the munificence of a lady, and is doing excellent work among children too young for the public schools.

Secondary education comprises preparatory studies for a university course, education for commercial life, land surveying, and for teachers. For this purpose the Government supports three institutions, the Western, Central, and Eastern. The Central institute, which is located in the city of San Salvador, the capital of the Republic, has an excellent library, a museum, a cabinet of physical science, and a meteorological observatory.

In the capital the Government also sustains the polytechnic school, a normal college for ladies, and another for young men.

Higher or professional education is regulated by a law passed February 15, 1886. The National University is governed by a board called superior council of public instruction, and is in charge of a rector and well selected faculty.

The classes comprise pharmacy and natural science, medicine and surgery, law, and civil engineering. The course of study necessary for graduation is, in pharmacy and

natural science, three years; medicine and surgery, six years; and law, seven years; topographical engineering, three years; and in the departments of architecture, mechanical engineering, and bridges and roads, four years.

There is also at the capital a national college for the higher education of women.

A good public library and free reading room has been established, and occupies commodious apartments in the building of the National University.

There are also in different parts of the country the following private colleges for secondary education: In the city of San Salvador, the Salvadorean Lyceum, Santa Teresa College for girls, and a theological seminary. At New San Salvador there are two colleges for males, San Louis and the Sacred Heart, and one for girls called Santa Teresa. At Lacatecoluca, capital of the department of La Paz, there is one, and one in each of the following cities: San Vincente, Sensonate, Usulutan, and Acuachapan.

In the city of San Salvador there is an excellent asylum and industrial school for orphans of both sexes, where they not only receive a good primary education, but the boys are taught carpentry, shoemaking, and other trades, and the girls the occupations adapted to their sex; there are also classes in music and electric telegraphy.

HONDURAS.

Honduras is much larger than Salvador, having an area of about 45,000 square miles, but it is much more sparsely populated, as the number of inhabitants is only about 440,000.

Previous to 1876, when President Marco A. Soto assumed the functions of Provisional President, very little had been done to promote the cause of public education, but under his administration and that of his successor, President Louis Bogran, who was elected in 1883, great efforts have been made to extend educational facilities both in the primary and higher grades. These would have produced much more satisfactory results if the country had not suffered from the series of revolutions and political troubles through which it has passed, particularly since the expiration of the term of office of President Bogran, in 1891.

According to the provisions of the constitution, primary instruction is obligatory, secular, and free. No minister of any religious sect is permitted to preside over or teach in any school or college supported or subsidized by the State. The latest statistics give the number of primary schools in the Republic as 640, with an annual attendance of 23,000 pupils. The course of study in these schools is well arranged, the pupils are docile and display considerable aptitude for acquiring the rudiments of education, and the results obtained are very promising for the intellectual elevation of the population.

There is at the capital of each department of the Republic a school for secondary education and training of teachers, all of which are subsidized by the Government.

For the higher grades of education the following establishments have also been established:

At Tegucigalpa, the capital, the Central University, with departments of law, medicine, literature, engineering, and science. In connection with the university there is a free public library, which was founded by President Soto in 1880; the College for Women, with courses in modern languages, music, domestic economy, physiology, and hygiene; the National Scientific and Literary Institute; a manual training school for mechanic and decorative arts. There is also a theological seminary and parochial school attached, which is supported by and under the control of the Roman Catholic Church. At Yuscuran, a college and high school attached. At Danli, a high school. At Santa Barbara, a college for higher education, with classes in geology, mineralogy, zoology, botany, bookkeeping, and mercantile law and usage. At Santa Rosa, a college of sciences and letters, with a high school attached. There are also colleges for higher education in the cities of Gracias, Jutigalpa, and La Paz.

With a condition of permanent peace and a consequent return of national prosperity, there is reason to believe that these establishments may become an honor to the country and potent factors in its advancement.

NICARAGUA.

Nicaragua labors under a similar disadvantage to that which exists in Honduras, having an area of upward of 40,000 square miles and a population of only about 360,000. The indigenous races, who form the bulk of the laboring inhabitants, are docile and industrious, and form an excellent rural population. They display considerable intelligence, and improve very rapidly under the influence of education.

Hundreds of the wealthier Nicaraguans have been educated in the schools of Europe and the United States, and are as refined and accomplished as any people in the world. It is not, however, on the education and refinement of a few, but upon the education and intellectual advancement of the bulk of the people—the patient burden-bearers of the land—that the Republic must rely for safety and permanence. There is no doubt that the Government is fully alive to the importance of this work. Since 1877 it has devoted great attention and large sums of money to the cause of education. There is no lack of either public or private schools, but the good work has been sadly embarrassed by the civil wars, revolutions, and political troubles by which the country has been convulsed. It is hoped, however, that a more settled and peaceful condition may soon be attained, and that the Government may be again in condition to devote its attention more thoroughly to the intellectual needs of the people. In his message to Congress delivered January 1, 1896, President Zelaya dwelt with evident pride upon the fact that he had reestablished and effected great improvement in the public schools, which had been closed by his predecessor. According to the latest statistics, there are now between 200 and 300 Government schools for primary education, also several municipal and private schools, with a total average attendance of about 20,000 pupils. There are also, for secondary education, two high schools for boys and one for girls, well equipped with teachers and having a large attendance.

The National University has also an excellent faculty, with classes for teaching, law, medicine, engineering, and natural science.

In the city of Managua there is a free public library, which is liberally supported by the Government.

COSTA RICA.

Costa Rica is the most southern and one of the smallest Central American Republics. Its area is about 23,000 square miles. The population is officially estimated at about 240,000, and is much more homogeneous and with a smaller mixture of dark blood than is seen in the people of the neighboring countries. It has had the good fortune to be free, in great measure, from the revolutions and civil strife that have distracted the other States of Central America, and its progress has been correspondingly greater.

This condition of peace and prosperity has been very favorable to the cause of education, and the percentage of pupils under instruction, in proportion to population, is larger than in any other of the neighboring republics.

Primary instruction is directly under the supervision of the Government; it is free of charge and compulsory; but every inhabitant of the Republic, whether native or foreign, is free to receive instruction or to teach in private establishments. There are in the Republic 200 primary public schools, with an average attendance of 10,000 pupils. In fact, a good school for primary instruction can be found in every village.

The following institutions for higher instruction are also supported by the Government: The National University, at San José, with a free public library attached; the high school for young ladies, at San José; the Alajuela High School; the Cartago College, and the School of Agriculture. The Government also supports at the capital

a physical and geographical institute, a meteorological institute, and a national school of music. There are a large number of private schools and colleges, several of which receive subsidies from the national treasury. The Government has also devoted considerable sums for tuition and expenses for Costa Rican boys educated abroad. So far as the learned professions are concerned, Costa Rica has certainly a larger proportion of her people so engaged than any of her sister nations. In fact, complaint has been made by many of her citizens that too large a proportion of the young men are receiving professional education instead of being devoted to commercial, agricultural, and other pursuits, more useful in the development of the resources of the country.

The people of Costa Rica are great lovers of music; their taste in that direction is not only cultivated in the National School of Music, but the San José Philharmonic Society has worked with great success in the same direction and has done much to promote the cultivation of music throughout the country.

BRITISH HONDURAS.

This small British colony, with a population of about 30,000, of whom perhaps less than 500 are of purely white blood, and the remainder negroes and half breeds, is well supplied with educational facilities. There are 28 schools, which are generally denominational, established and superintended by the clergy of the various religious bodies, but a few are private schools. The schools receive Government aid to the extent of about $10,000 annually. An inspector of schools is appointed by the Government, who publicly examines the pupils of each school once a year, and the teachers receive a bonus according to the numbers who pass the examination successfully in the several grades. The number of pupils on the rolls averages between 2,500 and 3,000. The instruction is purely elementary.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE FIFTH INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS.

By C. D. Randall,
Delegate of the United States Bureau of Education.

The Fifth International Prison Congress was especially favored in holding its sessions in the buildings of the Sorbonne and College of France. It was 4 o'clock on the last Sunday afternoon in June, 1895, when it convened in the great amphitheater of the Sorbonne. The very place was inspiring. History and art had united in making the place most attractive and interesting. As we fronted the great platform which occupies the rear of the capacious room, on our left we noticed the life-size statue of Sorbonne, the founder of the historic college, whose work was ended centuries ago, while the whole wall back of the platform was occupied by the celebrated decoration of M. Pierre Puvis de Chavannes, representing in life size Greek conventional figures, in several groups, the arts and sciences, on either side of Sorbonne, typified by a female figure. This and the other decorations throughout the halls of the great building would be alone sufficient to make the Sorbonne most noticeable without its remarkable history.

When the assembly was seated we noticed that the highest official and social life of France and other nations was there to do honor to the congress. France had invited the congress and France was there to welcome it. President Faure had arrived in his carriage, accompanied by General Tournier and a company of cuirassiers. The multitude surrounding the entrance had warmly applauded him. On descending from the carriage he was received by M. Gréard, vice rector of the Academy of Paris. The President was escorted to and took his seat in the gallery over the entrance fronting the platform. With him were seated MM. Ribot, president of the council of ministers; Hanotaux, minister of foreign affairs; Trarieux, minister of justice; Brisson, president of the Chamber of Deputies, and the ambassadors of the United States, Sweden, Italy, Denmark, and Japan. At his entrance the President was warmly applauded by the members of the congress.

Upon the platform were MM. Georges Leygues, minister of the interior; F. Duflos, director of the French prison administration and president of the committee of organization; Théophile Roussel, senator of France, member of the institute, and vice-president; the members of the International Prison Commission; Galkine-Wraskoy, director-general of the prisons of Russia; Beltrani Scalia, Italian councilor of state; Pols, professor in the University of Utrecht; Dr. Guillaume, secretary-general; Goos, inspector-general of the prisons of Denmark; De Jagemann, ambassador of Baden, and many other high officials of France and other nations, including senators, members of the Institute, councilors of state, etc. In the general audience there were many distinguished ladies and gentlemen, many of international reputation, many who, occupying high positions at home, had devoted very much of their studies and labors to the cause which had brought them together from the various parts of the world. The opening address was by M. Leygues, minister of the interior. He spoke as follows.

"Mr. PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC: Your presence in our midst is a most precious encouragement. I pray you to accept our respectful acknowledgement.

"Gentlemen, in the name of the Government of the Republic I welcome the foreign delegates who have met here to declare the unchangeable adherence of those who have devoted their lives to the pursuit of truth and to the alleviation of human misery.

"Science, gentlemen, takes on more and more an international character. The constant exchange beyond the frontier by books and the press no longer answers. The learned now go in person to reveal their discoveries and to place in the common patrimony the fruit of their meditations and labors. London, Stockholm, Rome, and St. Petersburg mark the great resting places, until now, in prison science. Gentlemen, the work you engage in is one of the most arduous and noble which can be conceived. To strengthen repression and at the same time introduce humanity into law; to ask for indulgence more than severity, without abandoning any of the indispensable guaranties of social order; to revive in the soul of the delinquent and criminal the idea of duty, law, and justice; such is the end of your pursuit.

"It appears at first that your ideal is too exalted, and that you seek to attempt the impossible. Your generous conceptions are treated as chimerical. You are accused of sentimentalism and feebleness. Nothing has power to shake your faith. You know better than anyone that there are evils which can not be cured; incorrigibles who must be prevented from wrongdoing, but you say that all evils are not incurable, and that there are rescues which should be undertaken. In your eyes perversity is only the exception. You affirm that human nature, at the bottom, is right, loyal, and generous. You have never despaired of it. You are right. In the most ravaged and blinded heart may survive, as in the ruins of the temple, a last lamp forgotten by the last priest, which still burns for truth and goodness. To save this flickering flame is an act of justice. Nevertheless, it will not do to substitute for the severity of penal law a kind of philosophic indifference which lets everything go and compromises the public safety. It should work only to stimulate the moral forces, to evoke the generous instincts which can prevent the misdemeanor or crime, and, after the fall, to rehabilitate and raise up the offender. Never proclaim the irresponsibility of the being who has fallen. This would be to affirm the uselessness of punishment or reward. It is true that the physical constitution, education, heredity, and poverty exercise a direct influence on criminality. The legislator considers these certain influences in estimating the acts and in graduating the penalties. On this point nothing has been changed by tradition. But you have innovated when, breaking away from ancient errors, you have said that intimidation and fear were not the only means to secure the reformation of the guilty, and that education and hope were also sure means to obtain it. This simple affirmation was a revelation. You have spoken of kindness. You have inclosed a flower between the pages of the code. Your doctrine is right. Punishment without the possibility of pardon discourages and degrades. The hope of rehabilitation provokes effort and elevates. You have put the principle of the theory into practice. But your ambition was not satisfied. To repress or to reform is good; to prevent is better, and you have wished to dry up even the source of evil. It is these that the international prison congresses have accomplished, the finest of their work, in revising legislation relative to abandoned or delinquent children. To rescue the child from ill-treatment, from bad examples, and from poverty is to fulfill the first of public duties. Has society the right to punish the feeble and defenseless being which it neither aids nor protects? Offer to the delinquent child a friendly hand, comfort it in its distress, forget and make it forget its fault, is to make a good citizen of one who might become a useless and dangerous person. This is, then, to serve one's country, and, perhaps better yet, to serve humanity. No one knows how many sparkles of genius die in the souls of lost children.

"It is to your indefatigable propagandism, gentlemen, that reform in houses of correction and the development of the admirable work of patronage for the past

twenty years is due and promoted in all parts of the world. This result alone is sufficient to demonstrate the philosophic and social extent of your labors and to confirm your undoubted right to public recognition. Wherever you hold your sessions you receive evidences of the most precious and highest sympathy. Public sentiment encourages you, and governments hold it to be an honor to labor with you. It is in effect that in struggling against moral evils, in arresting their advance and suppressing them at their origin, you accomplish a work which surpasses the apparent limit of your action. In this way you contribute to assure the pacific evolution of progress, for society, as the organized body prospers and grows as much as liberty under healthy conditions.

"Gentlemen, may the bonds of mutual esteem and reciprocal confidence which already unite you bind you still closer for the good of your countries. May the new efforts you will undertake be crowned with success for the peace of conscience and the triumph of truth and justice.

"I declare the fifth International Prison Congress opened."

M. Pols, vice-president of the International Prison Commission, replied in the following words:

"Mr. MINISTER AND HONORARY PRESIDENT: Permit me to speak briefly, in the name of my colleagues of the International Prison Commission, to express the sentiments which animate us at this time, and which, I am sure, are partaken by all the foreign members of the congress. We are happy to find you here, not only in the quality of travelers, meeting in a beautiful country and in a glorious city, in one of the great centers of civilizations, where everything recalls progress, the most brilliant conquests, the richest promises of the future; but as the adherents of a great cause, as laborers in a noble work, reunited in a place where the grandeur of the work and its high value have for so long a time been recognized, who were certain to find a sympathetic welcome and a land rich and fruitful for their labors.

"The cordial and unanimous greeting received five years ago at the congress of St. Petersburg, the vote to meet in Paris for the next congress, proves already how much this sentiment was generally prevalent. But since, the facts have confirmed this sentiment beyond our boldest expectations. The Government of France favorably received the choice of location, and immediately all that France had, the most illustrious in science and in prison work, gave ready assistance to prepare our work and to guarantee to the fifth congress an eminent place among its predecessors. How can the solemnity of this day be forgotten, celebrated in this noble temple of French science, antique and venerable by name, but also the emblem of the renewing of forms which impose themselves on science to avoid senile decrepitude and to assure the powerful and brilliant vitality of youth, always reviving with the eternal springtime?

"How can the presence of the eminent Chief Executive of France be forgotten, many other officials and distinguished citizens, our allies in the cause which brings us here, to take part in our work, to enlighten their knowledge, their hope, and their charity?

"Finally, Mr. Minister, how can your words be forgotten, you who have consented to be our honorary president? After some days we shall again disperse, but we shall all take with us the ineffaceable memory of this occasion and your words. And this memory will form a solid bond which will maintain the union of hearts and spirits notwithstanding our separation.

"But I believe that I reflect the sentiments not only of my colleagues of the international commission, but of all the members of the congress, in extending our respectful homage and the expression of our cordial recognition to all those who, in preparing for the congress so sympathetic and brilliant a welcome, have brought to this work and the cause the aid of their high position, their authority, their knowledge, experience, and indispensable moral assistance. This moral aid appears to us more valuable as we dare to see in it the moral aid of France. What touches us in the presence of the chief magistrate who presides over the destinies of France,

in the words of a member of the Government, is not the expression of personal sentiments of the Government. This expression has certainly a higher value for us. But what gives it a higher value for us is that we believe we recognize in the expression the noble sentiments of the country they represent. Prison work—who doubts it?—is not only a Government interest, a simple affair of justice or administration confined to the active and intelligent care of officials. It is before all a social interest of the first order, which requires the combined action of all social forces, private action along with official action, mutually supporting each other. We are happily far from the times when it was believed that they honored Justice in representing her as cold and impassive, the sword and balances in her hands, but the eyes bandaged. This was the symbol of the impartiality and integrity of ideal justice, too often illy justified by the facts—the bandage symbolizing better, perhaps, another quality of the justice of other times, of not seeing clearly in weighing the fault, of striking blindly and without discernment the guilty. Prison science, whose triumphant flight marks one of the great advances of humanity, has dethroned this cold, impassive, and blind justice. Recognizing the fallacy of combating crime by severe punishment of the criminal, of mowing tares without rooting them up, has changed completely the tactics of repression. Endeavoring to ascertain and determine the causes and the motives of crime, it was soon perceived that responsibility rests not alone with the author of the crime. It recognizes the complicity of human nature and society, the necessity of a complete revolution in the methods of attack and defense in the weapons of warfare. But at the same time, recognizing the horror of crime, the sentiment concerning the criminal is considerably modified.

"If the two noble truths, which have been classics for ages, always admired as applied—that to prevent evil is better than to punish, and that justice does not exclude charity; that even there can be no justice without charity, as there can be no charity without justice—have not been discovered, there has been accomplished a living principle of reform. Moreover, this powerful and fruitful movement is not due to official initiation, but to the awakening of public conscience by private action. At the appeal of some choice spirits the human conscience has awakened from sleep, where it was held in secular routine, and has overthrown the idol of a blind and brutal justice and substituted a conception more noble and inteligent.

"This conception, which we may consider as generally adopted, and which has exercised a salutary influence on legislation and administration, is yet far from having obtained its full development. And it could not sustain itself if this generous breath which gives it life comes to want, if it had no more vivifying heat than can come alone from the public conscience, for it can not be denied it has above all multiplied the questions and has singularly complicated the problem of justice, extended more and more the ground of study and the difficulties to solve. This congress proves this well, but at the same time it furnishes the proof that the more the field is extended, the more extended becomes the number and devotion of the workers. Our beginnings have been very modest; but from London to Stockholm, from Stockholm to Rome, from Rome to St. Petersburg, the labors of the congress have not only gradually extended themselves, but have received more and more the favor of governments and public opinion. If death has deprived us of a number of our illustrious and deeply lamented coworkers, others in increasing numbers have taken their places, inspired by their spirit and devotion. At the same time the horizon of prison science has extended, and the congresses, to which this progress is in part due, have kept up with the advance. If progress has complicated the work of congress, it has, I dare say, ennobled it. The way from St. Petersburg to Paris marks an upward movement—a new progress. The congress of Paris will be distinguished, we hope, by a special solicitude for unfortunate and delinquent children. Thanks to the more and more recognized importance of this subject which so enlists our sympathy, and thanks to the experience at St. Petersburg, the International Prison Commission, on the proposition of the Russian delegation, has recognized the necessity of reserving a special section devoted entirely to questions relating to childhood. And this will be the

honorable distinction of the fifth congress, that it has devoted itself mostly to that section of humanity, which more than any other claims the strict application of the principle that there is no justice without charity.

"Happily, if this congress has a task more extended and more complicated, it will be equal to the demand, thanks above all to the moral aid, not only of the Government of France, of which we are already assured, but also of the nation, which has taken so considerable a part in the renaissance of the public conscience, in the generous and powerful movement which has created penitentiary science and which has made penitentiary work the common work of all those who interest themselves for the good of humanity. Belonging all of us to this humane section, which has insensibly been given, it may be unjustly, too high a place, we greet above all the adhesion, more and more marked, the cooperation, more and more cordial, of that other humane section which interests itself in the triumph of charity. If penitentiary science inclines more and more to accord to woman a distinct place, as it has already accorded to childhood, it must have first of all the moral aid and cooperation of woman in the study of the many questions relative to guilty and unfortunate women. The solution of questions concerning children and other unfortunates will only be promoted with the cooperation of woman. The presence of so many distinguished women in our midst as delegates and of others in this meeting is a happy augury, promising that the congress of Paris will be a new step in our ascending march.

"To obtain this new success it will be only necessary to maintain the spirit which inspired our predecessors," recognizing that our discussions and resolutions are powerless to solve the questions, except indirectly by the confidence they inspire and the impulse they give to public opinion.

"This success is otherwise assured us by the good preparation for our work.

"Mr. Minister, the words of high esteem you have addressed to the International Commission are accepted by us with all our hearts as a precious evidence of your kindness. Faithful to the mission it has received from the Governments which have united to form it, it has prescribed the direction of the work. But for the preparation of this work the merit is due in a great part to our worthy president, to the employees of his administration, who assist him, to the distinguished men who have responded to his appeal to form a committee of organization, to the Société Générale des Prisons, and to all those Frenchmen or others who by their learned reports have prepared the ground for the discussions. I will not insist with more detail on their merit. Their presence and this place require discretion on my part. But I can not conclude without extending to all, and in the first place to our honorary president, the sincere and cordial homage and tribute of our appreciation for the signal services they have rendered to this congress and for their zeal and devotion to assure success.

"I keenly appreciate all that my words need to express my thoughts and the sentiments of my colleagues; but I console myself with the hope that this congress by its works will offer homage which will be for you of more value than can come from the words of the greatest orator."

The opening address of the honorary president and the above reply by Professor Pols are given to show, respectively, the French and Dutch estimate of prison science so far as the addresses go. Their ideas also correspond well with the general sentiment prevailing in all countries among those who have made a study of penology or have been connected with prison reformatory or preventive administration.

The session adjourned on the conclusion of the address of Professor Pols, and the foreign delegates, withdrawing to the grand salon of the Sorbonne, were each presented to President Faure, who was surrounded by his ministers, the president of the Chamber, and foreign representatives. The delegations were received in the following order: Austria, the Grand Duchy of Baden, Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, the United States, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Japan, the Duchy of Luxembourg, Norway, Netherlands, Prussia, Roumania, Russia, the Grand Duchy of

Saxony, Sweden, Switzerland, and Würtemberg. The President had a pleasant word for each member as he was presented. The Russian delegation was the most numerous, and was presented by M. Galkine-Wraskoy, the chief of the Russian prison administration.

On Monday, July 1, at 9 o'clock a. m., the congress met in the amphitheater of the Sorbonne for organization. M. Pols nominated M. Duflos as president of the congress, which was unanimously approved. Thereupon M. Duflos addressed the congress as follows:

"LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: It is not my intention to delay your work by a long address. You heard yesterday the presentation in most admirable language, by the highest authorities, of the general principles which inspire you in your discussions and the highest thought which has given birth to the magnificent work of the International Prison Congresses. I can not, however, fail to make the acknowledgment due. I wish to thank you for the high honor you have conferred upon me. I should never dare to accept if I were not to be supported by the powerful assistance of my eminent colleagues, M. Beltrani-Scalia, M. Galkine-Wraskoy, and Professor Pols. Their scientific labors, their brilliant rôle in preceding reunions, assure to the presidency, of which they are a part, a valued authority. The cordial sympathy with which they have honored me until now permits me to hope I can guide well the high and formidable task you have confided to me. And in the meantime, since you have given me the right to speak in your name, permit me to repeat to our foreign colleagues the welcome of Paris and France. So imposing is the character of this reunion, in which are mingled so many celebrities of both worlds, that I will be pardoned for rejoicing with all my heart in stating the general interest which is attached to our work and the promptness with which our appeal is responded to. It is sufficient in the presence of this assembly to affirm that the work of the Fifth International Prison Congress will be fruitful; that in a few days, after wise discussions, your resolutions, prepared by profound studies, by contemplation of the most elevated minds, will furnish to penology new light and many elements of progress.

"From the composition of your programme and the remarkable preparatory reports, which will serve as the basis of your discussions, what appears clear is the ever-increasing presence of the moral side of the prison mission, the necessity of preventing crime, the science attacking resolutely the source of evil, resolutely decided to repress vigorously, when it is necessary, but considering, after all, repression to be the worst. Repression is in effect an extreme means, which should be avoided as much as possible in working for the reformation of prisoners, in offering the means of rising again, and, above all, in arresting evil by the thoughtful education of unfortunate children whom penury or bad examples seem to devote to an irregular and depraved life.

"It is thus that questions relating to drunkenness, prostitution, and vagabondage take in our programmes a place more and more important. It is thus that the former third section of the congress has been duplicated and that all which relates to childhood has been made the subject of a special section.

"There is nothing, gentlemen, more beautiful, nothing grander, than the spectacle offered by your reunions.

"Is it not singularly moving to see those most distinguished intellectually and socially traversing part of the world and crossing oceans to come here to study together the methods for decreasing in the world the amount of crime and poverty, which skeptics claim can not be reduced, in order to spare themselves the care of the struggle and effort of inquiry.

"You apply yourselves not only to scientific problems to procure for the mind most delicate satisfaction, you do not hesitate, when you truly believe you serve the cause of humanity, to overcome the most natural repugnances and the most legitimate indignations. You combat crime; but when the criminal has been for the time prevented from further acts you consider it is necessary to protect him from

himself, to draw him away from his instincts, to lead him to the light, to truth, to honor, to offer to delinquent children a protecting hand which, if it must be often severe, it need not be without pity.

"In a word, charity incites you as much as the care of social defense. It is charity which elevates and which sustains your hearts while science guides you.

"Honor, then, to charity and science. Such is the cry with which I propose to open for you the Fifth International Congress. Honor to charity and science! They are indissolubly joined here. It is thanks to them that the work of progress and peace will be realized. It is in them that we fraternize to-day."

This address was frequently applauded. M. Duflos then presented the nominations of permanent officers of the congress made by the International Commission. The warm applause which greeted each name as presented witnessed, as stated by the official journal, the eminent services rendered by each to prison science. The congress cordially adopted the recommendations. They are as follows:

Presidents.—M. Duflos, director-general of French prison administration; M. Beltrani-Scalia, councilor of state, Italy; M. Galkine-Wraskoy, director-general of Russian prison administration; M. Pols, professor at the University of Utrecht.

Vice-presidents.—Messrs. Braunbehrens, Prussia; Holzknecht de Hort, Austria; Laszlo, Hungary; Le Jeune, Belgium; Marino, Spain; Pessina, Italy; Randall, United States; Ruggles-Brise, England; Wieselgren, Sweden, and Woxen, Norway.

For each of the four divisions there were presidents and eight to ten vice-presidents. Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, was named as one of the vice-presidents of the penal or second section.

The United States was represented in the Congress by Phillip W. Ayres, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Mr. Lawrence Poland, and Mr. H. C. Ranney, of Ohio; Maj. R. W. McClaughry, of Illinois; Rev. Samuel Barrows, of Massachusetts; Mr. Charlton T. Lewis and Mr. W. M. F. Round, of New York; Rev. W. M. Pettis, of Tennessee, and Mr. C. D. Randall, of Michigan.

The different States represented were Germany (Baden, Bavaria, Prussia, Saxony, Hamburg), England, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, Denmark, Spain, United States, France, Greece, Holland, Italy, Japan, Luxemburg, Nicaragua, Norway, Sweden, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, Switzerland, Wurtemburg, and Argentina. The largest foreign delegation was from Russia, the official journal showing upward of thirty names. England was credited with twenty, while to the St. Petersburg congress she sent no official representative. The United States had twelve, while there was only one at St. Petersburg. Austria-Hungary had over twenty. Some countries sent only one, but there were generally several from each. Some delegates represented especially their governments, while others represented universities, patronage and law societies, penal, reformatory, and preventive institutions, ministers of state, the state prison administrations, prison societies, etc. The American delegation was a representative one. Prisons, reformatories, preventive institutions, and charities of the United States were represented by those directly connected with their administration. Mr. William Tallack, the distinguished secretary of the Howard Association of London, in a letter from Paris to the London Times, writes of this delegation as follows:

"The American delegation at this gathering is numerous and very influential. It is headed by the veteran General Brinkerhoff, president of the National Prison Association of the United States, than whom, perhaps, no one in the Western Hemisphere has labored more successfully for the organization of efforts for penal reform. He is accompanied by his valued colleagues Mr. W. M. F. Round and Mr. C. T. Lewis, the chief moving spirits of the New York Prison Association, and by Mr. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, who has lately rendered that State a model one in the diminution of pauperism and crime by means of a wisely administered system of boarding out (placing in families by indenture or adoption) and by kindred measures of a reformatory and preventive character, applied especially to dependent and neglected

children. Mr. Phillip Ayres and Mr. Poland, of the Cincinnati charities; Mr. Heyman, of New Orleans; Rev. Mr. Barrows, of Boston; Rev. Mr. Pettis, of Tennessee; Mr. H. C. Ranney, of Ohio, and General Norrish, of Minnesota, are other well-known Americans present. Major McClaughry, ex-chief of police of Chicago and now superintendent of the Illinois Reformatory, of national reputation, represented his State at the congress."

The International Prison Congress holds its sessions about once in five years. There is a permanent commission composed of one delegate from each country which has given its adhesion to the project, paying the amount required by the rules to meet expenses. This commission makes all preparations for the congress, including the maturing and publication of the programme of questions for discussion. These questions in each congress differ from those of the preceding congress. The commission also request specialists in the various countries to prepare and send reports on one or more of these questions. These reports are printed in pamphlet form in the French language and are also put in book form. There were 240 of such reports sent in, and they appear in six octavo volumes of over 2,500 pages. These papers are distributed among those who are to attend as delegates some months prior to the opening and form the basis for the discussions. They cover a wide field and embrace many subjects of present interest. The value of these international prison congresses lies very largely in these preliminary reports. They are generally written very carefully, after considerable preparation, by those who are best informed on the subjects treated. Because of this preparation they are more perfect in thought and language than the discussions. The reports form a unique literature. The programme of questions established by the commission and afterwards reported on and discussed is as follows:

SECTION I.

PENAL LEGISLATION.

1. Should the offender be held as a recidivist when he has only repeated the first offense? Should the increase of punishment be progressive for each new relapse?

2. Can transportation, in the broadest sense, be approved in a reasonable prison system; and if so, what is the special rôle it should occupy?

3. Can positive effect be given to penal sentences rendered in another country?

4. Does present legislation provide sufficiently for indemnity from the offender to the injured party?

5. Is there any way to maintain in penal legislation the threefold division into crimes, misdemeanors, and violations? If answered in the negative, what simple division can be made?

6. What are the precise facts which should be considered as constituting vagabondage and mendicity? Within what limits and by what means can they be repressed?

7. What repressive methods may be adopted against those who, by the aid of false pretenses, induce young girls to leave their homes and betray them into prostitution?

8. For what violation of criminal law, under what conditions, and to what extent should legislation provide for—

(*a*) A system of admonitions or remonstrances addressed by the judge to the prisoner to take the place of conviction?

(*b*) A method for suspending sentence either by fine, imprisonment, or by other disposition, in the discretion of the judge, but not applied to the prisoner so as to render him liable to a new conviction?

SECTION II.

PENITENTIARY QUESTIONS.

1. Is there any way to generalize and unify the conditions of anthropometry and to ascertain the conditions under which an agreement in this respect could be advised?

2. Could special regulations be applied to prisons for women quite different from those prescribed for prisons for men, which would apply to labor as well as to discipline and diet?

3. Would it be practicable to have a prison system in which work was not obligatory? Is not labor in all prisons indispensable as an element of order, safety, moralization, and hygiene?

4. Should convicts receive compensation for their labor, or would it be best that the proceeds of their labor be used to cover the expenses for the support of all prisoners of the same class, allowing, however, to each a stated portion of the proceeds and bestowing presents as a reward upon the most meritorious?

5. In order to influence prisoners as much by hope as by fear, would it be proper to bestow rewards frequently?

6. In what form and under what conditions should disciplinary punishments be adjudged and applied?

7. In the interest of general discipline and the reformation of prisoners, should the best or the worst be selected for the effort?

8. On what principle should the duration of punishment be estimated for those convicted who are affected by mental alienation:

(*a*) When they are confined in special asylums controlled by the prison administration?

(*b*) When they are transferred to insane asylums, properly so called?

9. Has the influence of physical exercise in the prison régime been heretofore sufficiently considered, with reference to the classification of prisoners?

If answered in the negative, what methods should be recommended?

SECTION III.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES.

1. What means can be used to prevent prisoners from squandering their earnings on leaving prison, and thus, finding themselves without resources, from relapsing into crime?

2. How should schools and prison libraries be organized so that they may truly be of service to the accused and to convicts? Is there any special way to put in the hands of the prisoners periodical and other publications which would be particularly adapted to them?

3. What measures may be taken, in the interest of social security, against irresponsible delinquents and against those whose responsibility is weakened when the crime or misdemeanor is committed by mental feebleness or alienation?

4. Would not an unlimited imprisonment in workhouses, by administrative order for adult vagabond recidivists, be preferable to limited convictions?

5. In a preventive view, what are the advantages of asylums for the curative treatment of drunkards, and what are the results obtained in such establishments?

Section IV.

QUESTIONS RELATIVE TO CHILDREN.

1. In relation to young boys, would it not be well to defer the limit of penal minority until the age of military liability? It is necessary to understand by penal minority the period during which the judge may acquit for want of discernment, with the privilege of sending the child to an institution for correctional education.

2. In what instances of forfeiture of parental rights would it be beneficial to substitute the guardianship of the State?

Would it be proper, under all circumstances, to confer upon the courts themselves the responsibility of deciding to whom the guardianship should be awarded?

3. Is there not a way to substitute for the unique type of houses of correction a series of appropriate institutions for the diverse classes of minors, according to penal law and under different names?

Would it not especially be best to provide a school of protection, an institution of first degree, for simple mendicants and abandoned children. What is the most efficient way to combat, with a preventive view, the mendicity and vagabondage of minors?

4. What authority should have jurisdiction over the condition of children guilty of faults or violations?

For what reasons and upon what principles should these faults or violations render them liable to:

(*a*) Either a penal conviction and imprisonment in a penitentiary establishment, so called?

(*b*) Or being placed in a special correctional institution for vicious or undisciplined children?

(*c*) Or to be sent to an educational establishment provided for pupils placed under the guardianship of public authority?

Should the age of the children be the only consideration in their classification and in determining their disposition?

(*d*) In accordance with what principles and following what process could children committed to said institutions be provisionally, conditionally, or definitely liberated?

(*e*) Under what conditions should minors be considered as recidivists, and what consequences should follow them in this regard?

5. In establishments for young people, is it not necessary that a large place should be assigned to reasonable physical training?

6. Would it not be well to fix a minimum period during which minors should be sent to correctional institutions, in accordance with penal law?

Is it not proper to decide that in all cases where minors have been convicted they should be sent until their majority, according to civil law, to an institution of penitentiary education?

7. How and by whom should dependent or morally abandoned children be placed in families after removal from reformatory institutions and be watched over? Within what limits would it be useful to employ for this purpose patronage societies?

8. What method may be used to prevent and repress the prostitution of minors?

Would it not be desirable that an understanding be had between the different States for the purpose of suppressing the prostitution of young girls taken abroad and too often surrendered to vices through the machinations of certain persons or certain agencies?

These questions could not all receive like attention. Some attracted the greater interest, as shown in the preliminary reports and then in the discussions.

In Section I the subjects of habitual offenders, compensation by criminals to their victims, vagrancy, mendicancy, decoying girls for prostitution, conditional liberty, had considerable attention.

In Section II the Bertillion system, prison discipline for women, prison labor, rewards and punishments, and criminal insanity were discussed mostly.

In Section III aid to discharged prisoners, prison schools and libraries, intemperance and inebriate asylums were considered principally.

In Section IV parental responsibility, the forfeiture of parental rights, the classification, supervision, and disposition of dependent and delinquent children were warmly discussed and with probably more interest than were any of the subjects in the other divisions. Many of the ablest debaters and writers were in this section, and in point of ability it was second to none.

It would be impossible in this paper to give even an abstract of the discussions on each subject. Some selections will be made from the discussions and preliminary reports relating to some of the more important questions of the programme.

The discussions were first in the four sections in separate rooms in the College of France, in the forenoon of each day. In the afternoon the sections united in a general assembly and, hearing the reports from the secretaries of the sessions, rediscussed to a greater or less extent the resolutions adopted by the sections, and adopted or modified the conclusion reached by the sections. The reports of the sections were generally approved by the general assembly. These conclusions will be given in this report as finally adopted.

Discussions and Papers in Section I.

PENAL LEGISLATION.

The president of Section I was M. Fuchs, private counselor of finances and president of the Society of Patronage of the Grand Duchy of Baden. He was ably supported by nine vice-presidents from Greece, Hamburg, Russia, Italy, Switzerland, Prussia, Holland, and Austria and four most competent secretaries headed by M. Robinquet, advocate for the State council and the court of appeals. There was in this section a marked attendance of jurists, statesmen, magistrates of all grades, professors of law, advocates, etc., all of whom were most competent to discuss the philosophy of penal law, the language and construction of statutes and the effects of their application.

WHO ARE RECIDIVISTS?

The first question in this section refers to the recidivist, a new word in penology and especially so in the English language, and the question itself asks what constitutes one—whether repeating the same offense makes him a recidivist. The second part of the question is whether the penalty should increase with each offense. This subject in Europe is of far greater importance than in America at present and has consequently been more considered there and more provision has been made there to prevent relapse into crime. The prison population of Europe is so largely made up from old offenders that every effort is made to provide against the repetition of crime.

There were eleven reports submitted on this double question: two English, one Spanish, one American, four French, one Greek, one Dutch, and one Italian.

In the discussion some of the more prominent speakers held that where the first offense was a grave one and a second was committed the person should be considered a recidivist. By the second offense he had shown himself to be dangerous to society. In presence of the fact of the first crime he could not be considered as a first offender. He is in decided revolt against the law, whatever be the diversity of his acts.

On the other hand, a less number of speakers favored the theory of special recidivists, especially in the case of minor offenses. They claimed that law should be more indulgent, reserving its severity for the habitual criminal. Different members, and especially the Russians, took this view. In their opinion the concurrence of similar violations was not sufficient to place the offender in the state of recidivism, for this

concurrence might be accidental. It is necessary that among the diverse violations there should be not only a material identity, but above all they should be instigated by the same motive; and only then can it be said that the criminal instincts are deeply rooted in the delinquent.

Another opinion was presented relative to a different class of professionals, who renounce work and live at the expense of others, and for whom crime is a profession. All their actions are antisocial. These are without question special recidivists. There was an animated discussion on the point whether progressive increase of penalties should be obligatory on the judge. Some claimed the greatest latitude for the judge. On the other hand, it was claimed that the judge was too much influenced by limited importance of the case before him and did not consider sufficiently the criminal tendencies revealed. It is important to limit the power of the judge in a way to prevent too many short sentences, which are the principal cause of recidivism. It is better to put professional delinquents out of power to injure by eliminating them from society for a long period. A proper measure against them is sentence on indeterminate sentence. Individual characters vary, and the judge can most properly determine the character of the prisoner by his antecedents, while the law can name the number of convictions from which the offender can be named a recidivist, or a professional. These were some of the various ideas presented on this subject.

TRANSPORTATION.

The discussion of the second question in Section I, relative to transportation, was somewhat spirited and interesting. This subject was before the congress of Stockholm and St. Petersburg. It was a surprise to the congress that the Russian delegates did not defend the system—in fact, disapproved of it in many respects—and the defense rested mainly with France, which adheres to the system in theory and practice.

M. Babinet, for France, defended it. He said that transportation was not a theory; that it was a fact; that several nations had practiced it for a long time, and that it has entered into their systems of repression. He said that France had transported criminals for forty years and desired to continue the system, which was improving, and that foreign delegates should not discourage the French administration in its efforts in that direction.

The Italian members took no part in the discussion. Speaking for Germany, Dr. Starke recalled the fact that at the beginning of the century Germany, which he represented, had attempted to put transportation into practice in accordance with a convention with Russia. Since then it has definitely renounced the system, and to colonize its African possessions will only have recourse to free emigration. But the institution was violently and ably attacked by M. Prins, of Belgium. He claimed that every people who had attempted to colonize with convicts had miserably failed, notably France, in New Caledonia and Guiana, and Russia in Siberia. Only England for a time succeeded. Then the violent protests of the free colonists compelled the home Government to discontinue the system, and Australia increased remarkably in prosperity. Besides, if transportation is to an unhealthy climate, it is to a slow death. You can not send the dregs of the population to develop a colony. On the contrary, if you send convicts to a healthy climate it is no more a punishment. It is a good fortune, while it is a defiance to the honest people among whom they are sent. Why place the prison so far from home, so far from serious control? Why not follow England, and organize transportation in the interior, as at Portland, Portsmouth, Chatham, and Parkhurst? Really transportation can only be employed to prepare a new colony for emigration, and then when the country is prepared the convicts should be withdrawn. It can only be employed at great expense. A transport costs seven times more than a convict in prison, and how can charitable and preventive work be incorporated in the system? The system is not preventive of crime. The convict

colony becomes the refuge of all classes who have become compromised in the mother country, and becomes a nursery of crime. It is wise, then, not to sacrifice all to transportation, which has too often been followed by failure.

The surprise of the day came with the address of M. Spassovicz, of Russia. It was naturally expected that the Russian delegates would defend the system. For some years a public sentiment has been created, in America and England especially, against Russia on account of Siberian exiles, and the idea has been fostered that Russia was wedded to the system and persisted in its continuance and all its alleged cruelties. The intelligent student, however, in Russian affairs is aware that in the past one hundred years no country has made greater advances than Russia in prison reform, and that no country has more advanced thinkers and workers in all phases of penology than Russia. And among these no one is working more for the improvement of the prison system of Russia in Europe and Asia than M. Galkine-Wraskoy, the able and humane chief of the Russian prison administration, who has been in that position the past fifteen years. He has lately returned from a long journey through Siberia and is doing all that he can to do away with Siberian transportation, in which early success is expected.

M. Spassovicz began by stating that he was not hostile to the principle of transportation. He considered the punishment as severe, intimidating, and an excellent measure for the protection of society. On the other hand, he admitted the great difficulty in removing from the convict all hope of returning to his own country. This takes away an element of reform of the first order. Russia to-day is in a peculiar condition, which must be considered. The nation has advanced rapidly, but has not reached its full development. It was only in 1861 that serfdom was abolished, and it was only in 1864 that the judicial and administrative departments were separated. It is to-day working thoroughly in prison reform. Until now transportation has above all been a means of removing divers rebellious elements from its midst. It has been applied to political, religious, and even municipal causes. It is certain that the institution should be radically reformed. But before that is done another duty is encountered and that is the reform of prisons. Everywhere in Russia they are in a deplorable condition, and there must be prisons before transportation is discontinued. Following the lead of M. Spassovicz, M. Drill, law counsel to the minister of justice of Russia, M. Fonitzky, advocate-general of the court of appeals of Russia, and M. Woulfert, professor in the Military Academy, Russia, attacked the institution itself. They said that doubtless transportation in theory was an ideal penalty, but its practice demonstrated that it could not be organized, that it was decidedly condemned, and that in fifteen years there have been three movements for its abolition. The effort attempted in the Island of Sakhalien need not be taken into account. Its success could not remove the discouraging results from the experience of centuries. It is time to break with the past and to abandon a system of repression which has produced nothing, and to return to that of imprisonment.

The addresses of the Russian members showed a freedom of speech that is not usually credited to their country. They did not hesitate to attack a system of their country which for centuries has been interwoven in their criminal, religious, and political system. The total abolition of transportation may be looked for in Russia a long time before we shall see France abandon it, but not until prisons are made or rebuilt for their criminal population.

Left alone to defend the system, the French members came to the rescue. M. Petit, one of the ablest counselors of the court of appeals, favored the system. He claimed that every State had a right to use its distant possessions in accordance with its interests. A people that does not wish to submit itself to the system of prolonged cellular detention has a right to set apart a portion of their colonial territory for long confinement for great criminals and incorrigibles. They can in this way protect themselves from recidivists and at the same time the colony can receive an element

for its development, if watched with care, so that it does not become troublesome to the honest population; that it was worthy of remark that New Caledonia had never protested against the presence of convicts, and that at the colonial congress of 1890 only asked for new measures favorable to the colonists; that if the penalty is severe it is repressive. It is necessary that work should be obligatory and severe, and that for the interest of the colony the discipline should be extremely rigorous. New offenses should be punished by cellular imprisonment for an indeterminate time. The punishment should be reformatory, and to moral instruction the religious should be added. The convict, so far removed from the scene of his crime, should be more accessible to good influences. He is encouraged in his efforts by successive mitigations, which after a while will lead to conditional liberation, first provisional and then definite, so that he may become a new man. Finally, he is to be allowed, at a day fixed, to be restored to his family. How, then, can it be doubted that transportation should not take its place in a rational system of repression?

The defense of the system was continued by Professor Leveille, known as an ardent and indomitable French advocate of transportation. He had studied the system in the prisons of Guiana, and at the end of the Trans-Caspian Railroad. The time limit for the discussion was too brief for so great a subject, but he treated it, however, very happily. Transportation, he said, had two virtues—it permits work in the open air and it does not exhaust the convict, and in the meantime it fits him for free life. It comprises, then, punishment and redemption of the fallen man. Consequently it has a striking superiority over the ordinary prison, which punishes but breaks up the family, declasses the convict, and drives him fatally to recidivism. While the jail produces 95 recidivists out of 100 discharged, and the prison 50 in 100, transportation supplies only 5 in 100. Are not these figures eloquent? Abandoning general considerations, one may engage in refuting the objections which are without cessation brought against transportation and strive to do justice to the legends with which transportation is surrounded. It is true that certain people condemn transportation, but in truth practice it by indirect methods, such as throwing their discharged convicts upon other nations, forcing them by indirect means to leave the country, or generously facilitating their emigration.

It is equally true that the states which have maintained it, as France and Russia, have met with repeated failures. So far as France is concerned, these failures are due not to the institution itself, but either to errors in the law or mistakes in executing the law. The law of 1850 was imperative because of requiring labor of political convicts. The law of 1885 on banishment could only end in miscarriage. It saw creatures exhausted by life in prisons on the Continent and had not dared to clearly impose the obligations of labor, and had left to exist in an equivocal condition the convicts who considered themselves as free laborers. Finally, there was not enough daring to break the tie which held the prisoner to his country, and it maintained in him the sentiment of return. On the contrary, the law of 1854 on transportation was remarkably constructed. It contained in embryo two fruitful ideas, that which strengthens the penalty and that which assists the prisoner of merit, elevates him, and gradually transforms him to a free man. But not until lately has this law been turned to account, which is really the chef d'œuvre of legislation. The penalty has been enervated by excessive indulgence, and there is the attraction to the criminals of New Caledonia. Besides, from their embarkation, before atonement, the convicts were surrendered to speculators at a low price or even gratuitously. We understand from this why the enforcement of labor has been feeble and the support of the men has weighed so heavily on the budget of the State. But these abuses have been shown and no longer exist. Recently administrative regulations have given to the penalty its real character and have arrested illegal traffic. On the other hand, the revision of the penal code suppressed transportation for political offenses, and the penalty of banishment is strengthened, the law of 1854 is maintained. Then a happy innovation has been admitted; voluntary

transportation is authorized, which permits the administration to allow the convict his choice between imprisonment at home or transportation to the colony. Finally, to prevent the return of past abuses, it is proposed to establish a superior council of colonial punishments, which will supervise the execution of distant penalties.

As to Russia, it should definitely relieve itself of all forms of transportation which have become odious to the nation and retain only transportation for crimes at common law called katorga. It implies the obligation of work, without which neither repression nor colonization are possible. It corresponds directly to our penalty of forced labor, and for fifteen years it has been applied with success in the island of Saghalien. It is not proposed to abolish it, but to extend it, and the new project of the penal code of Russia formally favors it. Perhaps it would be humane to imitate on our part the Russians, who, from the first, permit the family of the condemned to follow the convict into exile. At all events, it is remarkable that, proceeding separately, the Russians and French as to transportation end with the same conclusions.

M. Willems, delegate of the French minister of the colonies, said that notwithstanding assertions to the contrary, penal labor could be made productive. Employment of convicts in Algeria under the direction of the military authority has been productive.

M. the Pastor Arboux, chaplain of Seine prisons, insisted with much emotion on the necessity, in a social point of view, to practice the system of riddance in regard to criminals by profession. They were not satisfied to be a scourge only, but applied themselves in addition, with perversity, to educate young criminals by detestable teaching. The person who issues from prison, even a cellular prison, is not for that reason restored. In this point of view transportation is most favorable to the reformation of criminals; above all, if it is organized solidly on moral and religious education.

After this spirited discussion the conclusion was adopted as found herein, and, on comparison with the conclusion at Stockholm on the same subject, it will be found that the congress of Paris was the more favorable of the two to transportation. This conclusion was doubtlessly affected by a sentiment of courtesy to France as the host of the congress.

The question was discussed considerably in the general meeting in the Sorbonne, in which many took part. At this time M. Foinitzky, professor in the University of St. Petersburg, who has published an able work on transportation, took prominent part in the discussion, presenting this resolution:

"The congress, approving the efforts to ameliorate the methods of transportation as a penalty and as a measure of protection to society, finds that the present condition does not present sufficient data for a definite and uniform solution."

This was not adopted.

The attention of his excellency M. Galkine-Wraskoy, the chief of the Russian prison system, having been called to an illustrated article in the Monde Illustré on the island of Saghalien, he stated that the information therein was absolutely authentic, and added that it was entirely true that the results obtained in the island of Saghalien were most encouraging. That the island is inhabited only by those condemned to exile. They undergo imprisonment with hard labor in view of colonization. In Siberia, on the contrary, more diverse elements are combined. Labor is not required of all the deported. "I have the right to say," added he, "that our efforts in Saghalien have succeeded."

M. Fonitzky inquired of M. Wraskoy whether for some years there has not been a plan elaborated in Russia for the suppression of transportation.

His excellency replied affirmatively, but added that it related to transportation to Siberia, where labor is not organized, while in the island of Saghalien, as he had already remarked, forced labor was rigorously practiced. This view from the head of the Russian prison system showing that Siberian exile was to be discontinued,

and Saghalien was to be the great and distant prison of Russia, is an important one to know. The article referred to stated there were 25,000 convicts then in Saghalien and 80 colonists, that all industries were represented, and that already 2,000,000 tons of grain and 8,000,000 tons of potatoes had been produced.

Among the preliminary reports to the congress on transportation was one by M. N. S. Taganitzew, councilor of the court of appeals, professor of the law school of St. Petersburg, honorary member of the University of St. Petersburg and of St. Wladimir at Kiew. He was the only Russian writing on the question submitted who advocated transportation. His report contains a brief history of the rise of transportation and somewhat of its present condition. Without making extracts from his argument, his conclusions are given as follows:

"1. Colonization and transportation, united with imprisonment at hard labor, and in some cases separately applied, examined in the abstract unite the essential conditions of punishment and respond perfectly to the purposes of intimidation, safety, and correction. This is why it should not be excluded from the common system of penal measures in use at this time.

"2. But as the practical application of transportation, as shown by historical experience, presents everywhere serious difficulties, it can only be recommended for states offering convenient conditions, and to a limited extent.

"3. It would be desirable—

"(*a*) That transportation be maintained in countries which possess proper territory for its application; above all, if such countries do not believe it possible to secure penal repression by imprisonment.

"(*b*) That transportation is not a general measure extending to a great number of criminals, without regard to individual qualities, but that it should be ordered conformably to their physical and moral fitness for colonization."

The jurisprudence society of St. Petersburg is one of high rank, and took a prominent position through its members attending the fourth International Prison Congress in St. Petersburg. They presented quite a number of reports at that congress, and they were of the highest merit, taking the highest and most intelligent positions in prison science. It seems that the paper of M. Taganitzew was presented to the law society before the congress met and that society entered its protest against the position taken by the writer. The commission of the society, having heard the paper read, made the following report:

"1. That the signification of transportation as a penalty in an abstract idea and without regard to experience is unanimously recognized by Russian jurists in the same sense as presented by Professor Taganitzew.

"2. That, on the contrary, as to the practical application of transportation there are differences of opinion, and to the optimism of the report this society apposes a negative opinion, considering that it is doubtful whether there can be a rational organization of transportation in Russia, where for three hundred years it has existed and has not succeeded in strongly establishing itself.

"3. Yet in the meantime we must accept transportation as necessary (always with the restrictions named by M. Taganitzew) in presence of the faults of prison organization; for of the two evils—a bad prison and bad transportation—the former is evidently the greatest, and at the same time it need not be forgotten that even the existence of transportation need not check the improvement of the prison system."

M. Taganitzew says of the present state of transportation:

"The want of enough prisons in Siberia for convicts was the cause, in 1879, of the publication of provisional regulations restraining transportation to Siberia to certain classes of criminals. The convicts who were not transported finished their punishment in local prisons provided for that purpose. But sojourn in these prisons without labor and without any classification among criminals took away the rigor of punishment, making the prison a nursery of vice. And on the other hand the crowded local prisons, without sanitary conditions, raised the death rate to an

incredible figure, so that in 1880 transportation was reestablished on its former basis. At the present time the principal kinds of transportation are transportation with forced labor and transportation to the colonies for colonizing purposes. Forced labor is of two kinds: Sojourn in the islands with work for the State and sojourn in the colony. This is accomplished partly in Siberia and partly in the island of Saghalien since 1879, which forms a kind of colony for transportation. The island for administrative purposes is divided into three parts. At the head is the governor, while at the head of each division is a commander. The director of the principal prison is president of the administration, which has cognizance of all civil and criminal affairs of small importance. Those of the most importance are passed on by the maritime court of the division. In 1882, to aid in the installation of the transports, women condemned to hard labor were sent to Saghalien. The principal work of the convicts consists in opening roads through the vast forests which cover the island, in the construction of bridges, stations, embankments, etc. To this should be added the establishment of telegraphic communications with the continent, the construction of a fort at Alexandrovsk, erecting buildings, steam mills, sawmills, foundries, salt works, and important work in the coal mines at Douet. In 1894 large companies of convicts were sent into the province of Amour to work on the Oussouri Railroad.

"Convicts are employed in clearing up the land and for raising crops; but rural economy and the raising of cattle do not supply the wants of the prisoners, and provisions are received from Odessa, in the region of the Amour.

According to law the convicts, during their imprisonment, are divided into two classes: Those who are under observation and those who are in the way of reform. In the first class the convicts, in accordance with their punishment, are obliged to pass from one to eight years. Then, if they give some hope of amendment by their submission to the administration, by their temperance and their prudence, by their propriety and application to work, they will pass into the second class. At the end of one to three years they can receive permission to live out of the prison, to build houses with material furnished by the State, to have money, and to marry. During the continuance of forced labor one-tenth of the earnings belongs to the convict. At the end of this period the convicts pass into the colony, except those who are sentenced for an indeterminate period, and they can not become colonists under twenty years.

For further information relative to Siberian transportation reference is made to the interview with M. Komorsky, inspector-general of Siberian prisons, in the report of the St. Petersburg International Prison Congress, published by the United States Bureau of Education.

INDEMNITY FOR THE INJURED PARTY.

The question relating to indemnity to the injured party by the criminal was discussed in six preliminary reports and in the congress. There is a great variety of circumstances where the criminal has injured his victim, depriving him in whole or in part of the ability to support himself and family. The victim in some cases has died from his injuries and has left a family for public or private charity to maintain. A suit for private damages in a few cases will bring relief, but in most the judgment could not be collected, as poverty and crime are generally associated. As one of the speakers in the congress said, "poverty and crime are two unfortunate sisters who always travel hand in hand together." The discussions developed no remedy for all cases. That would have been impossible. Simpler remedies by legal process were recommended and State assistance suggested without approval. Where the offender has no means to pay indemnity the injured or his family must suffer. With the hope that further light might be thrown upon the difficult problem, it was referred in the conclusions to the next International Prison Congress.

Among the preliminary reports on this subject was an able one by Mme. Dr. Lydia

Poet, the distinguished lady advocate of Italy. The following conclusions were presented in her paper:

"1. There should be secured to the victim of the crime a special lien on the property of the delinquent, and that attachment should issue in his favor at the same time as the warrant for arrest.

"2. That for certain crimes which do not disturb the social order there should be imposed, instead of imprisonment for a short term, the payment of damages by the solvent delinquent, and for others the obligation to labor in establishments, and that the pay of the prisoner in whole or in part be allowed for indemnity to the victim until the debt be extinguished.

"3. That in countries where it is authorized for certain crimes the accused should not be allowed the suspension of sentence until he has proved that he has compensated the injured party.

"4. That the pay of the prisoner be employed to repair the wrong by indemnifying first the victim and in paying the expenses of his support by the administration, and that only after that he be allowed to dispose of his earnings freely.

"5. That it should not be possible for the prisoner to obtain his pardon or conditional liberation in countries where such practices prevail, and that he be not allowed to be rehabilitated if he can not show he has indemnified his victim fully."

One of the preliminary reports was by M. Zucker, professor of criminal law at Prague. He presents the phases of the question at length, and ends with these conclusions:

"1. Penal law should, more than heretofore, take into account the indemnity due the injured party.

"2. The public minister should have the right ex officio and informally to order assessment of damages in favor of the injured party.

"3. The party injured should have a lien on the real estate and a first lien upon the personal property of the guilty party, to date from his discharge, so that the guilty will not have time to dispose of his property.

"4. The judge will decide what proportion of the receipts of the prisoner for labor in prison will be paid to the injured party for indemnity that is due him."

In his preliminary report on this question M. P. Armengol Y. Comet, magistrate etc., at Barcelona, says:

"1. The provisions of law which prevail in our times are insufficient in practice to enable the victim of the offense to obtain indemnity. To obtain indemnity it is necessary that in criminal trials the court should determine the amount that the condemned should pay to the victim or his heirs, and to realize the same should issue a process against the person considered as responsible, as receiver or accomplice, to proceed to seize his property, personal and real.

"2. On pronouncing judgment, if the condemned is solvent, enough of his goods will be sold to realize the funds necessary to pay the judgment.

"3. If the condemned is insolvent, the damages will be paid out of the treasury of fines which shall be created by the minister of justice. All fines shall go into this treasury, and the state shall be reimbursed by the receipts for the prisoner's labor."

This last suggestion is a novel one, but will seldom, if ever, be put into practice.

M. Prins, inspector-general of the prisons of Belgium, was the author of a lengthy preliminary report in which he treated the subject historically and philosophically. He showed that proceedings for civil damages were provided in most ancient times by the Greeks and Romans and other ancient nations.

"In England," he says, "the system of indemnity, due to Germanic culture, existed until after the Norman invasion. It then received a special form of application, thanks to the organization of guilds, tithings, and hundreds, associations responsible for the conduct of their members."

"In France, in former times, the triumph of absolute monarchy rapidly marked the penal system with its strong imprint and made the element of public rights

prevail over private rights. In the meantime the only legislative monument worthy of attention, the only general penal law before the revolution—the criminal code of 1670—maintained the distinction between public and private offenses, public prosecution and private complaint. It decided that in case of capital offenses the prosecution will take place notwithstanding the transactions of the parties, while in other cases, in matter of blows without serious injuries—light misdemeanors—if the parties settle for the injuries there will be no prosecution and the settlement will be enforced. Thus even under Louis XIV it appeared oppressive to prosecute in the abstract interests of society when the private interest had declared itself satisfied.

"But modern penal law has reversed the more ancient rule giving preference to the public prosecution in the interest of all."

In remedies proposed, M. Prins finds little difficulty in securing indemnity from the solvent offender, but to collect from the insolvent becomes a serious problem.

He proposes that for light offenses public order will be sufficiently protected by a conviction, with sentence suspended, conditioned on the obligation to repair the damage done. If the offender pays the amount fixed by the court within the time named in the judgment, then imprisonment will be avoided.

For graver offenses he proposes punishment by imprisonment for a stated time, to be followed by conditional liberation under the reservation to pay in a time named the damages assessed by the court. In case of failure to pay reimprisonment for the full time is to follow.

Though no remedy has been discovered which will be effective in all cases, and none will be, yet the subject is one worthy the attention of the American legislator, who, it is possible, may be able to secure the injured party further protection than he can now obtain through civil process alone for private damages.

COMPENSATION FOR PRISON LABOR.

The fourth question of Section II is one that has long been considered by the practical penologist: Has the prisoner a right to compensation for labor? This had a lengthy discussion in the section and in the general assembly. There were eleven preliminary reports from a great diversity of countries. M. Stevens, of Belgium, claimed that the prisoner owed his services to the State, and that the State owed in its turn remuneration to the prisoner. By dividing the pay into disposable and reservable the prisoner has a notion of saving. In paying by the piece and not by the day there is established between the convicts a classification. The disposable part of his pay can be used in ameliorating his regimen and the part reserved will assist in his restoration on leaving the prison. M. Crémieux called the attention of the congress to the fact that the French code (article 41) admits explicitly the right to compensation for those sentenced to correctional punishment in these words: "The products of the work of each prisoner under correctional punishment shall be applied partly to the common expenses of the prisoners." The majority of the section, however, held that the prisoner had no right to compensation. M. Puibaraud considered that the prison could only care for itself, as the expenses were large and the receipts unimportant. In the general assembly the sentiment was divided, but all agreed that it was indispensable for the good government of the prison that the efforts of the prisoner should be recognized by compensation or gratuity for labor; that prison work, to be reformatory, should be paid. Several of the most prominent speakers argued that the prison labor imposed was an element of the punishment as much as the imprisonment, and that if we admitted the convict had a right to a salary it would not be going far to recognize he had a right to indemnity for being placed in prison. Labor is a confiscation of the energies as imprisonment is a confiscation of liberty. If he has a right to a salary, then he could require that he should be paid in proportion to his work. There should be rewards for work. The State in granting them does a liberal act, but does not execute an obligation, and this is the substance of the conclusion of the section as indorsed by the general assembly.

This question has more importance in Europe, where in many prisons a small payment is made or reward given, than in America, where the practice is quite limited.

CUSTODY OF PRISONERS' EARNINGS.

Question 1 of the second section, important in Europe, but of less consequence here, elicited much attention from the congress: Should the discharged convict control his earnings? There were ten preliminary reports, from Russia, Italy, Sweden, Switzerland, Norway, England, and France. All speakers deplored the squandering of their earnings by discharged prisoners. Three systems were presented. The first was obligatory patronage. This is successfully operated in the Grand Duchy of Baden. In Belgium another system is adopted. There the burgomaster of the place where the discharged convict has his residence has charge of the earnings where they exceed 70 francs. If below that amount he can spend it freely. If a patronage society exists in the place it is to have preference in the disposition of the money.

A third system is one which authorizes the discharged, with the approval of the administration, to choose a patron, who shall receive and disburse the earnings.

Each system had its advocates. Several warmly indorsed the plan of intrusting the funds for disbursement to postal savings banks, claiming they could better regulate the time and amounts of payments. It was objected that the distribution would be automatic and not reformatory. It was urged that the sending part of their earnings to their families should be encouraged. The conclusions show that by some of the methods named there should be a trustee for the disbursements of the savings of the discharged prisoner.

THE PRISONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The discussions in the sections and general assembly continued nine days and covered substantially all the questions of the programme of the congress. The American delegation was divided in its attendance at the various sections and attended together the general sessions in the amphitheater of the Sorbonne, occasionally taking part in the discussions in the sections and general assembly. The American delegation had organized by making the veteran penologist, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, its chairman, and the Rev. Samuel Barrows, of Massachusetts, secretary. The delegation had frequent meetings to decide on the various questions which came before it in reference to the congress. It was deemed proper that some one of the delegation should present briefly before the general assembly a statement of the present condition of the prison systems in the United States, and General Brinkerhoff was considered a very proper person to do this. His address before the general assembly is here given in full:

"Mr. PRESIDENT, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN: The secretary-general of the congress, Dr. Guillaume, has requested me to give, in behalf of the American delegation, an abstract of the special reformatory methods in our country, and particularly the Elmira system, which is being adopted in our States. It is interesting to notice that the three great prison systems of the world have their origin in America.

"1. The cellular or Pennsylvania system, which has been so eloquently defended in this congress, and which has been so largely developed in Europe, was first introduced in Philadelphia sixty years ago. This system still prevails there and is administered in an able manner, but it has been abandoned in all other prisons of our country. We do not believe in it except for prisoners awaiting trial or in other exceptional cases.

"2. The system for work in common during the day and cellular separation at night had its origin in the State prison at Auburn, N. Y., fifty years ago. This system is substantially universal in America for prisoners condemned for a term of years, for life, and for recidivists and incorrigibles.

"3. The Elmira system is based on indeterminate sentence and conditional liberation. This liberation is known by the term of 'conditional discharge,' and is obtained by a system of good or bad marks and a progressive classification. It is only applied to adults under 30 years of age and to those convicted for the first offense. This system was first introduced at Elmira in 1876 under the administration of that prince of prison science, Mr. Z. R. Brockway, and the results obtained have been highly satisfactory, and results, after all, are the only proofs of the excellence of a system.

"The Elmira prison contains 1,200 prisoners, which is 400 more than a reformatory should have. In the last six years the prison has had on an average over 800 prisoners. It has been shown after a conscientious examination that 82 out of each 100 discharged prisoners have become honest and respectable citizens.

"The prisons of the United States compare favorably with those of Europe. In the treatment of prisoners serving out short sentences, the arrested awaiting trial, and discharged prisoners, England and Ireland are in advance of us; but in other respects we do not fear comparison, and in some we are in the advance. In Europe intimidation and repression seem to be dominating ideas toward the criminal classes; with us they are reform and prevention. We have repudiated the idea of lex talionis. In the time of Moses, under the conditions then existing, this system may have been better; but to-day we live inspired by the lessons of the Divine Nazarene, who said that love and not hate should be our guide. In our work with criminals we have in view the protection of society, but all punishment inflicted on a prisoner for other motives is considered as a wrong against the natural rights of man. We believe in intimidation if that alone can protect society. In the State of Ohio if a man is condemned for the third time we consider him as an habitual criminal and sentence him for life. For incorrigible drunkards we have enacted a law giving the judge authority for the first offense to sentence in his discretion; for the second the penalty is double the first, for the third double the second, and for the fourth imprisonment for three years, with the privilege of conditional liberation in case of good conduct. Finally, we believe that reform and prevention are the means to employ to reduce crime.

"For criminal minors we have reformatories, generally called industrial schools, from whence they go out and may become, on the average, as good citizens as those who go from the common schools. But above all we believe that it is our duty to give to our children in the public schools an education which trains the hand and heart as well as the head. The State should add to each public school a kindergarten for children below 6 years of age. Do this and the number of criminals, which increases in all countries, will greatly diminish and we will enter a better era in the history of the world."

The address was very cordially applauded.

The Rev. Samuel Barrows, an American official delegate, addressed the general assembly and presented some interesting details on the probation system in operation in his country, which is the origin of the conditional sentence system in vogue in Europe. The idea dates from 1870 in the State of Massachusetts, where they adopted the plan to release certain prisoners conditionally on the request of persons who interested themselves in their behalf. In 1878 the State took the place of these petitioners and enacted a law providing for a special officer attached to the city and town courts, who was named by the president of the court and paid out of the public treasury. They are known as "probation officers." They make an inquiry when a person is arrested as to his antecedents and his family, his occupation, which inquiry is made rather in the spirit of charity. When the investigation is held the trial takes place and the judgment is pronounced. The sentence can be pronounced at the expiration of the probation, or even before. The officer is a true assistant to his protégé, the prisoner. This system is extended to habitual drunkards. The results have been excellent, not only in America, but in Belgium, where the number of conditionally convicted recidivists has fallen to 3 in 100.'

Mr. Heyman, Mr. Ayres, and Mr. Poland, of the United States delegation, spoke at different times in Section IV, taking advanced grounds in reference to the better methods for the protection of children.

Mr. Randall, one of the United States official delegates, had presented to the congress a preliminary report on the subject of the "Forfeiture of parental rights," especially relating to the practice in England and America in the courts, showing the general rule adopted in both countries. The subject is one of great interest in all countries, and has been considerably discussed in the Société Générale des Prisons of France and in the Senate and House of Deputies of that country. Some extracts will be made from the report in the discussions of the fourth division.

THE CHILDREN.

As stated in one of the opening addresses of the congress, the commission, recognizing the special importance of problems relating to dependent and delinquent children, had added a new section to the programme, to be known as Section IV, relating entirely to children. The great interest in this department is shown by the number of preliminary reports, eighty in all, and more than in any other section. Among the writers were some of the most accomplished and celebrated specialists. The names of Bonjean, Beltrani-Scalia, Rouselle, Moldenhauer, Voisin, and Joly are mentioned as known to the writer, and there were many others equally distinguished. It is more and more recognized that the most fruitful field for prison reform lies in preventing pauperism and crime by the care and education of exposed dependent and delinquent children. In that field there is always hope. The reform of prisoners, the supervision of discharged prisoners by patronage societies, are excellent works in their way and will always be necessary, for there always will be criminals. But the highest social science is to keep the prison population down to the lowest number by preventing the young from becoming criminals. There were seven preliminary reports on the second question of Section IV. The longest report, and a very able one, was by Dr. Alex. de Moldenhauer, judge of the city court of Warsaw, and a noted writer on various social questions. His report covers about one hundred octavo pages and was very thorough in the history, philosophy, and experience in child saving. The whole report is most valuable reading, but only part of his conclusions can be given. In closing he recommends congress to say that:

"The congress, in continuation of the resolutions passed by the congresses of Rome and St. Petersburg, which definitely recognized it to be not only the right but the duty of the State to prevent the pernicious influence of the parents or guardians on their children or wards, is of the opinion that the right of guardianship of the State over minors should replace the guardianship of the parents or guardians during their minority."

This he applies to cases where the parents or guardians have been convicted of capital offenses, or for a long term of imprisonment, or for certain offenses against the children, or for other acts proving the parents are unworthy or incompetent to perform their duties, or for complicity with their children in crime, and, above all, when they encourage or force their children to criminal acts, and for various other and somewhat similar reasons.

In one resolution he asks the congress to express its desire that for all minors who come in question and for whom the State will replace the parental authority there should be established absolutely distinct institutions for each class.

Another he recommends is: "The congress expresses the opinion that the decision concerning the forfeiture of parental rights and the substitution of guardianship by the State of minors should be left either to the civil or criminal courts or to a court especially established for the purpose."

There is no higher authority on this subject than M. Felix Voisin, councilor of the court of appeals and member of the superior council of prisons. One of the pre-

liminary reports was by him. It is brief, but comprehends much. He calls attention to the French statute of 1889, and says:

"It is evident that parents who excite, favor, or facilitate the prostitution or corruption of their children should not retain any parental authority. It is the same if they are convicted as authors or accomplices of a crime committed on their persons, or as accomplices of a crime committed by them, or convicted for influencing minors into debauchery; they are unworthy to retain the right of parental authority over their children and can have for them neither affection or respect." He says further: "But in all cases where the law of July 24, 1889, declares the forfeiture of parental rights operative there should be given to the magistrates the right to withdraw from parents adjudged incompetent or unworthy the right of guardianship of their children and to confer it on either private persons, societies of patronage, or public assistance. This authority in the courts will have the great advantage of rendering more frequent actions against unworthy parents, an end we should seek to attain. It imports more and more the introduction of law to protect the child, to place it properly and to oppose until its majority a legal obstacle to all interference by the father and mother in the education provided by public authority." In another place he says: "The right to deprive the father and mother of the guardianship of their children should not belong to the criminal or correctional courts, but to the civil courts." In this respect he says: "My views have been modified very little. I continue to remain a partisan of the competency of the civil courts."

Dr. Louis Fuld, advocate of Mayence, was the author of a report on this question. After treating the subject at length and with ability, he closes with these words:

"1. When the parental authority is declared forfeited the legislature can establish supervision and guardianship by the State over the parents in all cases where they have been condemned to imprisonment for less than two months for an offense against children.

"2. Upon those who have been imprisoned for a longer period for a crime not against children.

"3. Upon those who by an immoral life, drunkenness, passion for gambling, bad treatment, or negligence in fulfilling their duties to their children, compromise the moral and physical good or safety of their children."

Another preliminary report on this subject was by the writer of this paper. It was a brief legal treatise on the English and American chancery practice defining under what circumstances the courts declare the parental rights forfeited and substitute other guardianship. It is largely made up from citations of court decisions. Translation is here given of the introductory portion, with a brief statement of the English and American rule:

"For a hundred years the English and American courts and societies devoted to the study of social questions have discussed few of higher importance than under what circumstances should the law interfere and remove the child from its parents. The law of nature clearly indicates that in its infancy the child should remain with its parents, receive from them its support and education, and during this time should be under parental authority. The duration of this time and the limits of this authority vary according to the laws and customs of different nations. But in general the child becomes independent at the age of reason. The civil law of Rome fixed the age at 25 years after having passed through different degrees of partial emancipation. In early times the Anglo-Saxon fixed the age at 21 years. During the period of subjection the child had the right to support, good treatment, education, and to be taught a trade or profession. The parent had also the right to the obedience of the child, good conduct, and labor and proceeds of labor. Where we find these family relations the best and most elevated their rights and duties are a source of happiness, mutual love, obedience, and respect. Is not this mutual attachment sufficient to protect the child? Yes, with humane and affectionate parents.

"But it is unfortunately true that many parents are so degraded by immoral lives, their habits and evil associations, that they have but feeble attachment for their children, their homes, and their friends.

"The love of the man and the woman for the frail being they have brought into the world by mutual love sanctified by marriage is a love which has its origin in their very existence and is strong and enduring. Those parents who are faithful to nature and whom evil has not perverted, sacrifice their time, their rest, and their pleasure for this object of their supreme affection and most tender solicitude, and for them all sacrifices are transformed to joys. If the child is in need they feel it, and will risk their health and lives. In sickness and in health, in wealth and in poverty, clothed in fine apparel or in rags, parents and children are attached to each other by indissoluble affection. Such parents do not abandon to others the child given them by their Creator until they have lost all hope. The reciprocal love of parents and children forms the strongest tie which can attach them to each other during the minority of the child. When they are so attached no law is needed to protect the child.

"It is only in the abnormal family state that the law need intervene. It is only where the parents, corrupted by vice, place the child in conditions where it may fall, as they have, that the law interposes and protects the child and society.

"Moreover, history has painted in vivid colors in all ages that the natural love of many parents is not sufficient to protect children against ill-treatment. There are great and irreparable wrongs against children; evils which they suffer during life and for which the parents alone are responsible. Some bring on the forfeiture of parental rights, while others tend to it. There is bad treatment which does not come from brutal force and which affects the child in high and low conditions alike. The transmission of bad blood is one. The father whose character is low, brutal, vicious, given to drink, brings into the world malformed childen, feeble in mind, incorrigible, with vicious tendencies to depravity and crime. In giving life to such children the father commits a crime not known to law, though his guilt is of the worst kind.

"Behold the contrast. Over the fireside where reign love, labor, and happiness, law has no need to exercise control. At the other home, where vice, hatred, debauchery, and crime hold their saturnalias, is where the little children suffer. Victor Hugo, in his strong language says: 'He who has seen the suffering of men has seen nothing; he should see the suffering of women. He who has seen the suffering of women has seen nothing. He should see the suffering of children.' * * *

"And where this suffering is caused by the parents or guardians, law comes with humanity to protect the child. It is necessary that the child should have another home and parents by adoption. It is no trifling thing to pronounce the forfeiture of parental rights—rights founded in nature, profoundly implanted in our physical, mental, and moral being. But this forfeiture does not come from bad treatment alone. In some cases the poverty of the parents renders them absolutely incapable of supporting their family. They can not for a long time supply the wants of the child, and it becomes a public charge, and is taken by the public authorities and placed until majority in another family. In this manner the forfeiture of parental rights occurs, and generally in America the forfeiture is not revoked.

"The courts of appeal in England and America have often, for many years, decided many cases concerning the respective rights of parents and child. The arguments presented by the advocates and the learned opinions of the judges have shown profound researches touching the principles and precedents of law and equity, as well as a philosophic study on the natural relations of the parties. The written opinions handed down by the judges reflect the humane tendency of the age and have given credit to such judges—a credit which does honor to their spirit and sentiments. The tendencies of the courts and of the legislature have been to modify and soften the rigor of former ideas, methods, and precedents. * * * If we go back to the origin of the race we will find that the chief or king is as absolute in his reign over

the people as the father is absolute master in his family. The progressive sentiment of modern times has diminished absolutism in the State and family. People and children gradually but surely attain the possession of their natural rights. * * *

"The English chancery courts were conservative and did not desire to interfere with the rights of the parents except in cases of their gross misconduct and where such misconduct directly affected the future of the child. If the fault did not affect the child it was not considered. If, however, this misconduct gravely affected the good, the happiness, and the future of the child, if contact with the father exposed him to moral contamination, or if the company of the father isolated the child and deprived him of his natural society, the court interfered and placed the child in charge of another. * * * Modern civilization, thanks to its elevated moral influences and Christian spirit, and to the general diffusion of useful knowledge, has softened manners and has influenced the courts of law and chancery and the legislature." * * *

Without quoting the article in full, it will answer to include only that part giving the American rule as follows:

"The right of the State to take care of its children has always been exercised with great fitness, and above all where the good of the child requires it the courts will frequently interfere to protect the young child. * * * In cases of this kind the court will inquire into all the facts and circumstances, then with a full knowledge of the case will decide which of the parties the child shall be confided to, and if it appear that neither should have it, because of incapacity for caring for it, the court will confide it to some other person who will be proper to bring it up. The court will take into consideration the interest of the child, and will place it where it will have better care than with its father and mother. * * * Following the English and American practice, but making it more certain and binding by enacting it in a statute, the State of Michigan has a radical measure. Under this law the right of custody by the father or guardian may be declared invalid in the following cases: First, by a decree of the court; second, in divorce cases, where the custody of the children is confided to the father or to the mother or to a third party; third, by the court of probate in legal proceedings on account of alleged ill-treatment; fourth, by proceedings in the same court relative to dependent children. In either of the above instances the child may be admitted to the State public school for dependent children."

It is impossible in this limited paper to give an abstract of the discussions of even the more important questions. It is gratifying to say that the discussions showed a general progress throughout the world in prison reform and in the prevention of crime. Especial testimony in this respect came from Japan, America, Germany, Sweden, France, Great Britain, and Russia. An interesting paper was read in the general assembly showing the advance in prison construction and management and the perfection reached in Japan.

In Europe there is yet much imprisonment in common, but the general sentiment of the congress favored cellular separation. The new prisons of Europe are cellular, but mainly on the Pennsylvania system. The principle of conditional liberty was generally approved. The sentiment of the congress on the various questions can be found in the conclusions. Where there was great difference, the divisions submitted questions to a special commission which reported to the section and was then adopted. The difference in views at times was quite marked. Many of these questions related to matters more European than American, owing to the difference in conditions.

But mainly they were of universal import. Charity for the feeble, education and not imprisonment for children, placing dependent and delinquent children in homes, separate and humane imprisonment for women, seeking ways to dry up the sources of crime, poverty, abandonment, occupied very much the thoughts and discussions. Pardon, reprimand, and suspension for the first offense, labor, rewards, patronage, visits, and means to prevent the squandering of earnings were very much discussed.

There was much appeal to private initiative, the guardianship of earnings, libraries for prisons, alcoholism, disposition of mendicants, etc. Indemnity to the injured party, the forfeiture of parental rights, the identification of prisoners were also quite fully discussed. In the brief time given each question the discussions were often hurried, and being in four divisions, when congress came into general sessions many who did not hear the first debates were unprepared. Under these circumstances it is remarkable that conclusions were reached in such good form and with such substantial unanimity. This was effected largely by the ability of the chairmen of the sections and their accomplished secretaries, as well as by others in the general assembly.

As a whole, the ten days' work of specialists coming from twenty-six different countries with varied ideas and customs, the conclusions of the congress are remarkable for the unanimity of sentiment in their adoption, for their maturity of thought, scientific correctness, and conservatism. The proceedings, when published in full, will be a highly valuable addition to the literature of penology. It is only to be regretted that they will not appear in the English language. The Fifth International Congress has done well, and we shall expect as much from the sixth in 1900 in Belgium.

THE CLOSING WORDS.

M. Duflos, the able chief of the French prison administration and first president of the congress, presided at the last session, and in declaring the close of the fifth congress spoke as follows:

"LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: We have reached the close of our labors. Within ten days very much has been accomplished. Thirty questions were comprised in our programme. All have been studied with great care. They have given rise to learned and most profound discussions, not only in the sections, but also in the general assembly. The result is truly remarkable. Notwithstanding the visits to institutions and excursions organized for our foreign colleagues; notwithstanding the art attractions of Paris, which took away many at times from our sessions, we have had the high satisfaction to show an assiduity and tenacity for work most commendable and satisfactory.

"These results, I affirm, have exceeded our hopes. No programme so extensive has ever been submitted to a congress. We may regret without decreasing our zeal that some of these questions should be referred to the Sixth International Congress. These regrets your ardor, your ability, and the clearness of the thoughts presented have reduced to a minimum. We have a right to be proud of such results, to rejoice greatly, not only because we know we have done our duty, but above all because the example given here proves the vitality and efficiency of the congress; because this example is the shining confirmation of your power for good, for progress, for reform, justice, and peace; because, after the achievement of such work, the success of the next congress can not be doubted. You have proved yourselves gold and that nothing is impossible with men whom the love of science animates, to whom faith gives strength which overcomes obstacles with the light which radiates, warms, and vivifies.

"In the meantime we must separate, after ten days devoted to labor in sessions during which an admirable exchange of ideas has taken place, with leisure moments for social conference, to revive old friendships and form new ties, and giving the gratifying spectacle of seeing men belonging to twenty-five different nations marching hand in hand, united by the same thoughts, lighted by the same flame, defending with ardor, with vivacity, different opinions, but having only one object.

"It is not without heaviness of heart that I see you about to leave us. We hope that you will carry with you a lasting memory of your sojourn here; that you go with the conviction that you leave in Paris sincere and devoted friends. At times turn your eyes toward us, listen in the direction of France and you will hear the beatings of our hearts; you will see across the space our arms extended to you as though you said, 'Friends, depend on us, believe in our unchangeable friendship; we

will soon be together again to attempt again our generous efforts. Our thoughts do not leave you. The ties which bind us are those which can not break nor loosen.'

"No, ladies and gentlemen, this is not an adieu that we utter now. The Belgian Government, by its eminent and sympathetic representative, M. de Latour, has informed the International Penitentiary Commission that it tenders its hospitality in 1900 to the Sixth International Prison Congress. The international commission has replied gratefully to this friendly and gracious appeal. This manifestation was acceptable to all the nations represented in the commission. I raised my hand with all my colleagues, regretting, as a Frenchman, that I could not vote twice for the proposition. Brussels is not too far from Paris, and we hope that the congress of Brussels will be an occasion for our foreign friends to come to Paris to assist in the festivals of labor, industry, commerce, and the arts that the Government of the French Republic prepares for the close of the century.

"Au revoir, then, ladies and gentlemen. We offer for your country, your families, for all that is dear to you, our most sincere and affectionate wishes."

Conclusions of the Congress.

SECTION I.—PENAL LEGISLATION.

Question 1.

1. Recidivism may be, according to the gravity of the case, general, special, or subordinate to the condition of the times.

2. Its repression should be combined:

a With the progressive increase of penalties, except

b In the infliction of a more severe penalty for professional criminals.

3. The courts can not prejudice the first of these rules, because it recognizes the existence of exceptional extenuating circumstances, by an express decision. There should be fixed by law a special minimum to avoid the abuse of short sentences.

4. In the second case the law should fix the number of convictions from which the courts could decide, according to the nature of the convictions and the degree of perversity, whether the offender is a criminal by profession.

Question 2.

Transportation, under its various forms, with the improvements already realized and those of which it is susceptible, has its utility, either for the execution of long punishments for great crimes or for the repression of habitual criminals and obstinate recidivists.

Question 3.

1. It is desirable that the incapacity which affects an individual by reason of sentence pronounced against him for crime or misdemeanor at common law should follow him with legal effect into all countries.

2. It is desirable that the native convicted of crime or misdemeanor at common law abroad should be liable in his own country to the same forfeitures, incapacity, and prohibition as he would if convicted there. In the present state of international law the congress does not request that the forfeitures, incapacity, and prohibitions be the direct result of the foreign sentence, but that it be pronounced in consequence of a special act by the court of the country of the delinquent.

3. The judge may consider, in fixing the penalty, convictions pronounced abroad, when the new violation has been committed on the territory of the delinquent.

Question 4.

1. Penal legislation should consider more than it has formerly the necessity of securing redress for the injured party.

2. When the complaint of the plaintiff in the civil action for indemnity shall be established, he can not be required to pay costs. The plaintiff who has only joined his action to that brought by the public minister could, even if it fails, be only adjudged to pay the costs arising from his intervention.

3. The aid of the court could be extended to the injured party before the proceedings on the part of the public.

4. The public minister, in case of correctional or criminal prosecutions, will be held to submit without expense to the court the request for redress for the injured party, saving the right of the public minister to take, upon the admission or rejection of the request, such conclusions as may appear to him to be correct.

5. The indemnity to the party injured will be secured by a general lien on the personal and real estate of the person convicted, and this lien will be concurrent with that of the public treasury for the expenses of the prosecution.

6. Congress decides that it takes into very serious consideration the propositions which have been submitted in reference to allowing the party injured a portion of the earnings received by the convict during his imprisonment, or to constitute a special fund of fines out of which aid shall be accorded to the party injured; but estimating that the congress does not have sufficient data for the present solution of these questions, it decides to postpone the more profound study of the same to the next international congress.

Question 5.

1. The dual is a scientific and rational division.

2. It is not proposed to request the States which have adopted it to abandon it.

3. But it may be useful to establish a correlative between the classifications of violations and jurisdiction. To arrive at this correlation it is necessary to subdivide the first class of violations under the names of minor misdemeanors, major misdemeanors, and crimes and misdemeanors. This tripartite division has a practical character which justifies its maintenance.

Question 6.

1. In penal cases the application of admonition by the judge and the suspension of sentence lead to identical results, and consequently it is useless to add the system of admonition to that of suspension of sentence.

2. Legislation which recognizes in the courts the authority to suspend sentence for first offenses in cases of short convictions contains the best known provisions.

SECTION II.—PENITENTIARY QUESTIONS.

Question 1.

It would be of great value to reach a prompt international arrangement relative to the unification of anthropometric proceedings.

Question 2.

1. It is right and necessary to provide in the regulations different prison arrangements for women and men, as much in a physical as in a moral and intellectual point of view.

2. It is necessary to provide in the regulations arrangements mitigating the disciplinary régime and ameliorating the diet regimen for women.

3. It is necessary to institute special establishments or special quarters for mothers.

Question 3.

Manual labor should, as a general regulation, be made obligatory for all punishments by imprisonment.

Question 4.

The prisoner has no right to compensation for labor. It is for the interest of the State to reward the prisoner for such labor.

Question 5.

Without discussing prison systems in this respect, the congress considers that it is not desirable that compensation to prisoners be very freely extended.

Question 6.

1. A regulation posted in a prison should provide for the principal violations and indicate the different penalties.
2. The punishment should be pronounced after a thorough examination and after having heard the prisoner.
3. The sentence should state how long the punishment is to continue.

Question 7.

In the interest of general discipline and reformation, at first the selection should be made from the worst.

Question 8.

1. In estimating the duration of punishment for the criminal insane there should be estimated the time during which
(*a*) They are confined in special asylums of the prison administration;
(*b*) They are transferred to insane asylums, properly called.
2. If legislation accords a reduction of the time of imprisonment fixed by the sentence, on condition that the time be passed in a cell, the congress is of the opinion that the criminal insane should continue to have the benefit of this advantage, even though, during his insanity, he will have been remitted to the regimen in common.

Question 9.

Labor and not gymnastics should maintain the ability of prisoners to work.

SECTION III.—PREVENTIVE MEASURES.

Question 1.

1. It is desirable that the prisoner, on his discharge, should not have the free disposal of his earnings.
2. Congress expresses the view that the earnings of the discharged prisoner should be confided each time as its importance, the morality of the discharged, or other circumstances justify, either to a savings bank or an official of the place where he locates, or to a patronage society offering all the necessary guaranties, or to persons approved by the administration, to be paid to him after his presumed wants are known.
3. Congress is of opinion that preference should be given to patronage societies.

Question 2.

1. Schools should be organized, to serve equally the prisoner awaiting trial, the convicted illiterate, and those who already possess limited education. This school should not only procure them the knowledge they need, but should also furnish a moral training, which, without wounding the denominational belief of any prisoner, should be imbued with religious spirit—the indispensable element of reformation.
2. The libraries, having equally for their principal object the instruction and reformation of the prisoner, should be organized in the same spirit. They should contain,

besides divers religious and moral works, interesting works—books of travel, respectable stories, illustrated publications, such as pictorial magazines, etc. It is for the administration to establish the libraries. At the same time, the assistance of individuals or associations can be accepted, especially to procure for foreign convicts books written in their language. For the latter purpose the exchange of books and other publications may be recommended between other countries and the administration.

3. It is proper to put in the hands of prisoners a special weekly publication, which shall be edited by the administration.

Question 3.

1. Asylums or special quarters should be provided for the confinement of the insane, in accordance with the order of the court, who have been prosecuted and acquitted by reason of their mental condition.

2. The discharge of the insane from the asylum should be authorized by the court, the administration, and the physician of the institution.

Question 4.

1. Society has the right to take steps for its preservation, even coercive, against beggars and vagabonds. With this right it has the duty to organize, in a reasonable way, public charity, private aid, and patronage.

2. Vagabonds and beggars should be treated according to the circumstances, whether

(*a*) Diseased or infirm paupers;

(*b*) Beggars or accidental vagabonds;

(*c*) Beggars or professional vagabonds.

The first should be aided if unable to earn their living. The second, relieved by public or private charity, should be placed in refuges or charity stations, well organized, where work shall be obligatory. The third should be the object of severe repression and of a nature to prevent recidivation.

3. The most efficient measure against these professionals is prolonged imprisonment, in virtue of the order of the court, in special workhouses. The prisoners should be liberated in consequence of their reformation or if, on reclassification, their detention appears to be no longer necessary. Labor in the workhouses should be supervised, not only as a means of repression, but, above all, to assist in reclassification.

Question 5.

1. The congress, impressed with the increasing progress of alcoholism, of which the principal cause is in the consumption of nonrectified alcohols or artificially composed drinks, the influence of which manifests itself in the increase of crime, presents the opinion that to combat this scourge public authority and private associations should unite for preventive and therapeutic measures.

2. Among the preventive measures the congress recommends, on one side, the regulation of drink houses, the limitation of their number, the reduction of hygienic drinks, the rectification of alcohols; and on the other side, the organization and establishment of temperance leagues in institutions to influence the manners and habits of inmates.

3. In a therapeutic point of view each country should create inebriate asylums, in which labor should be largely organized, their number to be regulated by the inebriate population in each section.

4. The admission to inebriate asylums should be regulated by the legislature, whether the inebriate himself applies for treatment, or has been convicted for misdemeanors incited by intoxication, or because his habitual intoxication has become a peril to himself and the safety of others. The discharge from such asylums should also be regulated by law.

SECTION IV.—QUESTIONS RELATIVE TO CHILDREN.

Question 1.

It is proper to fix the limit of penal minority at the age of 18 years, on condition that children committed to a reformatory educational institution over 16 years of age shall not be placed with the younger children.

Question 2.

1. In cases where the courts have jurisdiction to declare the parental authority forfeited it should deprive the parents of their guardianship and substitute other guardianship in its stead.

2. The civil jurisdiction is that of the common law to decide on questions affecting the guardianship of minors. But courts of repression trying cases showing the unworthiness of the parents have power to declare the parental right of guardianship forfeited.

Questions 3 and 4.

1. Children brought into court can, according to their age, the nature of the acts for which they have been arrested, and the extent of their discernment, be sent to establishments, public or private, having either a charitable, preservative, or reformatory character. Children under 12 years should always be sent to houses of preservation. Children convicted should be sent to institutions or special quarters.

2. It is desirable that the name given to these establishments be not of a nature to prejudice the future of the children.

3. It belongs to the judical authority to decide whether the child shall be placed under administrative guardianship. The selection of the regimen, if there be any, and any alterations in it belong to the authority charged with the education of the child.

4. The response to the question of recidivism was referred to the first section of the congress. That in reference to the conditional liberation of minors was referred to the second section.

5. A conditional discharge should be granted in all cases where the child shall have received a school and professional education sufficient, in the opinion of the administration, and provided that it be shown that the child will be under continued supervision, that it will be assured of work, and that it will be provided with all material and moral needs.

6. To prevent children from becoming vagabonds or beggars, it is necessary (1) to deprive unworthy parents of the right to bring them up and to punish promoters of mendicity; (2) to aid respectable but incompetent parents in supervising their children sufficiently to fulfill their mission, (*a*) in the strict application of the school laws, (*b*) in instituting crèches, asylums, or maternal schools; (3) to offer to orphan or abandoned youth the means to avoid vagabondage and mendicity in receiving them into special temporary work asylums without treating them as delinquents, vagabonds, or voluntary beggars.

7. If it is demonstrated that the condition of the vagabond or mendicant child is attributable to the fault or negligence of those who have authority over him, they should be prosecuted and imprisoned, with fine and the removal of their civil rights, or with one of these penalties only, but without prejudice to parental authority or removal of the guardianship.

8. In this case, and after the organization of preventive measures, the parents guilty of not having watched over the child can be declared, in whole or in part, responsible for the expenses of guardianship and the education of the minors.

9. Lodging houses and public houses which give in a permanent or temporary manner asylum to minors for the purposes of debauchery should be condemned to correctional punishment. For the second offense the closing of the establishment should be ordered by the court, and this should be obligatory in case of recidivists.

Question 5.

The leading feature of a rational physical education should be professional work, and especially agricultural labor outdoors, for both sexes.

Question 6.

1. When the child has been placed at the disposal of the State, or when administrative guardianship has been ordered, such guardianship should be during minority.
2. In all cases where a minor has been convicted he should be placed under administrative guardianship until his civil majority.
3. In both cases a decision of the court could terminate this guardianship when the authorties have ascertained that the education of the child is completed.

Question 7.

Children placed under administrative guardianship, or placed under the control of the State, can only be efficiently supervised by patronage societies.

Question 8.

1. The enticing away by solicitation or fraud for prostitution, the employment of the same means to compel a woman even of age to surrender herself to prostitution, should be severely repressed with increase of penalty in case of recidivists.
2. There should be requested a conference of delegates of Governments to take international measures against white slavery.
3. The best methods to suppress the prostitution of minors are—
(*a*) To raise the age of consent to 15 years.
(*b*) To increase the number of reform schools, asylums, refuges, or other establishments of the same kind for female minors who have become immoral.
4. Recognizing the influence of religious education on public morality, it is necessary to respect the important rôle in which it has always been held.
5. Every minor of both sexes less than 18 years of age found in a habitual state of prostitution shall be taken, after instruction or inquiry, before the court, which, according to the circumstances, will order its return to its parents or its committal until majority to a correctional institution, educational or reformatory, or to such respectable family as shall be designated.
6. The congress is of the opinion that the question of regulating prostitution should be submitted to the next congress.
7. The congress expresses the opinion that with the least delay possible there should be established between the different States, and more especially in the frontier regions of frontier States, international patronage relations for young discharged prisoners and abandoned children.
8. This international patronage should be not only to aid the young and supervised children, but above all to watch over and promptly direct them to their own country and to place them with patronage societies there.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE LETTERS OF RABBI AKIBAH, OR THE JEWISH PRIMER AS IT WAS USED IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS TWO THOUSAND YEARS AGO.[1]

PREFACE BY THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

This article is interesting and valuable in the history of education as showing the pains taken in Hebrew education to find a spiritual sense to all natural and artificial objects. Europeans and Americans are content to require their children to study the alphabet and master it as a mechanical affair. The Hebrew is of all peoples the one chosen by Divine Providence to ponder most carefully the spiritual sense of nature and human life. It would be expected, therefore, that an account of Hebrew education would show some of the devices by which the directive power of that wonderful people should manifest its sleepless care over the culture of the spiritual sense.

The lesson of the history of education of all peoples is this demonstration of the constant alertness, so to speak, of the national spirit in looking to its own preservation. The Chinese lay immense stress upon the mere verbal memory, teaching the etiquette laid down in the books of Confucius and Mencius. The child has all of his habits of thought trained in the direction of the observance of family etiquette. He learns to respect and obey his elder brother, his father and mother, and the officers of the State. He learns to protect those who depend in like manner upon him. This comes out in every phase of Chinese education. The culture peoples that have contributed to our civilization, the Greeks, the Romans, and the Jews, furnished still stronger illustrations of this principle. The Greeks contributed science and æsthetic art to modern civilization. The entire culture of the Greek people, at least of the Athenian people, has this significance. So, too, the Romans, who contributed to the world its sense of legal right, the protection of life and property. All that we learn about the Romans goes to give us an insight into the care which the spirit of the Roman people took to preserve in its education this insight into the human will, both the individual and the social will.

The student of the philosophy of history and the philosophy of education will read with interest this excerpt from the history of the Jewish education, as showing the neglect of what is mechanical and prosaic; what, in other words, is the letter for the spirit of it—the spiritual sense which the Hebrew mind finds underlying all objects in time and space.

HISTORY AND NATURE OF THE PRIMER.

When I was engaged in writing the first part of my treatise on Hebrew education I discovered an ancient Jewish text-book, which was written for the public schools by the great educator Rabbi Akibah, who lived at the time of the second destruction. When I mentioned my discovery to the well-known scholar Hon. Judge Mayer

[1] Discovered and translated for the first time by Prof. Naphtali Herz Imber, 1896.

Sulzberger, of Philadelphia, he encouraged me to examine the booklet more carefully. A careful investigation followed, and I found it to be an ancient Jewish primer. The booklet contains about sixty small printed pages, written in fine classic Hebrew. Its antiquity is soon recognized by its spiritual tendency. The composition is made on the same principle as that of the Alpha Bethical picture book of the ancient Jewish primary school, namely: It is built on the letters of the Hebrew Alpha Beth. While the letters of the Alpha Beth were explained to the children, the meanings of their figures, shapes, and positions, this Jewish primer endeavors to explain the letters and meanings of the terms.

The tablets in the primary school correspond more to our modern picture books, while the Jewish primer has the character and poetical touch of modern readers. The booklet is divided into three parts; the first is of a lighter matter than the second, and the second than the third. It is probable that the first part was made for the first school standard, while the second and third portions were calculated for the higher classes. The third part assumes the character of theological commentaries. In general, it breathes a deep religious, poetical, spiritual tone, and we can now underderstand the psychological problem how the Hebrews, whose religion was void of the idealistic charm which characterized the religion of the Pagans, yet proved to be better devotees to their faith in spite of its dryness and lack of inspiring motives. The answer to that problem is the Jewish primer, and the idealistic spiritual education which was implanted in the heart of the child by it, and has inspired later the grown Hebrew to endure temptations, as well as persecution. From a historical and educational point of view the Jewish primer is of great value, bearing testimonies to the great power of education.

THE TRANSLATION.

First Part.

Said Rabbi Akibah, those are the twenty-two letters, by and through which the "Torah" (the law) was given to all the tribes of Israel. They are engraved by a fairy pen upon the most exalted crown of the Holy One; praise to Him. When the will of the Holy One was to create the universe, those letters arrayed themselves before the Lord, each desiring to be made the medium of the creative force. First appeared the Taw, the last of the letters in the Alpha Beth, and begged that the Lord would create the world with it, pleading "O Lord, create through me the world as I am the first letter of the Torah (the law)." The Lord then replied, "No." Then the Taw asked why, and the Lord answered, "Because I will put thee as a sign of destruction upon the foreheads of the wicked." Taw means a sign in Hebrew as it is written in Ezekiel (xvi), and the Lord said unto me, "Pass through Jerusalem, and put a sign upon the foreheads of the groaning and moaning people for the iniquities they did." What is the meaning of the sign? When the Almighty resolved to destroy Jerusalem He called to the Angel of Death, saying unto him, "Go through Jerusalem and divide the wicked and the good ones. Upon the former make a Taw of blood, a sign of death, while upon the latter sign a Taw of ink, the symbol of life." Why is the shape of the Taw peculiar from all the letters? Because the Torah saves man from all troubles. At that time the Spirit of Justice appeared before the Lord, urging the destruction of the good ones too. The Lord asked why, and the Spirit of Justice replied, "Because they did not warn the wicked." The Lord replied, "It is known to me that those wicked would not heed their warnings." Then the Spirit of Justice said that it was their duty to warn regardless of the consequences. The Lord then declared that they should share the same fate as the wicked.

At that time six destructive angels were sent upon Jerusalem to destroy her people, as it is written (Ezekiel ix), "Behold, six men were coming from the upper gate, facing the north side, each armed, and the man dressed in linen stood among them,

and the pen of a writer on his loins, and he went near the copper altar." Why the north side? Because all ill winds are blowing only from the north side, as it is written (Jeremiah i) "And he said unto me, from the north the ill fate will come upon the dwellers of the land." As soon as the Taw heard it from the mouth of the Most High the latter left the place sorrowful.

Then appeared before the Lord the letter Shin, the next to the last of the letters, praying the Lord to create with it the world, under the plea that the letter Shin is the first letter in the Holy Name of Shadi (the Almighty). Then the Lord refused to accept on the ground that Shin is the first letter of falsehood, "Sheker." "And how," said the Lord, "can I create the world with a letter which has no foot? and falsehood has no footing." The Shin went out sorrowful, and the letter Reish appeared before the Lord with the same wish, saying, "I am the first letter of Thy name, the Merciful and the Healer." But the Lord said "No, as Reish is the first letter of Rashu, which means wicked." So the Reish left sorrowful, and the K appeared before the Lord, asking that the world may be created with it, as the people will praise the Lord with that letter in saying thrice Holy, Holy, Holy, is the Lord Zebaath (Kadosh means holy). The Lord refused on the ground that curse is prepared to come over the generations of the flood, and in Hebrew curse is "Kellala." The K went out sorrowful, and the Zadic or Z appeared before the Lord with the same wish as the former letters, saying, "Create with me the world, as Thou art called Zadic" (Righteous One). The Lord refused and said "No, as many troubles are to come with thee upon Israel" (Zara is trouble in Hebrew). The Z went out sorrowful, and the P came before the Lord, saying, "Create with me the world, as the laws will be called Pikiddim, and I am the first letter in Thy name as Redeemer" (Pode is redeemer in Hebrew). The Lord replied "No, as they will serve the idols with thee" (Peor is the famous name of a famous idol). The P went out sorrowful, and the E or Ain came before the Lord, saying, "Create with me the world, as it is written (Zachazje) the eyes of the Lord are upon the whole universe" (Ain is eye in Hebrew). The Lord replied "No, as with thee the people watch the night, to commit crime and sin, as it is written (Job xxiv) 'the eye of the adulterer watches the night, and I will punish the wicked by thee,' as it is written (Job xi) 'the eyes of the wicked will go out.'" The E went out sorrowful, and the S or Samech came before the Lord, saying, "Create with me the world, as through me Thou art called the leaner of the fallen ones" (Samech is leaning). The Lord said "No, as with thee the pagans will destroy my city, as it is written (Psalms) 'they made Jerusalem the ruins of piles.'" The S went out, and the N or Nun came before the Lord, saying, "Create with me the world, as with me Thou willst resurrect the dead, and I am called the candle of the Lord, which is the soul in man" (Proverbs xx). ("Ner" is candle.) The Lord answered "No, as I will blow out the light of the wicked in the latter days to come." The N went out sorrowful, and the M or Mim came before the Lord saying, "Create with me the world, as with me the generations to come will crown Thee proclaiming Thy Heavenly, Eternal Kingdom, and with me Thou art called King (Melech)." The Lord said "No, as with thee will come a day of compassion." The M went out sorrowful, and the L or Lamed came before the Lord, saying, "Create with me the world, as with me Thou wilt once give to Israel the two tablestones, and Israel will learn Thy laws." (Lamed means study.) The Lord said "No, as the tablestones will be broken." The L went out sorrowful, and the Caf came before the Lord. At that hour, when the Caf went down from the Crown divine (Keter is crown), a storm arose in the celestial realm. When the Caf appeared before the glorious throne, the throne began to be shaken, and the wheels of the glorious chariot began to tremble. The Lord inquired for their uneasiness, and they said, "For the Caf went down from the exalted glorious crown of our heads and stays before Thee, and all our glory is only called by the Caf, as it is written (Jeremiah xvii), 'Exalted glorious throne, the glory of God is forever.'" So the Lord called to the Caf, saying, "What is thy wish?" The Caf

said, "O Lord of the universe, create with me the world, as with me is named Thy Throne, Thy Glory, and Thy Crown." He answered "No, as by thee I will once clutch with my hands for grief, as it is written (Ezekiel xxi) 'I will too clutch my hands (Caf is hand); with thee will also go out the tears of my people and I shall create with thee the world.'" The C went out sorrowful, and the Jod came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me Thou art named Ja the Creator of the Worlds" (Isaiah xxvi). The Lord said, "No, as with thee I will create the wicked thought in man to lure him away from the good path." The Jod went out sorrowful, and the T or Teth came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me Thou willst send the Holy Ghost to those who fear Thee, and in me is hidden the good one" (Tob is good). The Lord said "No, as with thee I will once call my people 'unclean,' 'Tame,' and every leper will be so called." The T went out sorrowful, and the Ch or Cheth came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me they feel Thy mercy feeling the whole universe, and with me Thou art called merciful." The Lord said "No, as with thee I once will engrave with an iron pen the sin of Judah." The Ch went out sorrowful, and the S or Sain came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as Thy reverence from generation to generation exists with me." The Lord said "No, as adultery will come upon the world through thee, and as a consequence Israel will lose twenty-four thousand people, and how can I create the world with thee?" The S went out sorrowful, and the W or Waw came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me they praise Thee, Thou Holy One in Israel." The Lord said, "No, as I once will inflict upon Israel for their passions." The W went out sorrowful, and the H or He came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me they acknowledge Thy majesty and glory." The Lord answered, "No, as with thee I will once in the later days of judgment make the day that of penance, burning all the wicked and evil doers." The H went out sorrowful, and the D or Dalith came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me the generations will exalt Thee, as it is written (Psalms cxlviii) 'Generation to generation will praise Thy work.'" The Lord answered, "No, as with thee Israel will experience judgment among themselves, as it is written in the Scripture." The D went out sorrowful, and the G or Gimel came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me the people praise Thy greatness." The Lord answered "No, as with thee I will pay to the enemies, as it is written (Isaiah lix) 'as to the reward He will pay.'" The G went out sorrowful, and the B or Beth came before the Lord, saying, "O Lord, create with me the world, as with me all the creation praises Thy glorious name, as it is written (Psalms lxxxix), 'Blessed be the Lord forever; Amen. Praise the Lord all His hosts. All the coming generations will say, Blessed be the Lord God of Israel and Blessed be the glorious name forever'" (Psalms lxxvi). The B is the first letter in Hebrew for blessed. As soon as the Lord heard the plea of the B he accepted, and created the world with the letter B as it is written in Genesis. "Breishith Bara Elohim," which means with B created the Lord heaven and earth. As the A or the Aleph heard and saw how the Lord had accepted the letter B it went aside meditating in silence. Then the Lord said unto the A, "Why art thou silent?" and the A replied, "Because I do not count for much, as I represent only number one, while the other letters represent much, as B, number two, C, three, D, four, and so on." Then the Lord said, "Be not afraid, as thou art the king over all the letters; thou art one, and I am one, and the law is one, and with thee I will give it to Israel, my people, who are called one (nation), as the first letter of the Ten Commandments is the A or Aleph in the word 'Anochi' 'I am thy Lord.'"[1]

[1] The pleadings of the letters in every sentence they mention is that each letter begins the respective Biblical passage. The way of its composition shows the childish spirit, yet in that most fantastic tale is hidden one thought of the most prevalent philosophy of that age—the Logos idea.

SECOND PART.

Why is the head of the A or Aleph upright standing on two legs as men? Because it is second in Truth (A is the first letter of Emeth, truth) and falsehood has no legs to stand upon, since all the letters of falsehood have no foothold. Why is his hand stretched out from his side? Because he shows to the Almighty, who is Truth Himself, as it is written (Psalm cxvi) "and the Truth of the Lord forever."

Why is the B or Beth with its open face toward the G? Because the B resembles a house (Beth is house in Hebrew) open to all, and the G resembles a man who sees a poor one at the door, and goes into the house to bring out some food.

Why is the foot of the G or Gimel toward the D? Because all mercy must be extended to the poor. (Dal is poor in Hebrew.)

Why is the D or Dalith resembling a stick and facing the H? Because the poor man is striving only for the bliss of the material world.

Why is the H or Hei resembling an open hut? Because he who wants to get out of it can do so. Why has it two doors, one small and one large? Because he who wants to get out goes out through the larger, and he who wants to get in must come in through the smaller. (Allegory for birth and death.)

Why is the W or Waw upright like a stick facing the S? Because God has hinted through the symbols of the letters that He will once punish the wicked by messengers with fire sticks of the purgatory, from where their woe cry will be heard, as it is written (Isaiah iii) "Woe to the wicked."

Why has the S or Sain two points on its head, one toward the Waw and the other the Cheth? Because if one goes to sin, he looks twice, once to be hidden from men, the other look is directed toward the crime.

Why has the Ch or Chet no crown? Because the wicked have only shame, and they are void of good name. (Chet means sin.)

Why is the hand of the T or Teth hidden inside and its head upright with a crown on? Because he who does good and helps the poor that nobody sees will calm the wrath even that of the Angel of Death, as it is written (Proverbs xxi) "A hidden gift calms the wrath."

Why is the Jod smaller than all the letters? Because he who humbles himself here will inherit the life hereafter, which was created with that letter. Why is the point of it toward its face? Because each one gets rewarded according to his merit, and his good deeds are before him.

Why resembles the Caf a throne and facing the L? Because a throne is fit only for the kings to sit on. (Kese is throne, and Melech is king.)

Why is the L or Lamed taller than all the letters? Because it stands in the center of the twenty-two letters, and resembles a king, a throne behind and kingdom before him.

Why is there an open M and a close M? (The former is used in the middle of the word as well as at the beginning, while the latter only at the end.) Because there is an open king and there is a close king. Why is the head of the open M toward the ground with the hand stretched on high? Because it points out to Him, to whom all kingdom belongs, as it is written (Psalm xxii) "To Thee, O Lord, is the Kingdom," and at the same time looks to the ground to show, as King David said, "From Thee is all." The closed M points out that all is closed to us.

Why is the N or Nun facing the S or Samech? Because it looks as one who falls and prays to be leaned.

Why is the S or Samech closed around? Because it is a symbol to Israel, who is closed round on all the corners with divine glory, and that He will not exchange him for another nation, and his seed will not be mixed with the seed of others, as it is written "The Lord belongs to His people." Also it is written (Zechariah) "I, the Lord, will surround thee with a fire wall."

The E or Ain is the initial of Esau the wicked, from whom Persians and Tarsians

came forth. Why is the E in a sitting position? Because they will fall before the feet of Israel, as it is written (Obadja i) "The house of Jacob will be fire and Edom will be his inheritance."

Why is there a sitting and a standing P? (The standing P is only used at the end of a word.) Because the mouth which opens the same seals. (P means mouth.) The idol worshipers have no open mouth in the laws and in the oral law or in prayers; only Israel alone, as it is written (Psalms cxlvii) "He told His words to Jacob. He did not so to any nation."

Why has the Z or Zadic two heads? Because there are two kinds of righteous people; the one plain and the other with humility.

Why is the K or Kaf tall and horned? Because all the horns of the wicked will be cut off, for they walk proudly in this life. As it is written (Psalm lxxviii) "And all the horns of the wicked I will cut off." He will again exalt those of Israel, as it is written (Psalm lxxv) "Exalted will be the horns of the pious ones."

Why is the face of the R or Reish turned away from the K? Because R is the initial of the wicked, and K the initial of the holy, and the wicked is always turning away from the holy.

Why has the Sch or Shin three branches above and no foot or root below? Because the Shin is the initial of falsehood, and falsehood has no foothold and the Almighty will stop the mouth of falsehood. It resembles a tree whose branches are plentiful and the roots little; the wind can easily turn it over.

Why is the foot of the Taw a little broken up? Because Taw is the initial of the Torah, the law, and he who wants to study the law must humble and lower himself.

ANOTHER EXPLANATION FOR THE ALPHA BETH.

Aleph Beth means, learn wisdom. (Aleph means learn; Beth is like Bina wisdom, and on that line the whole Alpha Beth is explained according to the meanings of their terms.)

Gimmel Dalith means, be merciful to the poor. Why is the leg of the Gimel stretched forward? Because the good ones are apt after the poor to help them. Why is the back of the Dalith turned toward the Gimel? Because the poor looks behind him expecting somebody to help him.

Why is the H after D? Because he who helps the poor will become great.

Why is the W after H? Because of him who does not help the poor, they say, "Woe to that man who can but will not do good with his wealth," and it is written (Proverbs xi) "He who keeps away his wealth from charity, will lose it."

Why come after WS and S Ch? They show that if one have conquered his temper and done good, then he will find mercy at the throne of the Almighty.

Why are the letters of truth scattered and the letters of falsehood together. (A is the initial of Emeth, truth; M is the second letter, and Taw is the last letter, while Sheker, falsehood, formed from the letters Sh, k, r, are following each other.) Because truth is very rare to find, while falsehood is behind the car. As they taught in the College of Rabbi Ismael, he who wants to become impure, they open to him, but he who tries to be pure, they help him.

Why are the five special letters of double character? (There are five letters in the Hebrew Alpha Beth which have double ones, and they are used at the end of the words; they are M, N, Z, P, Ch.)

The simple Caf and the closed Caf show the simple hand of Moses and the closed hand of God.

The open M and the closed M show that there is an open sentence (or word) and a hidden word, and from it must be learned the good manner; that the teacher shall speak and the pupil silent and listening.

The bowed Z and the simple Z; the former represents the bowed pious one, the latter the simple one. Each sage must study and seek the truth of the law with

the utmost sincerity, as it is written (Psalm cxv) "Hail to those who keep His law; with all their hearts they seek Him."[1]

THIRD PART.

"At" "Bash." Aleph is Adam, who was the first creature of the world, as the creation was created by the word (logos), but he was created by the hand of the Almighty. How do I know that the world was created by the word? Then it is written (Psalm xxxiii), "He said, and it was;" in another line he says, "By the word of God the Heavens were made."

How do I know that Adam was made by His hand? As it is written (Genesis) "And the Lord created the man." What is the meaning of the passsage (Psalm cxxxix) "And Thou puttest Thy hand upon me?" The Lord made first Adam so tall that his height was from the ground to the sky. When the angels saw him they began to tremble and appeared before the Lord saying, "Are there two Lords; one in Heaven and the other on earth?" What did God? He simply put his hand on him and shortened his height 2,000 cubits.

Bash, B, is the initial of animals. Shin is the initial of reptiles, which were created with Adam. Why have they been created with him? Because the Lord says, "If he gets proud, then we say to him, Behold, animals and reptiles were created as you, too."

Gar Dack (a combination of the letter G with R, and the letter D with K, and so goes on through the whole order of the Alpha Beth). Gar, Gimel; this represents the Garden of Eden, placing there twelve canopies of precious stones and of pearls for Adam, as it is written (Ezechiel xxv) "In Eden the Garden of the Lord thou wast: all the precious stones were thy shelter." R means that he, Adam, went the first into Eden before all the pious ones.

D, K. D means the doors of Eden, which angels opened to him, whom the Lord appointed as his servants. K means holy; these angels called him Adam, "holy."

H, Z. H as the Almighty lulled Adam into sleep. Z means the rib which He took from him to form from it his counterpart, his wife.

W, F. W means that He brought Eve to Adam, accompanied by tens of thousands of angels, who were singing and cheering. F means that the whole celestial family went down into Eden; some of them were playing on harps and the others play instruments, playing like virgins; while sun, moon, and stars were dancing before them as girls.

S, E. S means that the Lord invited them both to a banquet in Eden. E means that the Lord prepared for them tables of pearl; each pearl was 2 cubits long and 60 cubits broad, and all sorts of food were thereon, as it is written (Psalm xxiii) "Thou preparest a table for me."

Ch, S. Ch means that the angels did servant duty, roasting his meat and cooling his wine, and the serpent saw their honor and envied them. S means that the Lord told him not to eat from the tree of knowledge.

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[1] The second part was, judging from its character, probably taught in the next school standard calculated for pupils from 8 to 10 years old. The second part does not contain the childish fantasy heated by the steam of oriental imagination. It simply explains the letters of the Alpha Beth in the line of their words and terms, while at the same time it tries to implant in the heart of the child religious, moral, and national patriotic sentiments. The third part is in quantity as well as quality far superior to the other two, for it has a homiletic character, and tries to make the child acquainted with some of the most truly national and religious traditions and legends. A new mode of explaining the letters is, that it takes the first letter of the Alpha Beth, combines with the last Taw and forms a new word "At," which is explained by some folklore.

Then it takes the next letter B combining with the next last letter Sh or Shin and a word "Bash" is formed and explained. That way was for training the child's brain to the scholastic way of argument among the sages of the Rabbis of the Talmud. The gradual rising of the thought in the primer indicates the great educational principle which the author had before his eyes. The third part of the primer was for pupils of the age of 10 and upward; it was calculated to prepare them for the study of the Talmud and oral law.

F, N. F means that Eve mistook the words of the serpent, and ate from the forbidden fruit. N means that their eyes were opened to see that they were naked, and they covered their nakedness with fig leaves.

Jod, M. Yod means that the Almighty was aware of it, and he went down to call Adam for it. M means that the Lord questioned him, "Who told you that you were naked?"

C, L. C means that the Lord invited them all for judgment. First, He called aside Adam, asking him why he ate from the fruit. Adam defended himself, saying that Eve gave him to eat. The woman was questioned, and she pleaded that she did it under the temptation of the serpent. The serpent was called and cursed. When the Lord said to the serpent "On thy belly thou shalt go," the serpent begged, "O Lord, make me as the fish in water, which have no feet," and the Lord said, "Dust shall be thy food." Then the serpent said, "If the fish eat dust, I will eat it too." At that moment the Lord tore his tongue in two parts, saying, "Wicked one, thou hast sinned in gossip, since I make known to the world that it is on account of thy unruly tongue."

A, Ch, S, means that God said unto the angels, I, myself, will be more merciful to Israel than to the idol worshipers, for the former crown me twice a day and proclaim my kingdom morning and evening by their declarations, "Hear, O Israel, the Lord our God is one." If Israel would not exist, neither glory nor exaltation would exist.

B, T, E (Bata). My spirit is only calmed by Israel, for the heathen make mistakes to take sun, moon, and stars as deities. And when they bow before them and before the hosts of Heaven, then the Holy One is wrath, as it is written (Psalm vii), "God is wrath every day." The Almighty says unto the angels, "Behold, I gave unto those pagans spirit, mind, glory, and ruling power, and they bow to sun, moon, and stars, which I have created from the aureole of my face." At that saying they tremble, those wheels in the orbits of the sun, moon, and stars, and two destructive angels go out to destroy the world on account of their wicked doings, but they give up their intention for the sake of the sages who study the law, and the public-school children who read the scripture, and for the sake of the whole of Israel who proclaim morning and evening the Heavenly Kingdom.

G, I, F. (Gif), do not read Gif only Guf, body, that is the body of the Torah, that the teachers of the colleges are trying to explain to Israel as it is written, "They will teach thy laws to Jacob."

D, Ch, Z. (Dachaz), do not read Dachaz only "Dach Kulu Chefez," meaning the humble one is the whole longing. The pious ones are the "land of desire" of God. Why are the pious ones called "desire?" Because they fulfill the desire of the Almighty.

Ch. L. K. (Cheleck), meaning part that is Jacob, who is the property of the Lord, as the glorious name was sanctified through him and his children, and the Lord has engraved his image on his glorious throne. When the children of Jacob say thrice a day praise to God, then the Lord kisses his head, which is engraved upon His glorious throne.

How do I know that Jacob is the property of God? Then it is written the property of God is his people, Jacob the property of his inheritance.

N. M. R. (Nmar), meaning "he said;" those are the seraphim and fairy angels who can not say praise to the glory of the Lord, until Israel has first sanctified his holy name, as it is written (Job xxxviii) "The morning stars sing together and the sons of God shout for joy." The morning stars are the children of Israel, as Moses said, and ye are as the stars of the sky. As the stars are shining, so the children of Israel are shining through the light of the law, as it is written (Proverbs vi), "The good deed is a candle and the law is light."

S, N. (Son) Sh, T, (Shot) are the initials of the words, "He bears the Sabbath." When God promised Israel the pleasures of life hereafter in exchange for keeping the laws, Israel demanded a sample of that pleasure, and the Lord gave him the Sabbath.

When Nagrasniel, the manager of the Purgatory, asked the Lord, "Why didst thou not give me that nation of Israel as food for my flames as others?" the Lord replied, "All the pagans are written in thy books, with the exception of Israel, as they study the law, and I am with them." He then asked, "Where will they live in life hereafter?" And the Lord answered, "In the garden of Eden, full of myrrh and spices, whose fragrant air penetrates from one corner of the world to the other." Then he wanted to know how they would enjoy their glorious time, and the Almighty will say, "With me does not dwell the wicked. Israel will once, in the later days, be void of the tempting wicked thought, and neither Satan nor the Angel of Death will approach their dwellings."

Then Nagrasniel will ask, "O Lord, Thou givest everyone his daily bread, give me also," and the Lord will say, "I have given you all the wicked of the land, liars, and the gossipers and worshipers and the evil doers."

IN PRAISE OF MUSIC.

Said Rabbi Akibah, Aleph is the initial of, Truth, learn thy mouth. Tell truth in order to have a share in life hereafter. God is truth; His throne is truth, and He receives the truth. His words are truth, His ways are truth, and His laws are truth. As it is written in the Scriptures, Jehovah Elohim is truth. (Jeremiah x.)

Aleph is the initial of the words, I will open mouth and tongue. Said the Holy, praise Him! I will open the mouths of the children of flesh and blood that they shall praise me every day, and proclaim my kingdom into all the corners of the universe. If it had not been for the sake of song and music, which they exercise for me every day, I would not have created my universe.[1]

How do we know that God created the world only for the sake of music and song? Then it is written (Psalm xcvi), "Majesty and beauty before Him, might and glory in His temple, and of His praise is the earth full." That God has made the heavens only for the sake of music, as it is written (Psalm xix), "The heavens declare the glory of God." That we know, that the earth sings since she was created, for it is written (Isaiah, xxiv), "From the corner (or border) of the earth we hear a song to the righteous, and only God is righteous," as it is written (Psalm cxlv), "God is righteous in all his ways." How do we know that even seas and streams sing to the Almighty? For it is written (Psalm cxlviii), "Praise the Lord, all the heavens, and the water." Even all the creation praises the Lord with music and song. Even Adam opened his mouth with song. (It is a Talmudical legend that Adam was the author of the ninety-second chapter of the Psalms.) I will open mouth and tongue, as among the two hundred and forty-eight parts of the human body (pretty near to our modern teaching of anatomy) with none of them is it so fit to praise the Lord as with mouth and tongue.

Mouth and tongue can be compared only to the ocean and its waves. As the ocean opens ajar, so the mouth. As the ocean is full of pearls, so the mouth (alluding to the teeth). As the ocean brings forth the water, so the mouth. As the wave is lifting itself high, so the tongue. As the ocean destroys a ship, so the tongue destroys with a word. As the ocean roars, so the mouth. As the waves kill the people, so the tongue kills people. As the ocean has borders, so the mouth has borders. As the ocean is sometimes calm and sometimes stormy, so the mouth. As all fear the waves, so all fear the human tongue. As the outlet of the waters of the ocean turns to filth, so the words of the mouth turn into nothingness. God said (so runs another version), "I will open the mouth of Israel to praise my name every day, for nothing is pure in the world without Israel and music, as for their sakes the world exists, and I created Israel only for the sake of song, as it is written (Isaiah xliv), 'My nation I created my praise to tell.'"

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[1] Here we see plainly how the primer or its author tried to implant into the hearts of the children the love of music.—The translator.

If there is no Aleph, then there is no Beth, meaning if there is no learning there is no house. If there is no G there is no D, meaning if there is no charity there is no poor, and if there is no poor there is no charity. Israel is called poor, as it is written (Psalm xviii), "Thou helpest the poor nation, and the eyes of the proud ones, those of the heathen, thou makest down."

Another version of the initial of the Aleph is that God says, "My truth I have deposited by Israel." When God gave the law to Israel, he promised them the pleasure of future life in exchange for keeping the law. Israel demanded a sample of that pleasure and the Lord gave them the Sabbath. How do we know that the Sabbath is a prototype of future life? For it is written (Psalm xcii), "A song to the day of Sabbath," meaning the life hereafter which is an everlasting Sabbath.

When Adam saw the Sabbath he began to sing the praise of the Holy One. At that moment the angels went down in parties, some played instruments and others different kinds of musical works, praising, singing and saying "God," as it is written (Psalm), "To sing to the name of the Most High, to tell at the mornings Thy mercy, and at nights Thy truth."

The mornings means future life, and nights this life, as it is written (Psalm civ), "Thou makest darkness and there is night, there the beasts of the forest are roaming." Do the beasts only roam at night, and not at day too?

But it is alluding to this life which is as dark as night, and the idol worshipers which resemble the beasts who roam in the forest at night. When the morning star dawns the beasts turn into their dens, so when the morning of the Messiah's kingdom will dawn the heathen will turn back, never to come into life hereafter, as it is written, "God will be the King of the universe."

Aleph means thousand; five thousand gates of wisdom has the Lord opened to Moses, corresponding to his five books. Eight thousand gates of "knowledge", corresponding to the eight prophets, and eleven thousand gates of higher wisdom corresponding to the eleven books of Scripture (those of Ruth and the like). As it is written (Proverbs xxi), "A desirable treasure and oil is the dwelling of the sage." A treasure is the law, oil is the books of the scripture, calming man like balmy oil.

Another version of the Aleph is representing the Holy One. As the Aleph is the first of all the letters so is God the first of all the kings, and He is also the last of the nobles, as it is written (Isaiah 11) "I the Lord am first, and with the last ones, I am." Why is it written with the last ones, and not with the last one? From it we learn that when God renews His world He himself arranges the order of the last ones, the order of the pious, the order of the righteous, the order of the humble ones, the order of the prophets, the order of kings, of princes, of nobility, of generations, the order of every being, the order of every beast and bird, and that of every soul. Those arranged in order, He brings down Enoch, the son of Jered, whose proper name is "Mettatron," and the four holy beasts from under the wheels of His glorious throne, and places His throne on one side. Then He brings up Korah and his gang from the depth of the purgatory. Then He brings forth all the living visitors of this life, placing them on their legs. Then He asks them, "Did ye ever see a God like me, either in heaven above or on earth beneath, or in any of the four corners of the world? Be witness unto me, and say the truth," as it is written (Isaiah 43) "Ye are my witness that I am God!" Then Mettatron and the holy beasts with Korah and his gang will say in one voice, "We never saw a God like Thee, neither in Heaven above nor on earth below; Thou art the first and last, and no other God except Thee, our Lord and King," as it is written (Psalm 86) "There is no God like Thee and none as Thy work."

At that hour the Lord will reply, "Verily, I, I am and no God with me. I was before I created the world and I am with the creation, and I will be a God in life hereafter. I kill and I will resurrect, I wounded them in this life and will heal them in future life. With the same fault with which he parts from this life, with the same he will appear at the resurrection—the blind, the lame, the deaf, and the kindred afflicted beings. And the Lord will sit as a healer and heal them."

Why is Aleph written as one letter and read as a syllable of three letters. Because it represents the Holy One who is one, and the reading of his name is a threefold, as it is written "Hear Israel, (1) God our, (2) Lord, (3) God is one." His praise and sanctification is also a threefold, as it is written "Holy, holy, holy is the Lord Zebaath." Even the song is a threefold as the song of songs of Solomon. Song is one, songs are two, here is a threefold song.[1]

Seventy names has the Holy One, those of the known ones, while the unknown are numberless.

Aleph is the initial of "have chosen," "have taken," "have appointed." Said the Lord, all those are applied to Mettatron my servant, who is sublimer than all the celestials. Have chosen him in Adam's generation, when the generation of the flood got wicked, and took away my glory from them (in the text is "my Shechina," meaning the divine womanhood), and went to the heavens amid the blowing of the horns, as it is written (Psalm 47), "God went on high by the voice of the horns." Then I selected Enoch, the son of Jered, from them, to be with me a living witness with the four holy beasts in my chariot. I appointed him on all my treasures in my celestial realm, and the keys of them I handed over to him. I made him a prince of princes to the glorious throne, a manager to four holy beasts, and to put crowns on their heads.

I made his height higher than all the celestial beings, 7,000 miles taller. I exalted his throne from mine. I turned his body into a flame and his bones into glittering light. I made his appearance as the appearance of lightning, his eyes as the eternal light, and the reflection of his face as the reflection of the sun, the rays of his eyes as the rays of the glorious throne, his garment of majesty and beauty. I crowned him with a crown 500 miles on 500 miles measure, and gave from my majesty to him.

I called him in my name "Jedud the Little," who knows all the secrets and mysteries which I revealed unto him in love. I placed his throne at the entrance of my palace, to do judgment among the celestial family. Seventy names I named him in order to increase his glory. Seventy princes I placed under him in order to execute through them the fates of existence, to uplift the lowly and to make low the proud ones, to smite the kings with his word and to humiliate the nobles, to alter the run of time and to reveal wisdom to the earthly kings, delivering the secrets to those who strive for knowledge. That Mettatron sits in Heaven three hours each day, gathering round him all those souls of infants, sucklings, and of school children who died before their times. He gathers them under the glorious throne, dividing them in divisions and sections, and teaches them the law, wisdom and knowledge, and all the secrets of the Torah, as it is written (Isaiah 28), "To whom will he teach wisdom, to whom will he explain the tidings? To those who were deprived from milk, taken from off the breasts."

THE PRINCE OF WISDOM.

Sagnasel is the Prince of Wisdom. Why is his name Sagnasal? Because the treasures of wisdom are given into his hand. All those treasures were opened to Moses while on Mount Sinai, where Sagnasel taught him the law in seventy languages and in seventy ways. The prophets, the oral laws, and all knowledge pertaining to religion he taught him in seventy ways. At the expiration of his forty days Moses forgot all in one hour, and the Holy One called upon Jefeifia, the prince of the law, and presented him as a gift to Moses, and then his memory was strengthened. Those ninety-two names of the Holy One, names of the outspoken name,

[1] The following chapter must have been for the last standard of the grammar school. Its mystical environment, its more completed narratives, indicated the character and purpose of that portion of the "reader." The so oft-cited sentences of the Scripture were probably calculated to impress the pupil with the idea that the Bible is the source of all knowledge, training him to study and to know it by heart.

which are engraved upon the glorious throne, which the Holy One gave from His name to Mettatron, and the twenty-two seals by which all the celestial orders are sealed, also the books of kings and of angels, of the Grim Messenger, and the books of fate of every nation.

Said Mettatron, the prince of the interior, the prince of the law, the prince of wisdom, the prince of glory, the prince of the palace, the prince of the angels, the prince of princes above and below, that the Lord, the God of Israel is my witness, that when I revealed that secret to Moses there arose an uproar among the celestial hosts, and they protested. They said to me, "Why do you reveal that secret to the sons of man, born from a woman, who are full of faults, unclean, full of blood and disease? Why do you reveal that secret by which the creation was called into existence, why do you reveal to man of flesh and blood?" I replied to them, "Because I took a permit from the Holy One. Therefore I revealed to him the meanings of the names going out from light and fire." They were not satisfied with my explanations, and the Lord said, "I want so, and I appointed Mettatron alone, and he can give it to Moses." Moses delivered that to Jehoshua, and Jehoshua to the elders, and the elders to the prophets, the prophets to the men of the great synod, and the great synod to Ezra the scribe, and Ezra to Hillel the Great, and Hillel to Rab Ahluhu, and Rab Ahluhu to the men of faith (the Essenes), and the men of faith to the people of religions to take care of it, and to heal by it all the diseases, as it is written, if thou hear and keep the words of the Lord I will not bring upon thee the plagues I brought down upon Egypt, as I, thy God, am thy healer.

B reads as Beth, which means a house (the initials of Beth). Said the Lord, I builded, I formed, I prepared, I builded my two palaces, one in Heaven and the other on earth. I formed all the orders of creation. I prepared the future life.

Why has God created the world with the letter B? Because the Lord knew that the world would be twice destroyed, once by the generation of the flood and once at the end of 6093 years since the creation. (The letter B is in Hebrew No. 2.)

Another reason, as the temple will be destroyed twice. For he created two worlds, life here and life to come. For God said, I created two palaces, one for me and the other for the sons of man, as it is written (Psalms), "Heaven belongs to the Lord, the earth he gave to the sons of man."

Said the Holy One, for the people will have two kinds of worship, Israel will worship me, the pagans, idols. Another reason, because the people have a dual thought, one good and the other evil.

Three are called "first," the Torah, Israel, and the fear of the Lord, and for their sake the world was created. By the Torah is written (Proverbs 14), "The Lord bought me, the first of His way." "Israel," as it is written (Jeremiah), "holy is Israel to the Lord, the first of his fruit." Fear of the Lord is also called "first," as it is written (Proverbs 1), "The first of wisdom is the fear of the Lord."

B is Binda, knowledge or understanding. Without understanding the world could not exist even one hour, as it is written (Deuteronomy), "Select from you men of wisdom and understanding." When God requested Moses to select men of understanding to make them tribal leaders, Moses went throughout all the camps of Israel to seek for men of understanding, and he could not find them.

Understanding is dearer to the Almighty than the Torah; if a man knows all the laws of the Torah, all the scripture, all the knowledge, and has not the understanding, he has nothing acquired.

G is the initial of Charity. If there was no charity the world could not exist. The Lord said, If it had not been for my charity the world could not exist. What is the charity that God does to this world daily? It consists in giving the people spirit, wisdom, understanding, thought, power, light of the eyes, hearing of the ears, motion of the feet, feeling of the hands, the opening of the mouths, and the talk of the tongue. As it is written (Psalm 33), "The charity of the Lord is full on the earth." Spirit and soul, as it is written that the Lord blew into his nostrils a living

breath. Wisdom, as it is written, "The Lord gives from this mouth wisdom and knowledge." The sense of hearing, as it is written, "And the ears of the deaf will be opened." Walk of the legs, as it says, "Then the legs of the lame will jump as a deer." Feeling of the hand, as it is said, "Lift ye your hands in holiness." Opening of the mouth, as it says, "Who made a mouth to man?" Talk of the tongue, as it is written (Proverbs), "To man is the array of heart's feelings, but from the Lord is the reply of the tongue."

D, H. Said the Lord, "My word stands forever in Heaven." The word represents the angel of healing, as it is written (Psalms), "He sends his word, and he heals them." Word is the power of prophecy, as it says, "And He put His word in the mouth of Balaam."

Dalit is the initial of the Lord's promise. I say to uplift the poor, as the people are not favorable to the poor, as it says, "The wisdom of the poor is disregarded." But when a poor man prays to me, I do not turn him empty, as it is written (Psalms), "God comforts the ashamed poor." The Holy One looks every moment to the poor, and his words are sweeter to Him than the utterances of others, as it is written (Psalms), "Then the Lord listens to the poor, and makes not ashamed his prisoners," those afflicted people, who are imprisoned by their ailments and disease.

Why does the D face the H? Because he who is poor in this life will be rich in life hereafter, like Israel who is poor here, but will be rich in future life. Again, the heathen who are rich here will be poor yonder in the future life.

Why are the wicked prospering? Because God gives them their reward here for the few good deeds they do. For instance, some wicked do charitable works, not for charity's sake, but for the sake of their name being praised, and so they are rewarded here with wealth.

If a man in Israel, who is born under a favorable planet to live a good, happy life, and acknowledge the Lord with all his heart, is humble in his ways and manners, and does not treat the poor in a haughty way, and does not curse, and gives from his wealth to the poor, and to the rich in the shape of a loan, such a man will eat the fruit in this life while the main stock will remain for him in future life and he will become one of the saints on high.

H, or Hei, is the sacred name of the Holy One, by which he created the world, as it is written (Genesis), "Those are the histories of heaven and earth, when they were created." (The initials of the words "they were created" is H.)

From it you learn that the Almighty had no trouble in creating the universe, as the medium he used was the H, the lightest of all the letters (in pronunciation). All the letters, if they are pronounced, he feels through the various organs, as tongue, lips, teeth, and the letters are accompanied by the unclean saliva, but the H, or "Hei" is pure, as when pronounced, no organ is required to help, and no saliva accompanies it.

All the pronounced names of the Holy One are written with H, and with it heaven, earth, this life and life hereafter, and the messianic time, were sealed by it. The letters by which heaven and earth were sealed are twelve, corresponding to the twelve hours of the day and those of the night, to the twelve months of the year, corresponding to the twelve planets in the Zodiac. To the twelve tribes corresponding to the twelve continents, bearing the twelve names of the twelve tribes, as it is written, "He placed the borders of the nations to the numbers of Israel's tribes." All those letters are as fire, and they glitter as lightning, and each letter measures 21,000 miles, and on each are chained crowns of glory as they are engraved by the finger of the Holy One.

They are also the seals of the Lord, with which he seals all the souls on the glorious chariot. Each name has a special seal. The Lord sits on a throne of fire, surrounded by fire pillars with the sacred names thereon. By each pillar numberless angels of fire are standing. When a man knows those names, and makes use of them, all the heavens are filled with fire, and they go down to burn the earth, but

the heavens are linked and chained to the borders of the earth, and seeing the seal of the Holy One, they are filled with the spirit of mercy and do not destroy the earth.

S, or Sain, is the name of the Holy One, as Sain means "maintainer," as the Lord is the maintainer of all.

The Almighty has the key of woman, as it is written, "He opened her womb;" the key of rain, as it is written, "He will open you his best treasure;" the key of maintenance, as it is written, "Thou openest Thy hand to satisfy all with good will;" the key of human structure; the key of manna, as it is written, "He opened the heavens above;" the key of kingdoms; the key of eyes, as it is written, "Then the eyes of the blind will be opened;" the key of the deaf, as it is written, "The ears of the deaf will be opened;" the key of the lips, as it is written, "The Lord will open my lips;" the key of the mouth, as it is written, "And the Lord opened the mouth of the ass;" the key of the tongue; the key of the earth, as it is written, "The earth shall open and flourish salvation;" the key of the prisoners, as it is written, "The Lord makes loose the bound ones;" He has the key of Eden, as it is written, "Opened to me the gates of righteousness;" He has the key of the purgatory, as it is written, "Opened the gates and let enter the pious nations keeping the truth."

Do not read Amonim (Truth) only "Amanim," as for the sake of "Amen," which the wicked say in the purgatory, they are redeemed from it. In the later days the Lord will sit in Eden and explain the laws while all the good ones will sit and the celestial family will be on his right, and sun and moon with all the planets to the left, and the Lord will explain the laws of the new Torah, which will be given through the Messiah. At the end, Zembabel will stand up and say, "Exalted and sanctified shall be the Holy great name." His voice will be heard from one corner of the universe to the other, and all existence will say "Amen." The wicked of Israel and those of the heathen in the purgatory will also say "Amen," and their voices will reach before the Lord. The Lord will inquire for them, and the angels of the service will say that they are the voices of the wicked condemned in the purgatory. At that moment the Lord will show His mercy and hand over to Michael and Gabriel the keys of the purgatory to bring them forth from there.

At that time the two archangels will go and open the forty thousand gates of hell. The hell is 300 miles long, 300 miles broad, 1,000 miles thick, 1,000 deep, and when a wicked man falls into it, he never can get out.

The two archangels at that time will bring those condemned forth, they will be washed and cleansed, their wounds healed, and they will be dressed in pure rays of garment and brought before the glorious throne. When they will be before the Lord, they will fall on their faces, bowing, praising the Holy name. At that moment all will join in the eternal praise of the Lord!

Ch, or Chet, means sin. When the wicked are punished in the purgatory for their sins, they repent and they are forgiven and share the future life with all the pious and good ones, and they sit near the "Schechina" (divine womanhood), as they save their broken hearts with repentance, as it is written (Psalm 34), "God is nigh to the broken hearts," and they are dearer to the Lord than the angels.

The angels are distant from the "Schechina" 36,000 miles, as it is written, "Seraphim stand above him."

"Above" in geometrical calculation is "thirty-six thousand." The Schechina is measured twice thirty-six times ten thousand miles, and the celestial mile is thousands of cubits; a cubit is four span and a fist, and a span measures from one corner of the world to the other. The earth is only one foot long, one foot broad, and one foot high up to the first heaven, and yet, those broken-hearted through repentance are nigh to the Schechina.

But those who are proud, the Lord is far from them. Those who are proud are like idol worshipers, and if a man is like Moses, our master peace with him, and has pride, he will not escape the punishment of the hell.

F, or Feth. Feth means "lime;" that is, the lime from which all was created, and to which all returns, as it is written, "All was from dust and all returns to dust," and dust is lime. Lime is the lime of the future, from which all the good ones will flourish in parties, as the grass of the field with many garments, whose perfume will fill the whole of the universe, as the perfume of "Eden," as it is written (Psalms xlii), "They will flourish from the city as the grass of the field." The city is Jerusalem, as the Lord will start the resurrection only from Jerusalem, as it is written (Ezechiel), "I will give an ornament in the land of the living." Is there a dead land? It means Palestine, which is called "The land of the living," as her dead will be resurrected first.

What will become of those pious ones who are dead in other lands? But at the day of resurrection the Lord will say to the angels, "Go forth and lift up the surface of the ground, and make tunnels through which to bring the good ones from foreign lands to Jerusalem." The angels will take up the four corners of the globe, and shake the wicked from it, and the good ones will be brought to Jerusalem through tunnels; there the Lord himself will resurrect them.

How will the resurrection take place? The Lord will take a trumpet measuring a thousand cubits, the cubits of the Lord, and will blow so that it will be heard from one corner of the world to the other.

At the first blow the world will be shaken up. At the second blow the ground will be divided. At the third blow the bones will be gathered. At the fourth blow the portions of the bodies will be warmed up. At the fifth blow their skins will be shaped. At the sixth blow the soul will be returned into their respective bodies. At the seventh blow they will stand up alive with their garments on.

J, or Jod, means hand and might. We learn from it that the Lord will give in the later days a might, a foothold to the pious ones, as it is written, "I will give unto them a hand and a good name in my house and my walls."

House means the temple, as it is written, "And my house will be called the worship house of all nations."

Wall means Jerusalem, as it is written, "Upon thy walls, Jerusalem, I appointed watches!"

Jod means also gifts, as the Lord will present gifts to all the pious ones, each one with a cup of life's elixir in order to live forever.

Name means that the Lord will reveal to them the pronounced name by which he has created the heavens and earth, in order that they shall be able to create worlds too. Each pious one will get three hundred and forty worlds as a reward for his good deeds. They will have an everlasting name means the pronounced sacred name, with which future life was created. Praise and exaltation that will be the light of their eyes where at one glance they will be able to see from one part of the world to the other.

Kaf, or K, means the hand of swearing (as by swearing we lift up the hand). It will be a hand clutching of joy at the banquet which God will tender to the righteous at the later days when with each one the "Schechina" will walk, accompanied by tens of thousands of angels, around them pillars of lightning, and the elements will dance before them.

Upon that time the prophet said, "O Lord, uplifted is Thy hand." At that banquet, Isaiah will say "O Lord, uplift Thy hand, let not the wicked see the pleasures of the good ones." The Lord will reply, "No; contrary, let them come, and be ashamed;" then the prophet will say, "No; let them not come, and not see."

The Jewish nationality will be called upon to settle that dispute. Mettatron will bring the Jewish nationality before the Lord. Then she will say, "For what am I called here?" Then the Lord will say, "My dear daughter, I like that the wicked shall come and see the pleasures of the good ones." "Let them come," she will say, "and be ashamed."

At that time the wicked will come at the doors of Eden to look and behold the

pleasures of the pious ones. They will see how everyone is clad in garment accordingly, and before each is a table of pearl, and before everyone there is a golden cup mounted with precious stones, while the cup is filled with life elixir, and on the table are arrayed many dishes of delicious food, and before everyone the angels are waiting.

Their faces seem to reflect rays of light as that of the sun, penetrating from one end of the world to the other, while the heavens will open their doors, showering upon them a shower of perfumed dew, and its aroma will fill all the spaces in the universe, and millions of angels, harps in hand, will play and sing, while the sun, moon, and the planets will dance.

When the wicked see those glorious things they will ask why is such an honor and pleasure given to those? And the angels will answer, because they kept the laws. Then the wicked will fall upon their faces praising the Lord, saying, "Hail to the nation, that such is to him; hail to the nation, that the Lord is his God." (Psalms cxliv.)

L, or Lamed, is the initial of "Heart understands knowledge." The heart is a reproduction of man; since man has eyes, so has the heart; man has ears, so has the heart; man has a mouth, so has the heart; man has utterances, so the heart; man roars, so the heart; man cries, so the heart; man walks, so the heart. The heart sees, as it is written (Preacher i), "My heart saw wisdom." The heart hears, as it is written (Kings iii), "A heart to hear to judge." The heart talks, as it is written (Preacher iv), "I spoke with my heart." The heart cries, as it is said (Lamentations), "Their hearts cried unto the Lord." Man is consoled, so the heart; as it is said, "And He consoled them, and spoke with their heart." Man legislates, so the heart; as it is said (Judges viii), "My heart to legislate to Israel." Man roams, so the heart; as it says (Psalms xlv), "My heart roams a good thing." Man rejoices, so the heart; as it is written (Samuel ii), "My heart rejoices in the Lord." Man is clean, so the heart; as it says (Psalms li), "A clean heart, create in me, O Lord." Man mourns, so the heart; as it says (Genesis), "And he mourned in his heart." Man is awakened, so the heart; as it is written (Song of Songs), "I slept, but my heart was awakened." Man inquires, so the heart; as it says (Preacher i), "I turned my heart to inquire." Man is wise, and so the heart; as it is written (Proverbs), "The wise heart takes to good deeds." Man is good, and the heart; as it is written (Proverbs), "A good heart is always jolly."

All that is in man is contained in the heart, and the heart is equal to the two hundred and forty-eight portions of the body. There are twelve actions and qualities distributed to the various instruments of the body.

The brain acts through thought and is the thinking machine. The mouth divides the food, the tongue smooths the ground food, the pipes of the lungs do the breathing, and so on.

But hate, love, envy, dwell only in the heart; therefore it is said, "Do not hate thy brother in thy heart; love thy God with all thy heart." God therefore looks only into the heart; as it is written, "Man sees with the eyes, while God looks into the heart."

M, or Mim. Why pronounced with both letters? Because both are on the height of the glorious throne, where they chain the crowns of light. When the time for sanctification comes, and God does not step down from His height, they approach each other saying, "When will I come to see the face of the Lord?" (Psalms.) When the Lord comes down then all the letters open their mouths with song of praise, the open M says, "Thy kingdom is forever," while the closed M says, "And Thy realm is in all the generations."

At that time the Lord takes all the letters and kisses them, placing two crowns upon each—the one the crown of glory, the other a crown of glory. To the open M He gives two crowns, and to the closed M one of ruling and other of majesty, and places one to His right and the other letter to His left, saying, "My letters, which I engraved with pen of fire, my kingdom is only proclaimed through you."

With the open M the Lord is called "King of Kings," while with the closed M He is called "Ruler of Rulers." When the two M's hear it, they open their mouths in song of praise, and all the celestials come, fall, and bow before the Holy One, singing and praising the Almighty.

N, or Nun. Why is the one N straight and the other in a resting attitude? Because with them was the soul of man created, as every soul. Sometimes it rests and sometimes it stands. When she (the soul) is in the body she is resting, and when she is out of the body she is standing.

A king wanted once to enter his palace, which was an unclean place, and he says to his servant, Bring the candle in. So the Lord created man from dust, blood, and gall; therefore He placed in him the soul in order to see what goes on in that dark, unclean place, and the soul is the candle of the Lord (Proverbs xxvi). The soul of man is the candle of the Lord, not that of the animal, as the soul of the latter has rest, while that of the former has no rest.

When man dies, his soul is brought before the celestial bench, and there all the deeds are arrayed, and the judges tell all he did on that day or on that hour and place; even the private conversation between husband and wife is recorded. If he lost his children when he was alive, they ask him, "Why did you lose your children?" If he was blinded, or became deaf in life, they ask him to account for it, as the ways of the Lord are even and only sinners are stumbling on them. They ask him why he stumbled on his sin. If he can give a reasonable answer, they accept it; if not, he is whipped with a whip of fire and he turns into ashes. The ashes are scattered to all four corners of the world, then they are collected by four angels, an angel to each corner, and they put the ashes in the grave, to be there till judgment day.

S, or Samech, means the leaner, and it represents the Lord, who leans the fallen ones, as it is written (Psalms cxlv), "The Lord leans the fallen ones." He leans the heavens as well as the globes of the planets below them. Samech means also the Torah, which is leaned on the prophet, books of the scribes, and on the oral law, as it is witten, "The well which was dug by the princes, by the nobles of the nations." Well means the Torah, as it says, "The well of living water." And the law is always compared to water, as it says, "He who is thirsty, go to the water."

Why are the words of the Torah compared to water? Because as water leaves the highest and comes down, so the Torah likes only him who is humble. "Dug by princes," they are Moses and the seventy elders who explained the laws in seventy languages. "The nobles of the nation," they are the scribes, as David, Solomon, Ezra, who have explained the law to Israel.

E, or Ain, means the eye of the law, which is the eye of all eyes and the wisdom of all wisdom, as it is written (Psalms xix), "The law of the Lord enlightens the eyes." Wisdom is only the wisdom of the law, as it is written, "Ye shall keep my laws, as they are your wisdom and understanding."

P, or Pe, means mouth, and mouth means Moses, as it is written (Exodus), "I am a hard mouth, and a stutterer of tongue." Moses said to the Lord, "I know Thou art the only God, and Thou hast created the world only for Thy own honor, and created man only to do Thee honor, and every portion of the body Thou hast created for some purpose to serve Thee. The head to bow before Thee, the eyes to see Thy glory, the ears to hear Thy honor, the nose to smell, the teeth to grind the food, the pipe to give in and to give out. The veins as blood vessels, the skin for complexion, hands to fight and to work, feet to walk, tongue to talk. Now give me talkative power." The Lord replied, "Who made the mouth and tongue to Adam? Of course I did it."

Z, or Zadic, means the righteous of the world, God Himself, as He does right to every creature in the universe. If God had not given to man mouth and tongue the world could not exist for a moment. When Moses refused to accept the mission on account of being a stutterer the creatures of the world began to tremble, saying, "Behold Moses who once will speak with the Schechina one hundred and seventy-five times face to face and will explain every letter and law in seventy languages,

yet he says, 'I am a stutterer;' what shall we say?" For that, that Moses made himself incapable on account of his mouth, the Lord uplifted him, as it is written, "and I was standing between you and the Lord," a position which even Mettatron can not have. For the plea that he pleaded, "I am hard of talk," the Lord speaks of him, "Moses, face to face I speak with him." God has appointed Moses as a treasury over all the creation, as it is said, "Moses, my servant, the faithful in my household."

When Moses reached the department of the future and saw the parties of sages, of the Sansechrin, of the Rabbis, explaining the law in forty-nine ways, and then he saw the college of Rabbi Akibah, who explains three hundred and sixty-five reasons for the laws, he said, "I do not want to be the messenger of the Lord." But the Lord knew the reason of his refusal, so He sent Sagnasel, the Prince of Wisdom, to Moses, and he brought him into the colleges where the laws are taught.

There Moses heard the Rabbis saying "That law, as well as this law, is delivered by Moses from Sinai." As Moses heard this he was calm, and with satisfaction accepted the mission as a redeemer.

K, or Kof, means Moses who surrounded Pharaoh with all words of wisdom in seventy tongues. When Moses and Aaron appeared before the king they found there seventy writers writing the correspondence in seventy languages.

As soon as they beheld the two messengers, how their faces were shining like the sun, and each word they uttered was of fire, and seeing the stick upon which was engraved the pronounced name, they began to tremble, throwing away their pens and letters, bowing in fear before Moses and Aaron.

Then the king asked them, "Who has sent you to me?" They replied, "The God of the Hebrews." He asked again, "What is His name, what of His strength, how many countries has He conquered, how many are the numbers of His fighting army?" They answered him, "His strength is full the universe, Heaven is His throne, His word is fire and shakes up mountains, His bow is fire, His arrows are of fire. He is the creator of all and the peacemaker between fire and water. With His word He created the world, by utterance formed the mountains, and by wisdom He creates the child in the womb of his mother. He clothes the skies with clouds, and lets rain fall upon the earth to maintain the life of all." Said the king to them, "I do not need Him, as I created myself," as it is written (Ezechiel xxviii) "Mine is the Nile and I created me. What you say," the king continued, "that He makes rain and dew; my Nile waters my land to bring forth the sweetest fruit. But wait; I will bring the memoranda of yore, containing the letters of ancient kings; perhaps I will find among them some letters of your God, for, so far as I know, He never has sent to me any writings or greetings." He opened his museum and called upon the seventy writers to read in seventy languages at the same time. Not finding His name, he said to Moses and Aaron, "I know neither of Him nor of His might." He then sent word to all the wise men in Egypt to inquire, and they said, "Yes; we heard about the name of their God; we heard that He is the son of wise, the son of ancient kings." At that time the Lord said, " Fools, ye call yourselves 'wise ones' and me the son of wise, the son of kings," as it is written (Isaiah xiv), "Only fools are the princes of Zoan; the wise counselors of Pharaoh have foolish advice; for how could you say to Pharaoh that I am the son of wise, the son of kings?"

R, or Reish, is the Almighty, who is the head of the world and its end. R is the word of the Lord by which He has created the seven heavens. R is the meaning of head, which means Israel, whom the Lord has made the head of the heathen.

Sh, or Shein, means teeth; those are the teeth of the wicked, which will be broken three times—one time here in this life, second in life hereafter, third in the Messianic time. As the Shein has three heads, so the Almighty will break the teeth of the wicked three times.

The teeth of the wicked will grow out of their mouths 22 cubits long at the time of the Messiah. The people will wonder upon, and they will be informed, that is because they ate up the wealth of the pious in life.

The Shein has three branches, symbolizing the three worlds in which man lives—this life, life hereafter, and the life of the Messianic era. The Shein symbolizes the three sanctifications of this world—the sanctification of the Lord, the sanctification of the Sabbath, and the sanctification of Israel.

T, or Taw, means longing; man longs for everything in this life. Man is born naked, without dress, without shoes, without knowledge, without understanding, without thought, without word, without tongue, without law, without strength, without power, without riches, without wife and children, without walk and deeds; yet as soon as he goes out from his mother's womb he longs only to talk of the tongue, and when he gets it he longs to the walk of the feet, and when he gets it he desires knowledge, and his desire extends gradually to all things he sees. But when he parts from this, he goes out empty, as it is written (Kings ii), "The days of David approached to their end." The day of the king is not written, only of David, as there is no kingdom at the day of death.

Rabbi Aha used to say, "The end of the best is to be killed, the end of man to die, and all are ready for death. Hail to him whose labor was in the law and did the will of his Creator, grew with a good name, and parted from the world with a good name. On such a man is written, A good name is better than good oil, and the day of death better than the birthday."

CHAPTER XV.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE, PARTICULARLY IN AUSTRIA, FRANCE, AND GERMANY.[1]

The American Bankers' Association has led the way in one of the most important educational departures of this century. It is nothing less than a systematic effort to arouse public attention to the importance of providing for a more extensive and more thorough professional education of our business classes.

As the first step in this work, the association appointed a committee to investigate what was being done in a systematic way in the United States toward providing for this great public need of a special education for mercantile and business life. With a full recognition of the admirable work which many of our so-called "commercial colleges" are doing, and with the completest acknowledgment that their founders and promoters were the first to see the need of special commercial education and were doing valuable work in supplying it so far as they could, the committee felt that there was a field of education which these institutions were not at all cultivating, and yet which needed special attention. In canvassing the educational institutions of the country, it soon appeared that the Wharton School of Finance and Economy of the University of Pennsylvania was the only institution of higher rank which was busying itself seriously with this educational problem. The committee, therefore, requested the author of this report to give the association an account of the work, aims, and methods of the Wharton School. In an address delivered before that body at Saratoga, in September, 1890,[2] the general situation of business education was discussed and an exposition of the work of the Wharton School was given. So well pleased was the association with the plan there outlined and the report of the work already accomplished that it adopted resolutions recommending to the colleges and universities in the United States the establishment of similar departments as constituent parts of their organization.

This action attracted much attention and the scheme received the approval of leading college and university authorities, as well as business men.[3]

Pursuing the same line of work, the association resolved to investigate what was being done in the field of secondary education corresponding to the work of the Wharton School of Finance and Economy in higher education. As it was generally known that the various countries of western Europe had done much work along this line, the author of the present report was invited to visit the leading centers of European education and examine their institutions for commercial education and report upon this subject. In pursuance of this invitation, he visited England, France, Italy, Switzerland, Austria, Germany, and Belgium, and the following report incorporates some of the results of his observation and study of this topic. The essence of the report has already been submitted to the association, at its last meeting, in an address delivered in San Francisco September 7, 1892.[4]

The object in preparing the various detailed reports which constitute this work was to put the available information relating to these schools, their history, origin, development, curricula, etc., into such a form that any member of this association, or of any similar body, any teacher in the United States, any superintendent of schools, any school board, or any other body or individual who might become interested in this subject and who might wish to take the initiative in organizing such schools among us would find the assistance he needs in taking the first steps toward such an end.

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[1] A report made in 1893 to the American Bankers' Association, through its committee on schools of finance and economy, by Edmund J. James, Ph. D., then professor in the Wharton School of Finance and Economy, University of Pennsylvania, now professor and director of University Extension Division, University of Chicago.

[2] Education of Business Men. An address before the American Bankers' Association at Saratoga, September 3, 1890.

[3] See Education of Business Men, I and II. American Bankers' Association, New York, 1892.

[4] Education of Business Men, III. A plea for the establishment of commercial high schools. American Bankers' Association, New York, 1893. Pages 17.

The object of this report, then, has not been to present a complete account of the system of commercial education in Europe, nor complete statistical tables as to number of schools, pupils, teachers, etc., but rather to select a few typical institutions and describe them so fully that anyone who chose to do so, by making allowance for the difference in conditions, could reproduce their counterparts here.

The special accounts contain many references to the burning questions of educational policy which will prove of interest to the educational specialist.

It is my opinion that the educational system of the United States would be enormously improved by the introduction of such schools as are described in this report into our scheme of public instruction, and if the American Bankers' Association shall have contributed, even to a small extent, to this great result it will have deserved the thanks of every American citizen.

I have set forth in the two addresses delivered before the association, in considerable detail, the reasons for believing that a system of institutions of secondary and higher rank should be organized with a special view of offering facilities for a professional education along business and commercial lines. The schools of secondary rank would be commercial high schools, running parallel with our present literary high schools on the one hand and manual-training high schools on the other. The schools of higher rank should be of college and university grade, and should be organized in connection with our existing colleges and universities.

The commercial high schools could be established by private parties, either individuals or corporations, much as our academies and seminaries are organized and managed now. Some of the most successful of these schools have been thus established in Europe, notably in Paris, Vienna, and Turin. Or they might be established by boards of trade, chambers of commerce, trades leagues, or other similar bodies. This also has been a familiar form of organization and support in Europe. Indeed, it may be said that some of the most successful of the European schools have been managed on this plan: The School of Higher Commercial Studies at Paris, the Academy at Prague, and the Institute at Leipsic.

Or they might be established by the community as integral parts of the public-school system. A start has been made along this line at Pittsburg, Cincinnati, and San Francisco, in this country; but these schools have not been developed as they ought to be. It is undoubtedly true that in the long run we shall have to rely upon this third form to accomplish the most general and widespread results; but there is also just as little doubt that more rapid progress might be made if some private individual or corporation would take up the matter and give us a commercial high school which could serve as a model for our city boards, for the history of education in this country shows conclusively that the spirit of routine and formalism which nearly invariably prevails in any public-school system is unfavorable to rapid and thoroughgoing improvement, inasmuch as it is unfavorable to experimentation, and experimentation is necessary to progress.

The systematic and steady development of commercial instruction lies in the interest of our business world, in the interest of the community in general, and in the interest of our public system of education. There is at present little opportunity for a youth desiring to enter business life to get any systematic assistance in preparing himself for his future career, if he desires or expects to engage in anything but clerical work. The old system of training young men in the great business houses has almost completely disappeared, even in those places in our country where it may have existed; while it can hardly be said ever to have existed at all in most places in this country. Even in the old countries—England, France, and Germany—it has broken down, like the apprenticeship system in the trades, and at present the only possible substitute for it seems to be the properly organized commercial school.

It may be said that the best preparation is a good general education of the literary high school and college. This has always been the answer to every proposition to organize professional or technical education. It is essentially the mediæval idea of education, and it dies only very slowly and very hard in the face of modern progress. The best practical answer to it is the fact that practical men as a class will have nothing to do with it. Opportunities for such education have been open to the business classes for three centuries, and they have availed themselves of them only to a very limited extent either in Europe or America; while whenever a special education of high rank has been open to them they have shown their appreciation of it by patronizing the institutions which offered it.

The fact seems to be that in every line of educational life the number of people who will take a very extensive course of study of a purely liberal character is very small indeed, while the number of those who will take an extensive special or professional education is large and continually growing. Indeed, if you were to cut out of our present so-called liberal courses those persons to whom the study of Latin, Greek, history, mathematics, science, etc., is not only a liberal but also a technical pursuit

in the sense of preparing them directly for their future work, viz, teachers, preachers, lawyers, physicians, the number left in these courses would be astonishingly small.

We can conquer the uneducated and half educated people of this country for secondary and higher education only by offering them courses of study which, while they are of a strictly educational character in the best sense of the word, shall also have some bearing on their future every day life, shall have some direct relation to the work they are called upon to do in the world.

The first aim of an educational system should undoubtedly be to offer general or liberal courses of all grades, and of the very best possible character, and get as many people to pursue these courses as possible, no matter what their future careers. It should, then, go further and offer to those youth who have gone as far as they will in these liberal courses an opportunity to pursue their education still further along lines relating to their future calling—an education which, if it is based on science and be properly organized, can not but be liberalizing, no matter if it be technical in the ordinary sense of the term. Nobody can doubt that the training of a properly organized and managed law school is not merely technical or professional in nature, but also highly liberalizing, particularly as compared with the training of an ordinary law office. Nor will anyone deny that the work of a good manual training or trade high school may be made educational in a very high sense. In the same way the curriculum of a commercial high school may be eminently liberalizing in all its tendencies, at the same time that it trains a youth so that he may be more useful in a business house.

Such a high school may be of great advantage to the youth whose father is able to set him up in business, or by his business connections may be able to start him far up the hill that leads to business success, for it will be able to impart to him much information which he would otherwise obtain in a scrappy way and often not at all until the opportunity to use it had passed him by; and at any rate it would prepare him to acquire quickly the details of his business and help him to coordinate his knowledge so as to make it of the greatest use to him. It would, moreover, quicken his interest in all that relates to business, and help make his business life a source of pleasure as well as profit to him.

If such a training would help the youth of fortune and good business connections, it would be of immensely greater aid to the youth who must start at the bottom and has only himself and his own efforts to rely upon. It would enable him to acquire in a much shorter time the details of any business he chooses to take up; it would open his eyes to business chances; give him a comprehensive view of the business world, and help put him in a position to profit by whatever juncture turned up.

It is said that 95 per cent of those who enter business fail at some time in their career, and certainly any business man will confirm the statement that there are far more failures than successes in the business world. These failures come, of course, from many circumstances; but there is little doubt that many of them spring from causes which the proper sort of preliminary training may remove; and if sound business education would serve to turn only 10 per cent of these failures into successes, it would pay for itself many times over

Of course no commercial high school and no school of finance and economy can make a successful merchant or banker. Nor does a law school make a successful lawyer or a medical school a successful physician; but all three may so train a man that he will enter upon his respective career at an advantage over the man who does not have this training, provided other things are equal. A good commercial training will prepare a boy to learn his business more easily and rapidly than he could have done without it.

But such a commercial training must be really educational in character. What this means, in the domain of secondary education, can be seen if one will take the six-months course of the average so-called commercial college in the United States, and compare it with the three-years course of the schools discussed in the second part of this volume—say of that in Vienna, or Prague, or Leipsic, or Antwerp, or of the two in Paris. It is work of this latter character which is at once practical and liberal; which educates for life while it trains for a livelihood, and which should be introduced into our scheme of public education.

It will be noted that all the schools here discussed are really of high-school grade, covering the years from 14 or 15 to 17 or 18. The only exception is to be found in such courses as the one-year course for graduates of gymnasia or lycées, like the one in Vienna and the school at Venice, which may fairly lay claim to be considered of college or university grade. These courses represent really the only attempt to provide for higher commercial courses at all and which, therefore, could come into comparison with the work which would properly fall within the scope of schools of finance and economy.

The real reason for this is to be found, in my opinion, in the general low social

estimate set on the business classes in Europe which are relegated to a distinctly lower position in the social scale than the nobility, the army, and the professional classes. Shopkeepers and artisans are classed together, and for neither class is really higher education necessary at all. Of course this state of things can not continue indefinitely, and there are many signs of its approaching change, and before long we may confidently expect to see courses in commerce in the higher schools of Europe which will compare favorably with those suitable to schools of finance and economy as discussed in this work.

Attempts have been made to develop courses in business in connection with the other courses in the German polytechnic schools; but, as will be seen in the second part of this report, they have all been so inadequately organized that they have failed of their purpose and are of value to us only as solemn examples to be avoided.

One interesting thing to note is the recent remarkable increase in attendance at French commercial schools. Up to 1890 the certificate of these schools was not accepted by the war department as entitling the holders to the privileges of the one-year-service law, and so boys who attended them were compelled to pass at least a year or two more in other schools for the mere purpose of passing the military examination, or else they were obliged to serve the full period in the army. This constituted a serious handicap for this class of instruction and accounts largely for the slow growth in attendance for many years. As soon as the certificate of these schools was put on a par with that of other educational institutions of similar grade, the attendance went up by leaps and bounds, showing that it was this artificial barrier which kept them back.

The circumstance mentioned above serves to show the necessity of considering all the facts relating to a school system before drawing concrete conclusions or comparisons. It will be seen, for example, that the higher commercial schools in Germany give more time to certain subjects than the corresponding schools in France or Austria. This does not come, as one might suppose, from a difference in the ideas of the German directors of commercial schools, but simply from the fact that the war department refused to receive the certificates of these schools as entitling to the privileges of the one-year voluntary service until its prescriptions as to certain fundamental subjects were complied with. The whole matter illustrates the far-reaching influence of the military system in Europe over every department of life, when even the schools which fit for what is preeminently a peaceful vocation must adapt their curricula to the demands of the war office.

The work of the Free School of Political Science, in Paris, is not noticed in this report, because its aim is quite different from that of the other institutions discussed. It is a most admirable school and is well worth the study of educationists. Its work corresponds at certain points with a portion of the work done in the Wharton School of Finance and Economy; but as a purely private institution it stands out of relation to the general system of public education in France, having in an official way no connection either with the secondary system on one hand, nor with what corresponds to our college and university system on the other.

There are some interesting commercial schools in Russia, Holland, and some of the other countries in Europe. Russia has what may perhaps be called the oldest commercial school in the world. But as I was unable to visit the other European countries, I thought best not to attempt a description of the schools relying, as I should have been obliged to do, entirely on the accounts of others.

It will be seen that but little space is given to England or English schools. The reason is plain to one who knows the facts. There is no institution in Great Britain which fairly deserves the name of commercial high school in the sense used in this report. England is beginning to wake up to the necessity of this sort of education. Boards of trade, teachers' conventions, educational societies have all begun to agitate for its introduction. The growing displacement of English youth in the great business houses of London by French, German, and even Italian youth began to attract public attention more than ten years ago. Finally, some six years ago the London Chamber of Commerce took up the subject in earnest, and later the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and then many other institutions and societies.

Instead of taking hold of the subject at the right end and organizing a great institution in London, which might serve as a model for such schools elsewhere, the English began their work in this field, as in many similar instances, by establishing examinations, and granting commercial certificates to all such pupils as could pass them. As there were no schools where the candidates could prepare for these examinations, they had to wait until existing classical or scientific schools could see their way to the profitable introduction of the commercial side. When a school here and there finally decided to open a commercial department, it was found that in all England there were no properly qualified teachers for this work. The outcome of the examination has been, therefore, most unsatisfactory, and there is talk of abolishing those in connection with Oxford. The London experiment has been the most successful, and it seems likely to continue. But the chief advantage from this movement thus far

in England has been that it has called public attention to the great need of opportunities for some mercantile education of English youth. There is little doubt that England will shortly take the matter up in earnest, when we may expect excellent results.

There is little doubt that an association like the American Bankers' Association, however, could do an immense amount toward educating the general public as well as bank clerks and officials along a few special lines if it would prepare careful syllabi of courses of reading along banking and financial lines, specifying books, order of reading, etc., and then provide for examination to be held on the subjects and the granting of certificates. The Wharton School of Finance and Economy receives letters continually from young men engaged in banks throughout the country asking for aid in pursuing their education along special lines relating to banking and finance, but its circumstances do not permit it to do this work at present. This association, however, could do this service in an admirable way, and if it should undertake it, many men throughout the entire country would rise up and call it blessed.

There is, at present, a special reason why we in the United States should provide facilities for adequate education along mercantile lines in the narrow sense of the term. We are rapidly nearing the point in our manufacturing industry when we may expect to compete with England, Germany, and France in foreign markets. In this field of enterprise England is at great advantage because of long possession; France and Germany, because of the better training and education of their youth who enter their business houses in foreign countries. If we wish to find such competition successful, we must be able to find a ready supply of trained men for foreign correspondence and service; men who have had systematic training in foreign languages and in the geography and industries of foreign countries. Such a training it is the business of a commercial high school to give.

The curriculum of a properly organized commercial high school would contain many elements of a liberal character. The history of commerce and commercial institutions, commercial geography with the necessary preliminary work in physical geography, the study of products, the theory and practice of accounting are all subjects of general interest to every educated man, whether he is going into business or not; while the study of commercial law in all its ramifications is not inferior, in its liberalizing tendencies, to international law or general jurisprudence itself. Such a curriculum would prove, therefore, a valuable element in our general scheme of education, and would contribute powerfully toward strengthening the hold of our public high school system upon the affections and interest of the community.

HIGHER COMMERCIAL INSTRUCTION IN AUSTRIA.

HISTORIC REVIEW.

The history of mercantile instruction in Austria down to the fifties in this century stands in a certain relation to the history of the real school. The oldest institution which had for its purpose the promotion of instruction in modern subjects was the Real-Handlungs-Akademie in Vienna, whose foundation dates back to the reign of Empress Maria Theresa. This academy, which was intended to train not merely efficient merchants, but also high-class officials for the economic and financial departments of the Government, as well as skillful commercial experts, developed in a most happy manner. It was well directed and corresponded completely to the wants of the time, in which lectures on mercantile subjects were delivered to the law students who attended the Theresian and Savoyan academies for nobles. Before the close of the year 1770, in which the opening of this institution took place, the Austrian Government guaranteed a certain support to the institution from the public treasury, and enlarged the curriculum to a two years' course. The plan of study of this institution embraced all those subjects which are now taught in commercial schools, and, in addition, geometry, mechanics, moral and civil law, philosophy, and morals. The instruction in languages embraced German, French, and Italian.[1]

The Real-Handlungs-Akademie, in spite of the promising beginning of its activity, did not succeed in maintaining a permanent existence. With the reorganization of the entire system of education in Austria, in 1805, it lost its independent position as a professional school. Under the name of the Real-Akademie it became the first real school of Austria, which had the third and highest grade of elementary instruction, in a narrow sense of the term, joined immediately onto the fourth class of the normal school.

The object of this curriculum was the education of youth who intended to devote themselves to the higher arts, to trade, to banking, and bookkeeping. The subjects

[1] This account is abridged from the Centralblatt für das gewerbliche Unterrichtswesen in Oesterreich, VI. Band, Heft 3-4, page 173 and following.

which are essential for a commercial institution were limited to the last and highest class—that of the third year.

This last circumstance rendered very easy the new organization which was given to the Vienna Real School in the year 1815, when the Government, following the suggestion which Bohemia had given in 1806 by the organization of the first German polytechnic school in Prague, established in that year the Polytechnic School in Vienna. The first two years of the real school were converted into a general preparatory school for the Polytechnic Institute. The third year was extended to a second commercial division of technology. This arrangement was based upon the correct idea that a merchant needs for his business thorough technological knowledge, while the technologist also needs commercial knowledge. Similar commercial courses to that in Vienna were organized in the polytechnic institutes of Krakau and Lemberg.

The commercial instruction in the coast lands developed along entirely independent lines from the above foundations, which were naturally adapted to the interests of the internal provinces of the Empire. In Trieste a school of navigation had been in existence since 1774, when the Austrian and Hungarian coast lines belonged to the administrative division of Inner-Austria. In 1811 a division for commerce was added to this school; from the institution thus increased was developed, in 1842, the present Commercial and Nautical Academy in Trieste.

The commercial courses in the technical schools, however, did not succeed in obtaining the hoped-for influence in those circles whose interests they were intended to serve, nor could they correspond to the varied demands of the mercantile classes, which naturally insisted upon a training suited to their various conditions. In order to meet this want, which was naturally felt most keenly in Vienna, the Geyer Commercial School in 1840, and later the Patzelt, were organized as private undertakings, and in 1848 the Corporation Commercial School was organized by the corporation of Vienna merchants. In the southern portion of the Empire, the private commercial school in Laibach is worthy of mention.

These institutions satisfied the demand down to the middle of the century, but on account of the general revolution in political and economic life after the year 1848—the development of the railroad and the telegraph, the establishment of great banks with foreign capital, etc.—it was a natural consequence that entirely different and higher demands were made in the field of commercial education than formerly.

In order to answer these changed conditions, a lively agitation appeared almost contemporaneously in the leading cities of the monarchy for the purpose of establishing higher commercial schools by private and public corporations. This led, in a short time, to the establishment of commercial academies in Prague (German, organized in 1856), Vienna (1858), Pesth (1857). Following these new foundations came later similar institutions in Gratz (1863), Bohemian Academy in Prague (1872), the commercial academies in Linz and Chrudim (1882), and Innsbruck (1887).

The curricula of these higher commercial institutions, among which should be included the Commercial and Nautical Academy at Trieste, were no more nearly uniform in Austria than were those of similar schools in other European countries. The endeavor to secure for the graduates of such schools the privileges of the one-year military service law has led, however, to a gradual assimilation of the curricula in these various institutions, with the exception of the academy at Gratz and the higher public course for mercantile instruction at Trieste.

It may be remarked here that an attempt was made by the law of February 27, 1873, to regulate the entire field of commercial instruction for that portion of Austria below the Enns.

THE PRINCIPAL COMMERCIAL INSTITUTIONS.

1.—THE COMMERCIAL ACADEMY IN VIENNA.

A.—First Period (from the Establishment of the Academy down to 1872).

Early in the year 1856, B. W. Ohligs, a manufacturer, made a motion in the Chamber of Commerce and Trades for lower Austria to establish in Vienna a general mercantile institute. He justified the motion by the exposition of the importance of commerce as one of the leading factors of the national economy. While instruction for the technical callings was secured, to a certain extent, at least, by various institutions of learning, the professional training of the future merchant was on the whole neglected. This defective mercantile training was, in his opinion, a chief reason why, in spite of the great victories of Austrian industry in international expositions, the trade of Austria was limited almost entirely to internal commerce. The consulates needed men with mercantile training; the commerce of Austria being represented in foreign States by non-Austrian agents and middlemen. The remedy

must, therefore, be sought in the establishment of commercial institutions which should be organized to answer these demands.

This suggestion was warmly approved: The proposition by Ohligs was supported by Mr. Frederick Schey, Peter Murman, Theodore Hornbostle, E. Seybl, and Edward Drasche. The meeting of the founders, held on the 19th of November, 1856, showed that there was no longer any doubt of the success of the undertaking. The Government gave its consent on the 5th of January, 1857, to the formation of an association for the establishment of a higher commercial institution in Vienna, and for the opening of a general subscription. It was largely due to the efforts of Mr. Frederick Schey that this association, on the 27th of April, 1857, on the date of its first general meeting, showed a membership of 563, with a fund of 352,780 florins, which had been subscribed for the purpose mentioned. At this meeting the proposed statutes of the association were accepted, and the administrative council chosen. Its first president was Mr. Frederick Schey, who held this position until his death on the 15th of July, 1881. The ministry of education approved of the constitution on the 21st of October, 1857; the school was opened on the 13th of January, 1858, in a treasury building in the Renngasse, in which the ministry of finance had granted the use of certain rooms on the 19th of March, 1857. The school opened with 59 pupils, and in October, 1858, it numbered 170 regular pupils, besides the pupils in the evening courses, organized for those persons who were engaged in mercantile occupations during the day.

The institution established by the Association of the Vienna Commercial Academy has, in the course of time, undergone many changes, but the general body of statutes of the year 1857 has remained in all essential features unchanged. The Vienna Commercial Academy is the creation of a special association formed for the purpose, and not that of a corporation or of a city like the other commercial academies of Austria.

This association consists, first, of honorary members; second, of founders; that is, such persons as pay yearly the sum of 315 florins during their lifetime to the support of the institution, or, at least 3,150 florins in six equal installments; third, of associate founders, i. e., such persons as contribute sums less than 3,150 florins and exceeding 525 florins; and fourth, of members, i. e., such persons as pay a contribution of less than 525 florins. The various classes of members taken together constitute the general assembly. No member has any special rights, except a founder, who has the right to establish a scholarship, and for twenty years thereafter to name the holder thereof.

The general assembly chooses the administrative council, which consists of twelve members, of whom six must belong to the class of tradesmen and manufacturers.

The administrative council chooses from its members a president and vice-president for the term of one year, who are eligible for reelection indefinitely. The administrative council chooses the director and the professors of the institution, as well as the subordinate officials and employees. The appointment of the director, professors, and other instructors is subject to the approval of the ministry of education. The administrative council fixes the amount of tuition, assigns the scholarships, and manages the property of the institute. The executive organ of the administrative council is the director of the academy. He is intrusted with the scientific and disciplinary management of the institution; he is responsible to the administrative council according to the existing general rules and regulations of the association.

The public spirit of Vienna citizens had established the commercial academy. It was of special importance for its further development that the administrative council succeeded in obtaining as director Mr. Franz Hauke, who, a few years before, had been prominently connected with the establishment of the first superior real schools in Austria. In constructing the curriculum of the institution great difficulties were to be overcome. For one could not, as in the case of the gymnasium, draw upon the experience of centuries in constructing its curriculum. Ohligs had sketched out the first curriculum for a higher commercial institution with a three years' course. This plan was made the basis of the programme of the institution on the 16th of January, 1857, and will probably continue to form in its comprehensive scope the ideal of the school. The underlying thought of the three-class commercial institute was retained in the curriculum worked out later, but various circumstances compelled the administrative council to make a division in the institution which was, according to the original plan, to have been organized as a unit. The council established four classes, of which the first two were preparatory, while the last two were to form the real academy. This organization was in so far advantageous as the pupils who had not completed the studies prescribed for the academy courses (i. e., the completion of the six-form real schools or the first six classes of the gymnasium) could obtain the desired preliminary preparation in the preparatory schools, as had been the custom for decades in technical schools. This organization of the commercial academy remained in force from 1858 to 1872, and characterizes the first period of the history of the institution.

We give below the curriculum of the Vienna Commercial Academy of the year 1871–72, and note further the fact that at that time the instruction in foreign languages was not given by classes, but in three alternating yearly courses.

PREPARATORY CLASSES.

Subject.	Preparatory class, hours per week.	
	I.	II.
German	4	4
French, English, or Italian	3	3
Arithmetic and algebra	5	5
Geography	3	3
History	3	3
Physics	2	4
Natural history	3	2
Penmanship	2	2
Total	25	26

ACADEMY.

Subject.	Hours per week.	
	First year.	Second year.
Commercial arithmetic	3	3
Bookkeeping	2	.....
Commercial correspondence	2	.....
Model office	.....	8
Commercial law	4	.....
Austrian laws relating to trades and professions	.....	2
Political economy	.....	5
Commercial geography and statistics	2	2
Modern history and history of commerce	2	2
Chemistry and chemical technology	3	2
Mechanical technology and technical study of products	2	2
German language and literature	2	.....
One foreign language	3	3
Total	25	29

The Vienna Commercial Academy, as was proper for a professional school, always sought to maintain an intimate connection with practical life, which is evidenced by the regular visits made by the pupils, under the direction of their instructors, to public collections, industrial establishments, and to the great commercial centers of the Orient. As might have been expected, in spite of the high tuition, 150 florins a year, with incidental fees of 5 florins, the attendance at the institution steadily increased. Pupils came not only from Vienna, but from all parts of the monarchy belonging to the commercial district of Vienna, especially from Hungary, Galicia, and Moravia. Pupils who had completed this course found employment very easily. The Government recognized also the high character of the school on the 22d of February, 1868, by granting to the graduates of the school the privileges of the one-year military service.

The opening of its own building on the 12th of October, 1862, was an external sign of the prosperity of the institution. In order to cover the cost of this building a second subscription was opened by the association in 1869, with gratifying results. The other obligations of the school were met from 1871 on from the surplus which the regular income showed over the regular expenditure.

Encouraged by these favorable circumstances, the management next considered plans involving the enlargement of the programme of the school, but these were not carried out until, upon the death of the first director, Franz Hauke, on the 2d of July, 1871, Alois Czedik, of Brundelsberg, was elected director of the academy.

B.—Second Period (1872 to 1877).

In this old organization the Vienna Commercial Academy had served especially the wants of those people looking toward banking, although the gradual extension of instruction in natural science showed that the wants of merchants were not

neglected. Whoever wished to prepare himself for work in transportation or insurance was obliged to have recourse to other schools existing at that time in Vienna, supported either by the Government or by various corporations or companies.

Following the suggestion of the management of the academy, the railway companies closed their schools for applicants for positions in the railway service, and the royal ministry of commerce its courses for telegraphic operators. At the same time, in combination with the insurance companies, they offered to the academy large grants of money for the period of six years, in return for which, in the year 1872, the academy opened courses for railway service, postal service, telegraph service, and insurance. The curricula were worked out in consultation with the contributing parties; the railroad companies declared those who had completed such a course to be prepared for admission into the corresponding branch of the service.

The problem now was to connect this new course with that of the old academy, which on its part needed some reform. For in the course of time the preparatory classes, which had practically become a two-form intermediate school, were not at all in a position to compete on equal terms with the three-form real school, or with the four-form superior gymnasium.

The general assembly, therefore, on the 29th day of May, 1872, upon proposal of the Administrative Council, ordered the reorganization of the Vienna Commercial Academy. In the place of the former unified school, two institutions were now organized, each with its own management and its own body of instructors. The two preparatory years and the first year of the academy were combined into a three-year commercial intermediate school. The second year of the academy and the separate courses mentioned above were combined into a new commercial institution, called later the "Commercial High School."

A similar organization of the higher mercantile instruction was decreed for Austria below the Enns by the law of the 27th of February, 1873.

The establishment of the Commercial Intermediate School was approved on the 28th of June, 1872, by the ministry of religion and instruction. The institution received the name "Academic," and was opened in October of that year. As a condition of admission to this institution the completion of the lower gymnasium or the lower real school was required. Whoever had not completed these studies at a recognized school was allowed to take an examination upon the subject-matter, provided he had completed his fourteenth year. On the next page is given the curriculum of the Academic Commercial Intermediate School for the year 1876.

ACADEMIC INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL OF COMMERCE.

Subject.	Hours per week.		
	First class.	Second class.	Third class.
German language	3	3	2
French	4	3	3
English or Italian	4	3	3
Geography	3	2	2
History	2	2	2
Mathematics	4	2	1
Commercial arithmetic	3	4	3
Physics	2	2	.....
Chemistry	.....	3	2
Natural history	4	.....	.....
Study of commercial products	.....	2	3
Correspondence and office work	.....	5	.....
Bookkeeping and correspondence	.....	.....	4
Commercial law	.....	.....	4
Political economy	.....	.....	2
Penmanship	2	.....	.....
Total	31	31	31

The chief distinction between this curriculum and that of the former academy is to be found in the fact that in the new institution the learning of two foreign languages was required, in such a way that all the pupils were required to study French, and to choose either English or Italian in addition. From this time on, instruction in the foreign languages was given consecutively by classes.

The final organization of the higher division was effected after a one year's trial, 1872–73, on the basis of the "organic statute," which was modeled after that of the technical high schools of Austria, and was approved by the ministry of education on the 28th of July, 1873. This new institution bore the name Commercial High School. A curator was appointed as the representative of the administrative council, whose

business was a general supervision of the management of the institution. Herr Czedik was appointed to this position, which he held during the entire existence of this school. The immediate direction and government of the institution was vested in the body of professors, who elected each year from their midst a rector, such election being subject to the approval of the administrative council and the ratification of the ministry of religion and instruction.

The Commercial High School was divided into three divisions: The first, for banking (including insurance and mortgage banks); the second, merchandising (including express shipping and manufacturing), and the third, for transportation (including railways, post, and telegraph).

Four semesters were required to complete the course of the Commercial High School. The principle of freedom of study and freedom of teaching was established. A distinction was made between the regular and special students. Only those were accepted as regular students who presented a certificate of graduation from an intermediate school, or who could pass an examination upon an equivalent course (though this latter provision was limited to the duration of three years), and only those students were permitted to pass this examination who had completed their eighteenth year. Whoever could not fulfill these conditions might be enrolled as a special student, if he were at least 18 years of age. Most of the pupils in the railway, postal, and telegraph courses were special students. Such students did not receive certificates of graduation, but merely certificates of attendance.

The examinations of the regular students were divided into term examinations at the end of each semester, and final examinations, of a severe character, for those who had completed four semesters in the Commercial High School. Those students who had passed the severe examinations in all subjects of the respective courses received a diploma.

Those pupils in the transportation courses who were preparing themselves for railway, postal, and telegraph service were allowed to pass special examinations before special examining commissions appointed by the ministry of commerce and the Austrian railway managements, who contributed to the support of these courses.

In order to show the character of the Commercial High School, we print below the list of lectures for 1875–76:

List of courses of instruction offered in the Commercial High School for the school year 1875–76.

I.—WINTER TERM.

A.—Branches relating to commerce, communication, and transportation.

	Hours.
1. Commercial arithmetic	3
2. Political arithmetic	2
3. Bookkeeping: Theoretical part	4
4. Bookkeeping: Practical work in mercantile and manufacturing business	6
5. Study of usage and casting of produce	3
6. Life insurance and annuities	2
7. General study of products (W. T.)	5
8. Mechanical technology	3
9. Chemical technology, including the study of chemical products	3
10. Theory of electricity in its application to telegraphy	3
11. Practical exercises in telegraphy	6
12. Telegraphic service	2
13. Railroad technology	2
14. Freight traffic (W. T.)	5
15. Passenger traffic (W. T.)	5
16. Postal laws and postal service	6
17. Commercial correspondence	2
18. Calculation of exchange, with special reference to the most important commercial centers (W. T.)	1
19. Railroad statistics (W. T.)	3

B.—Politico-legal subjects.

20. Commercial law, including that of bills of exchange	4
21. Law of bankruptcy	1
22. Maritime law	1
23. Tariff laws of Austria and of leading foreign countries	1
24. Civil law	3
25. Elementary law	1
26. Railroad law (W. T.)	5
27. Theory of commerce	2
28. Political economy (W. T.)	3
29. Austrian constitutional and administrative law (W. T.)	2
30. General course in the political sciences	4
31. Law relating to trades and professions (W. T.)	1

C.—Historico-geographical subjects.

	Hours.
32. General history of recent times	3
33. History of commerce	1
34. History and development of railroads (W. T.)	2
35. Commercial and industrial geography	3
36. Railroad geography	2
37. Commercial and industrial statistics (W. T.)	2
38. Geographical exercises (W. T.)	1

D.—Linguistic and general subjects.

39. German literature	2
40. General chemistry	3
41. French:	
First course	3
Second course	3
42. English:	
First course	3
Second course	3
43. Italian:	
First course	3
Second course	3
44. Stenography	2

II.—SUMMER TERM.

The courses given in the winter term, with the exception of those followed by W. T. in the preceding list, were also given in the summer term, and in addition the following courses:

	Hours.
45. Insurance against damage	1
46. Telegraphic exercises in signaling	2
47. Bookkeeping:	
In a bank	6
Railroad bookkeeping	2
48. Laws relating to shipping and freight business	1
49. Political economy seminary	3
50. Finance	3
51. Railroad administration	3
52. Railroad economy	2
53. Railroad tariffs	1
54. Operating rules	1
55. Law of transportation	1
56. Law relating to obligations	1
57. International law	3
58. Commerce statistics	2
59. International law concerning bills of exchange	1
60. Motors	1
61. Exchange and banking operations	2
62. Commercial and industrial policy, with special reference to Austria	1

These two institutions of the Association of the Vienna Commercial Academy existed, however, only for a short time—the intermediate school for five years, the high school for four. The serious results of the financial crisis which occurred in May, 1873, and the circumstance that the Government and the contributing private companies, after the close of the first period, withdrew their grants of aid, compelled the management of the Vienna Commercial Academy to undertake a reorganization of the institution. The Commercial High School, in which for each of the leading subjects two men had been appointed, had been organized on too great a scale for existing conditions. On the other hand, the feeling grew steadily in the commercial world that the Academic Commercial Intermediate School was a purely intermediate school of a general character, and not a professional school, because it formed only a preparation for admission into the Commercial High School, and on this account limited the commercial subjects in its courses to a minimum. The public was, moreover, opposed to a five-year course of instruction as being too long, and the graduates of the intermediate school entered the high school only in very small numbers. The consequence was the reorganization of the high school and the intermediate school. The first step taken was the reorganization of the Commercial Intermediate School, and the making of it, in accordance with the wishes of the classes whose interests it was to serve, a real professional school, while from purely financial considerations the place of the Commercial High School was taken by a separate course of one year for those young men who were over 17 years of age, and who could show evidence of an adequate liberal training. Both institutions were again put under the management of the same director, thus establishing a unified control and management. As the position of curator was given up with the discontinuance of the high school, the instructing body was again made the same for both institutions. These changes were accepted in the general assembly on the 25th of June, 1877, and were approved later by the ministry of religion and instruction.

C.—Third Period (1877 to 1893).

The third and latest period of the existence of the Vienna Commercial Academy coincides with the presidency of the privy councilor, Dr. Rudolph Sonndorfer, who had been a professor in the Commercial High School, and was at the same time for the year 1876–77 director of the intermediate school. In this double position he laid the plans for the reorganization of the institution and carried them out with the beginning of the school year of 1877–78.

In the following pages is given a view of the development and organization of the institution during this period, taking up each division separately.

A. THE ACADEMY WITH A THREE-YEAR COURSE.

The object of the three-form academy is the acquisition of a higher commercial training, with due regard to those subjects of a general education, acquaintance with which may be fairly demanded of every merchant. It is, therefore, not an intermediate school which prepares for a high school, but is itself a technical school, which turns out its students furnished with a theoretical training directly into practical life.

Those students are admitted who have completed the first four classes of a gymnasium, or of a real school. Such pupils, after completing the courses of the Commercial Academy, enjoy the privileges of the one-year military service law.

Those persons who can not present certificates covering the courses of study described above, but have at least completed the common schools and are 14 years of age, are admitted to an entrance examination, in which they must show a range of knowledge corresponding to the courses of study in the institutions mentioned above. The number of those pupils who are admitted on the basis of the entrance examination is steadily decreasing.[1]

The yearly tuition in this department, as in the graduate department,[2] is 160 florins, the matriculation fee 3 florins. There are, however, many scholarships and remissions of tuition, which make attendance at the school possible for poor pupils, and therefore open to them the opportunity of entering a mercantile career.

Owing to the age of the pupils and the object of the school, namely, to train efficient merchants, the most rigorous discipline is enforced in the three-form academy. For the same reason the system of final examinations was given up, which was characteristic of the former academy, and the pupils are now examined throughout the entire year. To carry out this idea more fully, reports are prepared by which the families of the pupils are kept in continuous knowledge of their school work.

Corresponding to the purposes of the school, the subjects of instruction are divided into two groups, the professional subjects and the liberal subjects, between which foreign languages form a certain union, as they are learned chiefly for the purpose of mercantile correspondence. The curriculum of the new academy shows, in comparison with that of the old one, a very decided advance, in that it has not merely the training of young people for banking in view, but, owing to the changed conditions of the times, it has in view, to a far greater extent than formerly, the wants of those who expect to enter merchandising, chemistry, and chemical technology. The study of commercial products and chemical technology are taught in the new as they were in the old academy.

The application of the knowledge thus acquired to the demands of business life is, however, first made possible by the knowledge of mercantile usage and the study of products, because in this way the knowledge of the basis of commerce, namely, the classification of goods, freight rates, etc., is first brought home to the student. This subject completes in a certain way the instruction for merchandising. It was introduced into the high school by Dr. Sonndorfer, and was retained in the three-form academy. In the year 1880–81 tariff legislation and administration was also introduced as an elective branch of study. The development of instruction in the knowledge of commercial products will be discussed more fully later.

In the table on page 738 the number and distribution of the subjects of instruction are given. Details will be found in the catalogue of the academy. It should be mentioned further that for those pupils of the first class that have completed the lower gymnasium, and therefore, as a rule, have no knowledge of French, a separate course in French has been organized, attendance at which, however, is not required of the pupils.

That the organization of the year 1877 corresponds to the wants of the commercial world, and gives guaranty that the pupils who graduate possess the necessary

[1] In the school year 1877–78, of 149 pupils who were admitted to the first year's course only 47 per cent had completed the required preliminary studies in a recognized school. In the year 1887–88, on the contrary, of 232 admitted to the first year's course 209, or 90 per cent, had completed the required studies in such a school.

[2] Compare the organization of the same on page 733.

general education, is shown by the continued and growing approval which the reorganization of the Commercial Academy has received from the public.

The details concerning the various relations of the pupils are given on pages 745 and 746. It appears from them that the pupils in the three-form academy come mostly from Vienna and lower Austria; they come in considerable numbers from Hungary, Moravia, Silesia, Bohemia, and Galicia. Foreign countries send from twenty-five to forty pupils. It is plain, therefore, that the three-form academy is not by any means of merely local importance. The institution receives from Hungary and the States along the lower Danube a considerable number of pupils, who are, however, often defective in preliminary training. As it lies in the interest of the commerce of the Monarchy, and especially of Vienna, that these elements should be attracted, the academy established some years ago a special preparatory class in which such young people have an opportunity to make good the defects of their training, and especially to learn the German language. The number of hours has been fixed at twenty-eight per week.[1]

Special importance is given in the curriculum to instruction in German, French, and mathematics. Besides these subjects, geography, history, physics, natural history, and penmanship are taught. The instruction is given with reference to the purpose of the professional school which the young people intend to enter in the following year. The entrance examination for the first class of the academy is held at the end of the school year.

B. ONE-YEAR COURSE FOR THE GRADUATES OF THE GYMNASIA AND REAL SCHOOLS.

This course has developed from a small beginning into an institution which answers the demands of wide circles. It was intended originally for such youths as were at least 17 years of age and had pursued an extended course of liberal training. At present it performs the functions of enabling those young men who, after graduation from the gymnasia or real schools, wish to pursue commercial studies to complete the course in these branches within one school year. All the subjects of study are prescribed.

In order to insure success in the prosecution of the studies, attendance at the exercises is insisted upon. At the end of the year examinations are held, which every pupil must attend who wishes to obtain a certificate. Certificates of mere attendance are not given. Only those pupils are admitted to these examinations who have attended during the entire school year all the prescribed recitations. The programme of studies is given below. It will be noted that each pupil is required to learn one foreign language, and to pass an examination upon it at the end of the year.

This graduate course gets, as a rule, most of its pupils from Hungary; then come Vienna, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, and Bohemia. In some years, however, Vienna and lower Austria have stood third and fourth in the list. It is notable that between 40 and 48 per cent of the pupils are of non-German birth. This fact illustrates the position of this graduate course in the general scheme of commercial instruction in the Monarchy, and shows that the idea underlying this course is a very fruitful one for very many different classes.

CURRICULUM.—ONE-YEAR COURSE FOR GRADUATES OF GYMNASIA AND REAL SCHOOLS.

Prescribed subjects.

	Hours per week.
Political economy	2
Commercial geography and statistics	3
Commercial and industrial law	3
Bookkeeping and correspondence	6
Mercantile and political arithmetic	5
Study of international trade	2
Study of products	2
Life insurance and insurance against damage	1

Elective subjects, of which two at least must be taken and examination passed in one.

French, first course, using the German language as the medium of instruction	3
French, second course, using the French language as the medium of instruction	3
English	3
Italian	3

Optional subjects.

Customs tariff legislation and administration	2
Penmanship	1
Practical work in laboratory for the study of products	

[1] See p. 743 for curriculum.

Synopsis of Curriculum in the One and Three Year Courses in the Vienna Commercial Academy.

A.—ONE-YEAR COURSE.

Political economy.—In the lectures on this subject the object kept in view is to acquaint the student, in a manner corresponding to his thorough preparation, with the laws of wealth, and especially with the influence of the same on industry and commerce. The most important facts of the history of political economy and its doctrines are discussed, and special weight is laid on the relation of these facts to contemporaneous events in the world's history. Following this, the fundamental principles of the production, exchange, distribution, and consumption of goods are explained, and the manifestations of these laws in political economy. This is done in accordance with the object of the school, viz, special attention is given to those subjects which belong to commerce and industry; in particular, the money standard, stocks and bonds, banking, transportation, the railroad question, and, finally, the tariff question.

This course of lectures is closed by a discussion of commercial crises, their causes and phenomena.

COMMERCIAL LAW, LAWS OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE, AND LAWS RELATING TO TRADE.

When it is desired to give students a special legal training, who do not possess any previous general knowledge of jurisprudence, one must continually strive to show how the law to be discussed and its precepts are the results of the needs of life and trade, in order to awaken a lively interest in the subject and to make possible a correct understanding of legal decisions.

The lectures begin with the regulations relating to bills of exchange, because these form a complete whole, and are acknowledged to be a masterpiece of legislation, and consequently rapidly familiarize the students with legal forms and terms. A preliminary study of the fundamental principles of the history of bills of exchange and of laws relating to them, and also the management of institutions for dealing in bills of exchange, is followed by an explanation of the separate laws with special regard to the needs of practical life.

After this is studied, in the same manner general commercial law, in the course of which reference is made to those parts of the general civil law which are of interest in this connection, as well as to those parts of commercial law and usage which are not yet codified. This course is closed by a short description of the principal laws in force relating to trades and industries.

Commercial geography and statistics.—Commercial geography considers the earth as an economic unit and the single States as economic factors in the great organism of the world's economy. It shows how production, industry, commerce, and trade of the separate peoples develop themselves on the basis of geographical, ethnographical, and geological conditions.

In the lectures on commercial geography and statistics, the European countries, as also the most important countries outside of Europe, are thoroughly treated in a manner based on the advanced preliminary preparation enjoyed by the students.

Text-book: Dr. C. Zehden, Handelsgeographie.

BOOKKEEPING AND CORRESPONDENCE.

Bookkeeping.—Exact explanations and detailed illustrations in respect to form, arrangement, and object of the separate books are given. Following this, complete accounts in merchandise, commission, forwarding, manufacturing, and banking are worked out; accounts current with interest computed according to the different methods with special attention to that method of reckoning which offers the greatest advantage and convenience to a firm in any of the above businesses; private, suspense, and joint accounting in mercantile and bank business; and, finally, accounting and balancing for ordinary partnerships and limited and joint stock companies.

Text-book: R. Schiller, Lehrbuch der Buchhaltung.

Correspondence.—The instruction in this study has for its object the giving to students a correct knowledge of the varied incidents of a mercantile business, about which a written correspondence is necessary, and to acquaint them with the forms of business letters.

The students are trained in the composition of letters on mercantile, consignment, and commission transactions, together with the necessary invoices and account of sales; also letters concerning insurance and forwarding goods; letters on bills of exchange, on referring to drafts for the writer's own or other accounts; on sending drafts for acceptance, forms of indirect bills of exchange, protesting notes, collateral acceptances, lost drafts, remittances, transmitting stocks, together with notes

and bills belonging thereto, consignments in specie, making payments, checks (or bank bills), treasury bills, mortgages, checks, rebates, indorsing bills of exchange, joint accounts and bank transactions, letters of inquiry, dunning letters, circular letters, letters of credit, advertisements, legal letters, and letters relating to bankruptcy.

Text-book: A. Kleibel, Lehrbuch der Handelscorrespondenz.

Commercial arithmetic.—Discussion of the most important modern measures, weights, and coins; the method of computing discount and interest; the computation of accounts current according to the different methods in practice; the calculation of the value of gold, silver, and coins. The foreign exchange and stock computations according to the usage in Vienna, Amsterdam, Berlin, Frankfort on the Main, Hamburg, London, and Paris. Explanations of the stock exchange (prolongations, transactions, computation of arbitration and equivalents in foreign exchange, stocks, paper, gold, and silver).

Text-book: R. Kathrein, Kaufmännische Arithmetik.

Political arithmetic.—Computing compound interest and interest on public rentes with payment of interest before maturity and after maturity, computation of annuities, mortgage loans, preference and lottery loans, forming plans of sinking funds, explanation of the conversion of loans.

Knowledge of international commerce.—The object of the lectures on this subject is to give the student a concept of the world's commerce, and to equip him with such knowledge as is necessary to successfully engage in international trade.

In these lectures are treated: The origin of the produce exchange, its divisions and organization: the brokers and their position on the exchange; legitimate commercial transactions on the exchange, and the exchange boards of arbitration.

The legal regulation of a system of weights and measures; the metric, English, Russian, and Chinese systems of weights and measures with special regard to their position in the world's commerce. The system of weights and measures of the Orient.

The method used to determine quality in the international grain trade; methods of determining quality of yarn and silk in international commerce (numbering yarn and silk titration); alcoholometry and number measuring (dozen, score, etc.).

The systems of money of those European countries through which balances with transmarine countries are mainly adjusted; in addition the state of the money standards, bills and currency quotations in North, Central, and South American markets; also the eastern Asiatic and Australian markets; and, finally, the money standard in the Orient.

The transportation of goods by railroads and rivers, considering the traffic rules; the railroad fares and freight rates; classification of freight in Austria-Hungary, Germany, and France; the international tariff association; the international service, together with the necessary documents.

Ocean transportation of freight, subdivided into registering, classifying, and measuring ocean vessels; the manifest; the book of cargo and the bill of lading; letter of conveyance; charter party; tonnage; fixing freight rates; the most important steamship companies, their lines and fares; the marine freight insurance.

The price quotations of the most important articles of commerce (grain, flour, spirits, petroleum, cotton, coffee, sugar) on the world's market, together with the usages in vogue for cash and time sales. The explanation and computation of equivalent prices, and the construction of equivalent price tables.

The explanation of the settlement of balances by exports and imports is illustrated by a series of examples taken from actual transactions.

The basis of these lectures is a book by Dr. Sonndorfer, Die Technik des Welthandels. Handbüch der Internationalen Handels-Kunde Wien, Alfred Hölder, 1889.

Knowledge of goods.—On the basis of the advanced preparatory study of the natural sciences, and after introductory remarks (system, methods of investigation, microscopy, polarimetry, structural arrangement of organic, vegetable, and animal substance) from the purely commercial standpoint, the products of the world's market are considered according to their natural history and physical and chemical characteristics; after being classified their external and internal marks of genuineness and their adulteration and substitutes are considered. After this preparation the entire animal, mineral, and vegetable products are separated into their organic branches and discussed, but the Austro-Hungarian articles of export and import are given special attention (groceries, foods, luxuries, drugs, raw materials, manufactures of textile industries, and tanneries), besides organic products technically applied (coal, petroleum, and metals).

In addition, special instruction on the adulteration of food and the detection of the same is also given.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES IN THE LABORATORY FOR STUDY OF PRODUCTS.

Training in the use of the microscope.—Microscopical tests are thoroughly carried out for determining raw material and manufactures. The material for these microscopical examinations is taken from the collection of products and from objects sent to the school by merchants. To aid in the lectures, demonstrations, and practical exercises there are a special laboratory for the study of goods, with a sample collection for direct use during the teaching, a museum of merchandise, and a professional library.

Insurance.—Insurance in general, insurance companies, mutual and stock companies, granting of charters to them, the State's control of them, laws relating to insurance, and their fees to the State.

Insurance against damage.—Transportation, fire, hail, and animal insurance, also reinsurance.

Life insurance.—Insurance payable at death and insurance payable at a certain age, mutual insurance, insurance against sickness or helplessness, accident insurance, computing the premium, the reserve, redemption, loans, policies, and reductions.

The insurance business in its practical workings, closing accounts (profit, loss, and balance accounts).

THE FRENCH LANGUAGE.

As a large number of students when they enter the school possess an adequate preparation in French, the instruction in this language is divided into two courses, viz: In the first course the instruction is given in German, and in the second course the instruction is given in French.

First course.—This course presupposes none, or only very little, preliminary knowledge of French. Consequently the instruction begins with the pronunciation, and along with this the elements of etymology are explained and by a series of carefully selected examples the pronunciation and etymology are practiced.

In the second semester the construction of sentences in general and the most important parts of syntax are treated, and in this work continued oral and written practice is required. For practice in correct writing and in order to familiarize the students with the most important commercial expressions, mercantile letters are dictated in French. These are discussed, corrected, and translated into correct French; special weight is laid on rapid translations from French into German.

Text-book: Dr. Filek Edler v. Wittinghausen, Elementarbuch der französischen Sprache.

Second course.—Extending and supplementing the syntactical knowledge. Brief review of the entire grammar, entirely in French; at the same time written exercises, which, through their methodical and graded arrangement as well as through their number and variety, are most suitable to familiarize the students with the ordinary forms of the language. Translation of classical selections from French into German and vice versa, with special regard to the different moods of both languages. Continual translating of German letters into French, paying careful attention to the difference in the commercial expressions; composition of business letters and somewhat long, independent exercises in French. Every week reading in French from the market and exchange reports.

Text-book: Bechtel and Hertzog, Französische Conversations grammatik für commercielle Lehranstalten.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The instruction begins—as the students are presupposed to have no preliminary knowledge of the subject whatever—with the very rudiments of the language, viz, with the explanation of Walker's phonetic signs, in order that the students may be able to read even before they have systematically learned the rules of orthoepy.

Following this there is given a concise statement of the grammatical rules which are practically applied by means of the selections for reading and translating given in Part I of the text-book. In this manner the students acquire, even in the first semester, a complete survey of the entire etymology, together with an elementary knowledge of the grammar and syntax, as well as a large number of the ordinary forms of expression. They also acquire no inconsiderable rapidity in reading and translating.

In the second semester Part II of the text-book is begun. At first the most important rules for reading are explained, and this is followed by a thorough treatment of the grammar and syntax, which are methodically subdivided for this purpose. In connection therewith, these theories are applied to the selections for reading and

translating. These selections treat almost exclusively of economic or commercial subjects, now in separate sentences, now in longer, connected selections in which the terminology used in business intercourse and commercial correspondence predominates.

This part of the instruction occupies two hours a week, while a third hour is devoted to reading some English work written in a modern conversational style.

The above course sufficiently prepares the student in this subject for the first requirements of a business calling, and at the same time the directions given place him in a position that by means of further self-activity he can acquire complete knowledge of the language.

Text-book: H. Berger, "Lehrbuch der englischen Sprache."

THE ITALIAN LANGUAGE.

As the students are supposed to have absolutely no knowledge of the Italian language, the instruction begins with the elementary rules of pronunciation and grammar.

The first month is devoted to written exercises in the synonyms and derived words, by means of which the students acquire a vocabulary. Following this the text of the elementary grammar is taken up. In conjunction with the above, the regular and irregular verbs are begun, so that by the close of the school year the student is perfectly conversant with the most important verbs of the language.

All the fundamental rules of the Italian language are thoroughly studied, and practically applied in translating suitable selections from the German into the Italian, and vice versa. In this, special attention is paid to the Italian syntax. The syntax itself is treated in a special discussion and illustrated by means of classical selections from the Italian language, committed to memory. From this time on the students attempt to express their thoughts orally in the Italian language, paying special attention to the language of ordinary conversation, commercial terms, and the most important business correspondence—letters about exchange and letters of advice.

In addition to all this it is never neglected to specify to the students books of assistance and a suitable method to pursue which will enable them successfully to continue their studies in the Italian language without assistance.

Austrian regulations in regard to the customs and State monopolies and details of customs administrations.—The bases of the lectures are:

(*a*) Austrian regulations with regard to customs and State monopolies, especially those requirements which must be observed in import and export trade with foreign countries.

(*b*) The general Austro-Hungarian customs tariff and the legal requirements which it is necessary to observe in applying the tariff.

(*c*) Special directions about giving credit at the custom-house, refunding duties, liability; authority over the details of customs administration.

(*d*) Directions in regard to dutiable commerce on railroads, steamboats, and the railway postal system.

(*e*) The form of bills of entry, as well as the legal punishments for false declarations.

(*f*) The commercial and customs treaties, which are made between Austria-Hungary and foreign countries, and which are of special advantage to industry and commerce.

Text-book: Franz Holzer, Praktische Darstellung der österreichischen Zollordnung u. Zollmanipulation.

B.—THREE YEARS' COURSE.

FOR PUPILS WHO HAVE FINISHED THE COURSE IN THE LOWER GYMNASIUM, THE REAL GYMNASIUM, OR THE LOWER REAL SCHOOL.

The three-year course of the Vienna Commercial Academy, as noted above, has for its object to guarantee to the students (graduates of lower gymnasium, real gymnasium, or lower real school) who wish to devote themselves to a commercial career, that higher commercial professional education, with special attention to general educational subjects, which to-day can be rightfully demanded of every merchant. The academy has a three-year course of study, and each year's class is divided into parallel divisions according to the number of students. The students receive a certificate for each year completed, and when they have finished the course they have the privilege of the one-year voluntary-service law.

COURSE OF STUDY.

Required studies.

First year's course:	Hours per week.
German	3
French	3
English or Italian	3
Commercial geography	2
History	2
Mathematics	4
Commercial arithmetic	3
Commercial knowledge and work in the model office	3
Physics	3
Natural history	2
Penmanship	2
Total	30

Second year's course:	
German	2
French	3
English or Italian	3
Commercial geography	2
History	2
Mathematics	2
Commercial arithmetic	3
Bookkeeping	4
Letterwriting	2
Commercial law and laws relating to bills of exchange	2
Chemistry and chemical terms	3
Study of products	2
Total	30

Third year's course:	
German	2
French	3
English or Italian	3
Commercial geography and statistics	2
General and commercial history	2
Commercial arithmetic	3
Political arithmetic	2
International trade and its usages	2
Model office	5
Commercial law and laws relating to trade	2
Political economy	3
Study of products	2
Total	31

Elective studies.

1. Practical work in the chemical laboratory:
   Four hours per week for the second and third years.
   Tuition, 10 florins per semester.
2. Practical work in the laboratory for study of products:
   For the third-year students.
   Tuition, 5 florins per semester.
3. Study of customs laws and practical work in details of customs administration:
   For study of third year, two hours per week.
   Gratuitous.
4. Stenography:
   In two one-year courses, each two hours per week.
   Gratuitous for all students of the academy.

Distribution of the Subjects of Instruction.

FIRST YEAR'S COURSE IN THE ACADEMY.

German.—Review of the grammar, prosody and metrics; poetical etymology. Long selections for reading; analyzing their contents. Practice in declamation. Every two weeks a composition requiring home and school preparation. Three hours per week.

French.—Review of etymology together with related oral and written exercises, dictations, analytical and commentary lectures. Extension of stock of phrases and vocabulary. Every two weeks alternating home and school tasks. Three hours per week.

English or Italian.—Study of pronunciation and inflection in systematic succession. The etymology and sentences from the syntax which are necessary to an understanding of simple selections for reading. Practice in pronunciation and etymology by dictation and simple reading exercises. Oral and written exercises, acquiring of a suitable stock of phrases and words. Every two weeks alternating home and school tasks. Three hours per week.

Commercial geography.—A clear presentation of the most important ideas of mathematical and physical geography, especially those ideas which concern the mercantile profession. Commercial geography of Austria, Hungary, Germany, Switzerland, taking up their geographical situation, topographical situation and configuration of the different countries, climate, fertility of the soil, commercial products, where and how they occur, condition of population, commercial ability, commercial language, emigration and immigration, agricultural, industrial, financial and trade systems of each country. Discussion of the most important commercial cities, seaports and manufacturing centers; transmarine means of communication, imports and exports. Two hours per week.

History.—General view of the principal historical events of the world, with special attention to the history of civilization. History of the Middle Ages up to Charlemagne. Two hours per week.

Mathematics.—Algebra: Review of the four fundamental operations with common integers; greatest common divisor; least common multiple; common fractions; the four fundamental operations in the same. Decimal numbers; decimal fractions; changing common fractions into decimal fractions and vice versa.

Powers and roots; surd, imaginary and complex numbers, and the four fundamental operations in the same. Equations of the first degree containing one and more than one unknown quantity; exercises in the formation of such equations. Exercises in diophantine analysis; rules of alligation. Theory of geometrical proportions; rule of division. Theory of quadratic equations with one unknown quantity; solution of the same. Exercises in the formation of such equations with two unknown quantities whose eliminating equation can be traced back to a quadratic equation.

Geometry.—The fundamental principles and most important propositions of planimetry, paying especial attention to the study of surface measurements. The fundamental principles and most important propositions of stereometry. Solid bodies, computing the surfaces of the same. Every two weeks tasks set for home work, and every four weeks tasks set for school work. Four hours per week.

Commercial arithmetic.—Review of the short methods of multiplication and division. The most important abbreviated methods of calculation. The measures and weights used in the most important countries, especially the metric system of weights and measures. Rule of proportion; chain rule; percentage and its application (insurance, commission, brokerage); simple interest, discount, and their applications; interest on accounts current in its different methods.

Commercial knowledge and accounting-room work.—The theoretical part embraces the rules of commerce in general and its branches; the trades directly connected with commerce and its auxiliary institutions; the objects of commerce and their classification according to customary usage; the most important facts relating to weights and measures, as well as the science of money and exchange; finally, the position of merchants in relation to one another as well as to society.

The practical part is devoted to the methods of preparing notes, accounts, invoices, bills of sale, bills of cost, announcements of receipt of goods, exchange accounts current, etc.; finally, the different methods of bookkeeping with errors in quantity, which are applied exclusively in a business period of one month. Three hours per week.

Physics.—Introduction, general characteristics, forces, and laws. Heat, essence of the same and its sources; the three principal modes of diffusion of heat and their application. Magnetism: Explanation and fundamental phenomena; earth magnetism; production of magnets, their strength and application. Electricity and effects of accumulated electricity; origin of the electrical current; cables and batteries; strength of the electrical current and effects of the same. Principal phenomena of thermo-electricity, thermo-electrical columns, and their use. Acoustics: Origin of sound, forms of the same; tone, musical note, pitch of tone, the musical scale, temperament, most important sound producers, resonance, loudness of a sound, transmission of sound. Mechanics: (*a*) Laws of equilibrium; center of gravity; modes of rest; active and passive resistance; simple machines and their uses. Laws of motion, of percussion, of freely falling bodies, of projectiles, of pendulums; center of motion. (*b*) Fundamental characteristics of liquids; laws of equal transmission of pressure, of pressure on the bottom and side pressure; of communication and its use. Law of Archimedes; laws of the rapidity of discharge and quantity discharged. (*c*) Fundamental characteristics of gases; atmospheric pressure and its uses; Mariotte's laws; diffusion; absorption; endosmosis of gases; motion of gases and its use.

Natural history.—Natural history of the three kingdoms, with special attention to such portions as are necessary to enable one to recognize and test the raw material of the world's commerce. Two hours per week.

Penmanship.—German, English, and French handwriting. Two hours per week.

SECOND YEAR'S COURSE IN THE ACADEMY.

German.—The study of the forms of poetry in connection with the selections for reading. Most important works of German literature up to Gottsched's death. Practice in reading and speaking. Every three weeks a written composition composed alternately at home and at school. Two hours per week.

French.—The most important rules of syntax, together with the oral and written exercises belonging thereto. Readings, explanations, and memorizing business letters. Easy compositions and business letters, modeled after the previously explained selections. Increasing the stock of phrases and the vocabulary. Every three weeks set tasks assigned to be done alternately at home and at school. Three hours per week.

English or Italian.—Review and a further study of the etymology; thorough treatment of syntax, together with the oral and written exercises belonging thereto.

Readings in narrative, descriptive, and epistolary prose, this last with special attention to a business style. Instruction introductory to the composition of simple business letters. Increase of the stock of phrases and words. Practice in talking. Work assigned to be done alternately at home and at school every three weeks. Three hours per week.

Commercial geography.—Commercial geography of Holland, the three Scandinavian kingdoms, England, Belgium, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy (including their colonies). Details as in the first year. Three hours per week.

History.—History of the Middle Ages since Charlemagne, and modern history to the peace of Westphalia, with history in detail of Austria-Hungary. Two hours per week.

Mathematics.—Algebra: Logarithms, use of logarithmic tables, solution of simple exponential equations. Arithmetical and geometrical progression.

Geometry.—Computation of the contents of solids. Every two weeks a task assigned to be done at home; every four weeks a similar task assigned to be done at school. Three hours per week.

Commercial arithmetic.—Computation of gold, silver, and coin; computation of exchange according to Vienna custom; computation of stocks, bonds, etc., according to the manner of the different countries, giving special attention to those cities which quote Austro-Hungarian paper. Three hours per week.

Bookkeeping.—Instruction as to the manner of making out different bookkeeping forms, showing mistakes as to quantity and value. Booking of business transactions, mercantile, bank, and commission business, covering a period of several months. These are booked according to the different methods, and all letters and counting-room memoranda are carefully studied. Four hours per week.

Correspondence.—Letters relating to mercantile, consignment, and commission business; letters relating to insurance and forwarding affairs, making over notes, attachments, descriptions of goods, price current, market, and weekly reports. Letters relating to exchange, drawing bills of exchange on one's own and another's account, transmitting drafts for acceptance, disposition of bills payable, remittances of money and bills, process of protesting, collateral acceptance, account of reexchanges, commission business in notes, bills, etc., lost bill of exchange, bills of exchange and sending coin, payments, bank note, treasury bill, notes on mortgage banks, checks, abatements, transfers; letters relating to partnership and bank business; letters of inquiry, of notice and dunning letters; circular letters; letters of credit, written offers, advertisements, contracts, power of attorney; letters on affairs in law and bankruptcy. Two hours per week.

Laws relating to bill transactions and to commerce.

Laws relating to bills of exchange.—(*a*) Introduction: Technical side of banking and exchange; explanation of technical expressions; sketch of the history of exchange, and of the laws relating thereto.

(*b*) Code relating to bills of exchange: The right to sign bills of exchange; drawn bills of exchange (drafts); requirements for the same; duty of the drawer; indorsement; presentation for acceptance; acceptance; claims against the security; discharging a bill obligation; recourse in case of nonpayment; honor acceptance (collateral acceptance); duplicate bills; copies of bills; mislaid bills; counterfeit bills; prescription of bills; right to bring action on part of the creditor; requirements of protest; time and place for the various transactions in commercial bills, insufficient signatures; relation to foreign laws; bills drawn on one's self. Special care is taken to illustrate the existing laws relating to bills of exchange by means of practical cases taken from everyday commerce.

(*c*) Regulations relating to stamping bills.

(*d*) Fundamental laws of legal processes concerning bills of exchange. Difference between the recent Hungarian and Austrian laws relating to bills of exchange.

Commercial law.—Introduction: The necessary elementary economical ideas, especially to concept of property, economy, commerce, products, merchant, history of the commercial law of Austria, the origin of a common German commercial code. Commercial code. Facts pertaining to the profession of merchants; what constitutes a merchant, and the branches into which merchants are divided; commercial register; commercial records; authorized agents and managers; assistants; brokers. Two hours per week.

Chemistry.—First semester, inorganic chemistry; second semester, organic chemistry. General view of the most important elements and their combinations, devoting as little time as possible to the purely theoretical, but giving special attention to those elements and their combinations which have an extensive application in practical life. Three hours per week.

Practical exercises in the chemial laboratory.—The participants in these exercises are instructed in qualitative chemical analysis during the first year; in the second year

quantitative analysis (atomic weights and measures). The aim of the first year's instruction is to secure exactness in the qualitative analysis of the most important minerals and inorganic commercial products.

Study of commercial products.—Introduction. Classification.

(*a*) Inorganic (mineral) products: Gems, material for sculptors, carvers (meerschaum), grinders and polishers. Fuels from fossilized matter and similar products (phytogeny), metallic products produced mechanically.

(*b*) Organic products: Explanation of the methods of investigation. Microscopy; vegetable material; organic (possessing structure). Entire plants and their parts, as leaves, tops, flowers, fruit, and seeds (starch, dextrin, sugar, woods); bark, fiber (spun fabrics, woven fabrics, paper); paying attention to their use as foods, drinks, spices, coloring matter, and matter containing tanning material or other material used in the arts. Two hours per week.

THIRD YEAR'S COURSE OF THE ACADEMY.

German.—Readings and explanations of certain selections from the principal poetical and prose works of our classical and modern poets in connection with literary and biographical sketches. Exercises in delivery. Once in four weeks a written composition. Two hours per week.

French.—Extending and supplementing the syntactical knowledge. Brief review of the entire grammar, partly in the French language. Readings from the best specimens of French prose and poetry, with statement of contents and explanations in French. Memorizing model business letters and reading selections. Composition of business letters and comparatively long, independent essays. Every three weeks alternate home and school tasks are assigned. Three hours per week.

English or Italian.—Brief review of the entire grammar, partly in English (or Italian). Readings from standard selections of prose and poetry, with statement of contents and explanations in English (or Italian). Memorizing of business letters and certain model literary selections. Practice in writing business letters and independent compositions. Alternate home and school tasks every three weeks. Three hours per week.

Commercial geography and statistics.—Commercial geography of Turkey and the Levant, of Russia, of the United States of America, of Mexico, of Brazil, of the States of the La Plata, of Chile, of China, and Japan. (Details as in the first year's course.) Geographical statistical survey of the world's commerce and its principal routes at the present time. Two hours per week.

General and commercial history.—History of the European countries from 1648 to the present. Commercial history from the earliest times to the present. Two hours per week.

Commercial arithmetic.—Computation of commercial paper of the most important European and transmarine centers of commerce, arbitration, bills of exchange, stocks, etc. Review of the entire subject. Three hours per week.

Political arithmetic.—Compound interest and computation of incomes from funded property. Introduction to the calculation of loans; construction of sinking-fund plan; lottery loans; the elements of the computation of probabilities; computation of life annuities, and claims on estates in expectancy. Income from life insurance (widows' pensions); insurance of capital. Two hours per week.

Knowledge of international commerce.—The produce exchanges, their origin, divisions and organization; produce broker; legitimate exchange business and the exchange boards of arbitration. The systems of weights and measures used in international commerce and trade; the laws regulating the system of weights and measures; the metric, English, Russian and Chinese systems of weights and measures, and their position in the world's commerce. Condition of weights and measures in the Orient. Measure of quality used in the international grain trade; measure of quality used in the international yarn and silk trade (yarn numbering and silk titration); determination of quantity in the spirit trade; units of measurements; the condition of the money standard, and the quotation of bills of exchange and currency quotations of the most important transmarine cities.

Forwarding goods in international trade.

Railways and river boats.—The rules of management; railroad rates; method of fixing the tariff on goods; classification of goods in Austria-Hungary, Germany, and France; international alliances; international service and the various papers relating thereto.

Sea navigation.—Registration; measuring and classification of merchant vessels; the manifest book and bill of lading; the consignment; the charter party; tonnage of ships; fixing tariffs on goods; the steamship societies which are important for Austria-Hungary, their lines and tariffs; the most important facts relating to mercantile insurance.

Ordinary conditions of sale; price quotations of the most important articles in international trade, namely, grain, flour, oil grain (linseed), spirits, petroleum, cotton, coffee, and sugar; explanation and computation of equivalent prices on the basis of the quotations on the world's market, and the construction of tables of equivalent prices; deductions on exports and imports, illustrated by a series of examples taken from actual practice.

Accounting and correspondence (model counting room).—Complete execution of a set of books in mercantile, commission, forwarding, manufacturing, and banking business. Bookkeeping in stock companies, together with all necessary vouchers; comparative bookkeeping, especially in respect to mistakes in quantity and value. Five hours per week.

Laws relating to commerce and industry.—Continuation of commercial law, partnerships in commercial law, the study of partnerships (open commercial partnerships, limited partnerships, limited joint stock companies, stock companies, limited liability partnerships, joint partnerships). The theory of mercantile trade and at the same time a discussion of the fundamental principles of civil rights, especially the rules for winding up a business and for settling commercial transactions; of giving securities, especially a mortgage or lien. Further, the study of indorsable paper; purchasing; commission; forwarding and freight business (the last, in general, but specially with respect to railways).

The regulation relating to trade, of December 10, 1859, together with all additions. Law relating to charters; law protecting trade-marks and patents; law relating to peddlers; laws relating to chambers of commerce, also mercantile agents; law concerning industrial and cooperative societies; laws and regulations concerning dealing in promissory notes, and warehouse laws.

General rules relating to insolvency proceedings, and especially the theory of mercantile insolvency and compulsory settlement voted by a majority of creditors. Two hours per week.

Political economy.—History of the systems of political economy. Importance of the same and explanation of their fundamental principles.

The production of wealth: (*a*) In general; (*b*) factors in production (nature, labor, capital); (*c*) cooperation of the factors in production.

The distribution of wealth: (*a*) Inequality of the distribution (socialism, communism); (*b*) income and its sources (rent, wages, interest).

Circulation of wealth: (*a*) In general (exchange value and price); (*b*) money (the money standard); (*c*) credit and its aids (bills, checks, money orders, paper money); different kinds of banks, clearing houses; (*d*) means of transportation.

Consumption of wealth, luxury, influence of Government on the national economy: (*a*) Means for furthering production in general, the question of associations; (*b*) various forms of production; mining, smelting, agriculture, tree culture, manufacturing, factory laws, commerce, railroad and custom questions; (*c*) population and care of the poor; (*d*) taxes and national debt, especially the theory and history of financial crises. Three hours per week.

Study of products.

Vegetable substances (without structure): Gum, rosins, balsams, volatile oils, fats, waxes, vegetable milk and extracts.

Animal substances: Whole animals; milk and its products; hide and its parts (leather, hair [as animal covering] in comparison with silk, articles spun and woven from hair, wool, etc., feathers, scales, horn, tortoise shell, whalebone); bones (glue in comparison with isinglass), tusks (ivory tusks of the walrus, hippopotamus, and narwhal); fat and its products (soap); the substances produced and secreted in the animal body or substances out of which other products are made (musk, ambergris, castoreum, civet, silk, wax, guano, honey); pearls and mother-of-pearl, corals, sponges.

The material above sketched is treated on a strictly scientific basis, having regard to the practical use to be made of the knowledge thus acquired, and the characteristics of the most important objects in the world's commerce and in local trade are discussed in a comparative manner by inspection of the natural products by the aid of table work and microscopical preparations. Two hours per week.

C.—PREPARATORY CLASS.

In order to make it possible for those pupils to attend the academy who have not taken the studies required for entrance to the three years' course, the imperial ministry for religion and instruction has permitted a preparatory class to be organized in connection with the Commercial Academy, which has, however, the character of a private course. According to the decree of the imperial ministry for religion and instruction of July, 1877 (Z. 10194), every pupil who has passed his thirteenth birth-

day may be admitted to this preparatory class, if the managers of the Commercial Academy find him to be properly qualified.

The pupils of the preparatory class receive no certificate, but at the close of the second semester they must pass the examination required for entrance to the first year's course of the Commercial Academy. The pupils receive from the managers of the academy a statement of the result of this examination.

Roster.	Hours per week.	Roster.	Hours per week.
German	5	Physics	3
French	4	Natural history	3
Geography	3	Penmanship	2
History	3		
Common and special arithmetic	5	Total	28

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.

German.—Recapitulation of the grammar (inflection, parts of speech, formation of words, syntax); orthography and punctuation. Compositions on the most important events at school and on a future career; theory of style. Exercises in reading and declamation; grammatical and exegetical explanation of the selections read. Every two weeks a school task is assigned, and every three weeks a home task. Discussion and criticism of the latter. Five hours a week.

French.—Elementary grammar. Dictations and readings. Acquiring of an adequate stock of words and phrases. Home and school tasks alternating every two weeks. Four hours per week.

Geography.—Main features of general geography of the five continents, based on a careful study of the maps. Three hours per week.

History.—First semester: Sketches from the history of their own country from its beginning to the close of the wars of independence. Second semester: Narrations from the life of the people of ancient times, with special reference to the legendary history of the Greeks. Three hours per week.

Mathematics.—Particular arithmetic. Explanation of the decimal system of numbers. The four fundamental operations in integers and decimal fractions, with the use of practical applications of short methods. Short methods of multiplication and division. Divisibility of numbers; greatest common divisor; least common multiple; common fractions, and computation with the same. Geometrical relations and proportions and their applications to problems of practical life. Chain rule. Algebra. The idea of common numbers and their relation to one another. Positive and negative numbers. The four fundamental operations with universal, whole, and fractional numbers. Equations of the first degree having one unknown quantity. Every two weeks a home task; every four weeks a school task. Five hours per week.

Physics.—Introduction. Resultant of several forces. Cohesion. Electricity. Magnetism. Acoustics. Statics and dynamics of solids, liquids, and gases. Optics. Three hours per week.

Natural history.—General natural history of the three kingdoms. Three hours per week.

Penmanship.—The ordinary German and English hand. Two hours per week.

We turn now to the collections of the academy, and to those institutes which were established in order to supplement the theoretical instruction by practical exercises, and thus to render more easy the passage of the pupils of the school into practical life.

Collection of coins.—This collection was begun upon the initiative of the present director, and contains all the current coins, domestic and foreign, arranged by States. It is a great aid to instruction in mercantile subjects.

Physical laboratory.—Instruction in physics is given in a special room assigned for this purpose. The apparatus belonging to the physical laboratory has cost, up to the present, over 6,000 florins, and includes the most necessary instruments for purposes of experimentation and illustration.

Chemical laboratory.—Chemistry and the knowledge of commercial products open to the pupils an understanding of the technico-commercial branches. On this account great emphasis has been laid on this study from the beginning of the academy, owing to its relation to the manufacturing classes. The chemical laboratory has been several times enlarged, and includes not only lecture rooms, but also several working rooms, which have all the equipment necessary for accurate organic analyses. The laboratory has a large special library and a rich collection of preparations and apparatus which are used for illustration in the lectures. It not only affords the

pupils means for practical work, but also an opportunity to the director of the laboratory for original investigation in every direction. The practical exercises are attended yearly by from 20 to 25 pupils.

The origin of the collection of commercial products dates from the first years of the academy. There was also a natural-history collection corresponding to the wants of the preparatory classes of that period. Both collections were annually increased, but remained entirely separate until instruction in these two departments was intrusted to the same professor, when the collections were united. The instruction in commercial products was greatly expanded by the introduction of practical exercises. These exercises are attended by pupils of all three classes and of the graduate course also. They take place in a special laboratory for the testing of commercial products, which is well equipped with the necessary apparatus, including microscopes, saccharometers, etc.

The combined collections for natural history and commercial products are divided into three groups: The collections for instruction in natural history and commercial products; second, the collection for practical work in the commercial-product laboratory (reports are made each year from these practical exercises), and, third, the museum of products.

This museum was begun at the initiative of the present director in the year 1885. It is located in the large hall, second story front, and in the room immediately connected with it. The museum has a double purpose: To aid instruction in commercial products in the academy and to promote a general knowledge of such products in the public at large. The collection is therefore open not only to pupils, but also to the general public. The specialty of this museum is the collection of adulterations of products, and it is not impossible that a considerable influence may be exercised from this laboratory upon the trade in adulterated products. The museum of products embraces about 4,000 numbers and 30 groups. For the completion of the same the administrative council has given 1,000 florins a year for the past three years.

It is also to be noted that in the programme of instruction in the knowledge of commercial products belongs a system of visits to collections and factories, which the pupils make under the guidance of instructors. All the pupils of the academy take part in those excursions which occur in Vienna, but in the long trip which is made each year at Easter time, and which extended in 1887 to Strasburg, a limited number of pupils only can be included.

Geographical cabinet.—This cabinet is one of the most comprehensive in this special department. It includes 170 wall maps and a large collection of casts and representations of geographical and ethnographical objects.

Collection to illustrate the history of art.—This collection has just been begun; its function is to supplement instruction in history and the history of literature, in order to compensate as far as possible for the rather meager number of hours assigned to these subjects in the programme.

Library.—The collection of books at the Vienna Commercial Academy embraced, at the close of the school year 1886-87, 5,298 volumes. It is divided into two divisions, the professional library for the pupils and the general library. The latter includes important collections used as reference libraries in the individual departments of instruction. The professional library for pupils was established in order to give them the necessary aids for further study and for the essays which they must prepare. All works of merely an amusing or entertaining character are excluded from this collection.

The traveling scholarship fund.—The intermediate school has completed its function at the time when it gives the graduate his final certificate. But the professional school can not avoid extending its work beyond this period and serving as an organ of communication between the young men who have completed its curriculum and those people who desire young men with such training. In this respect the Vienna Commercial Academy has from the beginning done everything it could, and it has been in the happy situation of being able to secure for its graduates good positions not only at home but also abroad. This last circumstance is of great importance to the foreign commerce of our country. Ever since the days of Maria Theresa complaints have been made continually that the monarchy has had very few national commercial houses in foreign countries, and yet these are the chief means of enlarging the economic territory of the State. To obtain these, however, it is absolutely necessary that the citizens of the country enter business in foreign ports and thus learn to know foreign countries thoroughly. Now, there are probably many young men who possess the necessary training, but oftentimes they are not in the place where they are most necessary, and still oftener are not in a social position to learn commercial centers in every detail and to exercise an active influence in favor of the national trade.

In order to assist young merchants who have had a certain practical experience to make a careful study of foreign centers of trade, the present director of the academy proposed in a general assembly of the association of the Vienna Commercial Academy,

held on December 8, 1885, the establishment of a special traveling scholarship fund. This proposition was received with warm approval. His Majesty the Emperor gave the first subscription of 5,000 florins to this fund. His example was followed by Prince John of Lichtenstein and a number of prominent merchants and manufacturers and various commercial institutes. The director succeeded in raising for this purpose the sum of 60,000 florins. The list of the various subscribers and the regulations for the scholarships are to be found in the report of the proceedings of the administrative council, made December 12, 1886. In April, 1887, the administrative council decided to assign two scholarships of the value of 1,500 florins each, one to Salonichi and one for Barcelona. In September, 1887, both were assigned. The conditions of these scholarships are completion of the Vienna Commercial Academy with distinction and at least three years' successful practical work at home and abroad.

It remains now, in order to complete this account, to give some of the more important data relating to the school. The total attendance at the Vienna Commercial Academy, since its establishment in 1858 to the year 1888, inclusive, was 16,906 students. It is of interest to note how many students have completed the course of study and obtained the certificate of graduation. It appears that in the first period, 1858 to 1872, there were 1,714 graduates; second period, 1873 to 1877, there were 1,262 graduates; third period, 1878 to 1888, there were 2,168 graduates, making a total of 5,144 in the thirty years of the life of the academy. The success of the instruction has been a very satisfactory one, and in this connection it is important to note that the report of the management to the ministry of education, rendered each year since the beginning of the third period, has been uniformly accepted as eminently satisfactory.

The graduates of the academy have always found employment very quickly, whether at home or abroad. Former students of the academy are to be found in all the larger centers of trade in Germany, Switzerland, France, England, and Belgium, as well as in the leading States of North and South America. At the present time there are forty foundations or scholarships established by the founders in accordance with the provision noted above. There is one Imperial scholarship of a yearly value of 300 florins, and two scholarships named after Czedik of 126 florins each. The assistance fund, established for worthy poor students, amounted on June 15, 1887, to 7,061.73 florins, and aid was granted in the school year 1887, in cash, to the extent of 683.11 florins; in paper, pencils, etc., to the extent of 246 florins; in text-books, to the extent of 290.63 florins; in traveling expenses, to the extent of 370 florins. The students contributed to this fund 920.25 florins. The president of the society for assisting poor students, which has charge of the fund, is the director of the academy ex officio. The executive committee consists of two professors, chosen by the instructing body, and a general committee of two from each division, chosen by the students.

The association of the Vienna Commercial Academy had received, from its foundation up to 1887, from its members, contributions to the amount of 530,642.22 florins; of this amount the State granted 40,950 florins, the city of Vienna 31,500 florins. The State made its appropriation in the form of establishing, through the ministry of religion and instruction and the ministry of finance, one scholarship (3,150 florins) a year for a series of years. In consequence, the ministry for religion and instruction controls at present seven scholarships and the ministry of finance six.

Of this amount, 452,110.15 florins were used for the purchase of the ground and the erection of the building of the academy, and to cover the deficit of the early years, including also 27,000 florins assigned to the pension fund established in 1873. The rest of the sum constitutes the academy fund, which, according to the balance of August 31, 1886, amounted to 159,693.80 florins.[1]

The current expenses of the academy since its establishment amount to nearly 2,000,000 florins and was covered entirely by the tuition of pupils. The income of the institution from tuition and incidental fees from 1878 to 1887 amounted to nearly 900,000 florins.

The administrative council of the Vienna Commercial Academy has, however, uniformly observed the principle that the worthy pupil, though poor, should be enabled to attend this school. It grants, therefore, every school year to a considerable number of pupils either entire or partial remission of tuition. These remissions represented down to August 31, 1887, the considerable sum of 280,485 florins.

The preliminary budget for the year 1886 showed the following estimate:

	Florins.
Salaries	58,985
Administration	6,000
General expenses	13,200
Pension	4,145
Incidentals	3,950
Total	87,280

[1] The 30th of September, 1877, at the beginning of the third period, there was still a mortgage upon the academy building of 15,000 florins, and no cash fund.

The Vienna Commercial Academy possesses, since 1873, its own pension fund, which is managed by a separate committee. To this fund the regularly appointed professors contribute the same rates as in the case of public educational institutions, as the provisions adopted by the State for similar pensions have been accepted as the rule for this fund. Besides this, the general assembly grants yearly a very considerable sum to this fund from its surplus income. On August 31, 1886, this fund amounted to 144,314.46 florins, and the pensions payable amounted to 4,074.96 florins. In the general assembly of December 12, 1886, 5,000 florins were granted to this fund.

The Vienna Commercial Academy is located in its own building, which was formally opened on the 12th of October, 1862. It embraces an area of 1,953 square meters. Its principal front is 60 meters long; its two side fronts 31 meters each. The building is two stories high. It cost, as noted above, 452,110.15 florins. As divided at present, it embraces 15 lecture rooms, the museum of commercial products, the laboratories for chemistry and commercial products, the physical, geographical, and natural history halls, 2 libraries, 2 faculty rooms, the office of the management and various small offices, and the residence of the director and 3 servants, and has accommodation for 800 students. The arrangements for heat are so fixed that the vestibules, the great stairway, and the large corridors are warmed throughout. Water is also furnished throughout the building. The heating costs per year from 1,400 to 1,500 florins; gas from 1,600 to 1,700 florins.

We might finally mention that the Vienna Commercial Academy has the largest attendance of similar commercial schools in Austria, Germany, and France, and that of late years the management has been repeatedly requested to give detailed information to foreign governments as to the arrangements and organization of this school. The school also received the highest distinction at the Vienna World's Fair in the year 1873.

LATER STATISTICS.

Certain facts relating to the attendance at the various courses will undoubtedly be of interest in this connection.

The one-year course for graduates of the gymnasia and real schools had an enrollment in 1889 of 115 pupils; in 1890, of 105 pupils; and in 1891, of 115 pupils.

Of these there were:

Year.	Catholics.	Protestants.	Greeks.	Jews.	Total.
1889	47	12	6	50	115
1890	44	10	2	49	105
1891	39	13	7	56	115

AGE OF STUDENTS.

Age.	1889.	1890.	1891.	Age.	1889.	1890.	1891.
16	.....	.....	1	21	24	11	13
17	.....	.....	19	22	10	13	10
18	10	12	30	23	8	6	3
19	17	19	15	24	4	4	.....
20	34	27	17	25 and over	8	13	7

Students came from all the leading provinces of Austria and 11 of them from foreign countries.

In 1889, 73 of the students were Germans, 22 were Poles, 11 were Hungarians, and the others of various other nationalities.

The other two years do not show any considerable variation from this year.

It will be noted that the large majority of the students were in these years over 18 years of age, and in the first two years over half were over 20.

Three-year course in the academy.

NUMBER IN CLASSES.

Year.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	Total.
1889	275	210	176	661
1890	264	225	182	671
1891	230	220	188	638

In 1889 there were 661 pupils on the rolls at the end of the year; in 1890 there were 671; and in 1891 there were 638.

Of these there were:

Year.	Catholics.	Protestants.	Greeks.	Jews.	Unclassed.
1889	310	30	10	311	1
1890	305	33	17	315	.....
1891	283	43	11	301	.....

AGE OF STUDENTS.

Age.	1889.	1890.	1891	Age.	1889.	1890.	1891.
14	24	20	11	19	47	59	45
15	116	112	78	20	15	5	14
16	161	183	187	21	3	3	2
17	178	178	171	22	1	.....	.....
18	116	120	130				

During these three years only 1 student succeeded in reaching the third year of the course at an age less than 16; and only 1 student had succeeded in reaching the second year's course at an age less than 15. Only one-fifth of the students in the academy in 1889 were under 16 years of age; about the same ratio held for 1890, and in 1891 less than one-seventh were under 16. The average age of the pupils appears then to be from 16 to 19.

The association for aiding indigent and worthy students seems to do very real service.

In 1889 it granted 922 florins in cash to various students; 270 florins in supplies; 218 florins in books; 500 florins in traveling expenses.

The association granted in 1890 to various students 898 florins in cash; 302 florins in supplies; 117 florins in books; 400 florins in traveling expenses.

The association granted in 1891 to various students 1,041 florins in cash; 270 florins in supplies; 119 florins in books; 502 florins in traveling expenses.

Faculty.	Subjects.
Director.	
Dr. Rudolf Sonndorfer	Political arithmetic and international trade.
Professors.	
Heinrich Binn	Mercantile arithmetic, international trade, and office work.
Eduard Bittner	Commercial arithmetic, international trade, and office work.
Dr. Max Borowsky	Physics.
Dr. Theodor Cicalek	German, commercial geography, and statistics.
Karl Engelhard	Stenography.
Dr. Otto Franckel	Commercial law.
Eduard Hanausek	Study of products, natural history.
Johann Hann	Mathematics, political arithmetic.
Dr. Karl Hassack	Natural history.
Paul Hertzog	French.
Charles Hurt	English.
Rudolf Kathrein	Mercantile arithmetic.
Anton Kleibel	Bookkeeping and correspondence.
Dr. Richard Mayr	German and history.
Dr. jur Robert Meyer	Political economy.
D. Karl Rausch	German and history.
Camillo Sandré	French.
Rudolf Schiller	Mercantile arithmetic and bookkeeping.
Adrian Schuster	Bookkeeping and correspondence.
Nicolaus Teclu	Chemistry.
Dr. Theodor Theumann	Commercial law.
Dr. Philipp Zamboni	Italian.
Dr. Karl Zehden	Commercial geography and statistics.
Instructors.	
Dr. Thomas Fr. Hanausek	Study of products.
Karl Hessler	Insurance.
Franz Holzer	Insurance tariff.

Faculty.	Subjects.
Assistants.	
Leopold Bageard	French.
Dr. Julius Dostal	German.
Florence Henry Hedley	English.
Dr. Goorg Karschulin	German and commercial geography.
Julius Melnitzky	Penmanship.
Karl Müller	Mathematics.
Dr. Julius Ritter Roschmann von Hörburg.	Political economy.
Subassistants.	
Heinrich Eisenkolb	Commercial subjects.
Karl Kunczitzky	Stenography.

Making a total of 1 director, 23 professors, 3 instructors, 7 assistants, and 2 subassistants; total, 36.

2.—COMMERCIAL ACADEMY OF PRAGUE.

The foundation of the institution.[1]—It is a strange fact that the very class which occupies to-day by its activity and wealth the most prominent place in our society has been neglected almost altogether by the governments of the various States in regard to the professional training of its members. There are gymnasia for the training of the future scholar and public official, and real schools and polytechnic institutions for the technologist. The forester, the miner, the soldier, the sailor, all have their own technical schools, but the future merchant has had to content himself with the gymnasium or the real school. Was the reason for this to be found in the fact that the merchant needs no special preliminary training for his calling? That the special branches of knowledge appropriate to his vocation are really only facilities which the school is not able to give him; things of subordinate importance which he can easily acquire for himself by private activity and practical work? It would almost seem so; and it may be that this view was not unjustifiable in earlier times, but the present makes new demands upon the merchant if he wishes to rise above the limited sphere of the small shopkeeper. He needs a greater amount of training and knowledge if he is to keep pace with the times and to occupy that place in social and economic life to which he is entitled. But where shall he obtain this training?

There is no doubt that existing educational institutions are not adequate to supply this want. The solid training of the gymnasium has its great advantages, and many a merchant of to-day selects his assistants rather from the ranks of the graduates of the gymnasium than from those of the real schools. But the gymnasium can not, of course, insert the purely commercial branches of instruction into its curriculum, and consequently it does not appear to be at all satisfactory as a preparatory school for the commercial career. The real schools would seem to be somewhat nearer, but these schools furnished a training more suitable for the manufacturer and the technologist than for the merchant, and until very lately, especially in Austria, they excluded from these schools the important element of modern languages. The purely commercial branches also are either very inadequately or are not at all represented in their curriculum. The attempt has been made here and there to unite special commercial courses with the real schools. But this is only piecework, and can be justified only where it is impossible to establish independent commercial schools. For the place of the professional school can not be even approximately supplied in this way.

At the time when the thought of the establishment of the commercial school appeared for the first time in Prague the various public educational institutions were far less perfect than to-day. The unsatisfactory condition of things had been recognized first in Germany, and it was the Leipzig Merchant Guild which took the first step toward the remedy. It established in the year 1831 a commercial institute, whose organization by Schiebe remained for a long time in a certain sense the model for the similar establishments organized later throughout central Germany.

About the same time the need for a special commercial school was felt in Prague. Mr. Johann Bachheibl, a member of the commercial council from 1831 to 1840, was the first to take up the matter, and to urge upon his colleagues the desirability of such an establishment. But many hindrances, especially the unfavorable conditions of the time, prevented them from carrying out the idea. It was not until the year 1849 that the first real step toward such an institution was taken.

[1] Cp. Die Prager Handelsakademie von ihrer Gründung bis zur Gegenwart (1856–1873), Gedenkschrift aus Anlass der Wiener Weltausstellung. Page 4 and following.

The president of the commercial council in that year, Mr. Josef Halla, and a member of the corporation, Mr. Edward Pleschner, took up the idea with energy, for the need of such an institution was more and more keenly felt every day. The commercial council appointed a committee to obtain the necessary financial means, and in March, 1849, the committee published the following address to the merchants of Bohemia:

"The establishment of a commercial school in the capital city of Bohemia, a land where such a many-sided industry and trade flourish, has been a long-felt want. But it was not possible, under previous conditions, to establish this institute so necessary and advantageous for our youth. It remains further our honorable task by uniting all the necessary intelligent and pecuniary means to establish and develop a commercial institute. It appears superfluous to dwell upon the advantage of such an institution. Everyone of us reognizes how necessary to our prosperity is the regular and systematic training of our youth. We have been obliged up to the present to seek such a training for our sons in foreign countries, at the cost of much money and great anxiety. In the future we should find this at home. We all recognize, moreover, how greatly such a theoretical course would aid our young people when they go into practical life, and how much more useful they are to us when they have enjoyed the training of such an institution. The commercial council, inspired with this conviction, has, therefore, resolved to establish such an institution. It proposes to cover the expenses in part by the use of its own capital, and in part by the contributions of founding and contributing members. We send, therefore, an earnest invitation to all members of the commercial and manufacturing classes of Bohemia to assist in the establishment of this useful institution, and by cooperative effort to leave this honorable memorial to our posterity. The commercial council has appointed a committee, which is not only to take charge of the new school, but to work out a curriculum upon the plan of the best existing commercial schools. The council has resolved further to make provision so that the apprentices in our shops, who are not able to enter the school regularly, may obtain instruction in the practical knowledge relating to commerce from the teachers in this institute. In this arrangement we rely upon the humanity of our colleagues to assist us by sending regularly their apprentices, and prove in this way that they, as well as we, desire the training of useful and skillful clerks, and that in this way the value of this sort of instruction may be fully recognized."

In answer to this invitation 12,000 florins were subscribed within a short time. As this sum, however, was not sufficient for the establishment of a higher commercial institute, the council resolved to organize a Sunday school for commercial branches. Steps were immediately taken to carry this resolution into effect. The school was opened on the 19th of April, 1850, on the birthday of the Emperor. Rooms were obtained for it in the Polytechnic Institute.

This Sunday school, however, was intended only as a transition institute to the higher commercial school which was the end and aim of the efforts of the council. The year 1851 brought a decisive turn in favor of the establishment of such an institution. In that year a man was chosen as presiding officer of the commercial council who possessed in himself all the qualities which were necessary to secure the realization of the plan above mentioned.

Mr. Edward Pleschner, the new president, devoted his attention in the first place to increasing the endowment fund, and to overcoming the prejudices and objections against the project, which showed themselves here and there. His efforts were soon crowned with success. The fund was increased by June, 1853, to 34,398 florins; by the year 1855 the fund had reached 44,211 florins. The necessary financial means had thus been provided.

There were many different views as to the manner in which the project should be carried out. Some favored the acquisition of a separate school building and the union of the Sunday school with the proposed academy. Others proposed that the Sunday school for commercial branches should be expanded so that instruction should be given on one week day, and that this should be gradually extended by the addition of new subjects of instruction. A third party, under the lead of the president, wished to establish an independent higher commercial school, and this view was finally adopted. On the 18th of October a final decision was made, and the commercial council unanimously voted for the establishment of the independent commercial institute.

The next effort of the council was devoted to the acquisition of a building, which was purchased shortly after for the sum of 58,542 florins. On the 13th of December, 1855, the council held its first meeting in the halls of the school.

On the 3d of October preceding the council had presented a petition to Count Leo Luhn, minister of religion and education, in which they expressed the conviction that the commercial classes, on account of the important position which they occupied from an economic and social point of view among the other classes in society, needed not only thorough professional knowledge, but also a higher general

training, and asked that the minister might permit the commercial council to establish within the walls of Prague a new kind of institute, the like of which had not yet been established in Austria.

The proposed curriculum included in the memorial embraced the following subjects:

1. German language and literature.
2. French, English, and Italian.
3. Mathematics and commercial arithmetic.
4. Commercial and maritime law, and the law relating to promissory notes.
5. Political economy.
6. Geography, history, and statistics.
7. Natural history and physics.
8. Chemistry.
9. Drawing and penmanship.
10. Practical bookkeeping and correspondence.

These subjects were selected in order that the pupil might be ready immediately upon leaving the academy to enter practical commercial work.

Until the permission of the Government was obtained the committee occupied itself with the necessary preparations. It issued a circular letter to business men and manufacturers of Bohemia, in which it requested the donation of suitable material for the museums and other collections. From all parts of the country specimens of raw materials and manufactures of every sort, natural history specimens and books poured in in such quantities that it would be difficult to find a similar wealth of collections in any other German commercial school.

On the 4th of March, 1856, the committee received permission to proceed with the opening and organization of the school, and the time for opening the school was set for the autumn of 1856. After the election of Mr. Karl Arenz, of Dusseldorf, as director of the institute, it was opened in a formal manner on the 4th of October, 1856. The following quotations from the inaugural address of the director are of general interest:

"The commercial schools are a product of this century. The only one whose existence dates back into the preceding century is that of Büsch, the father of German commercial schools, which had been founded by him in Hamburg in 1768, under the name of 'Commercial Academy.' The school disappeared later, leaving nothing behind it but the grateful recollection of its honorable foundation and its meritorious work. The commercial schools of to-day nearly all started about the same time, and are of the same general character. Schiebe pointed out the way in which they all thought they could prepare for the active career of the merchant. But the question as to how far these institutions were and are adapted to answer to the mighty advance of our material interests is a question which we can not further investigate on this occasion. For it is our duty to-day to consider this new institution whose opening we celebrate.

"If we ask for the reasons which have called it into existence, it is not difficult to find them. In the time of a growing tendency toward the independence of every individual and every class, the necessity of the declaration of independence on the part of educational institutions which serve the various practical needs of modern life becomes evident. Commercial institutions belong in the same category with the technical institutions in so far as they have the common purpose of promoting in the first instance the development of our material welfare, but they are distinguished from these by certain internal qualities, by the fundamental principles underlying their foundation. In the case of the former it is the mathematical and natural science training through which the technical training is accomplished. In the case of the latter, on the contrary, the thread which runs through the curriculum, coordinating and uniting its various parts, is not higher mathematics, is not natural science, but is that thorough general culture which embraces a complex of general social knowledge and experience relating to the knowledge of the earth, relating to the economic nature of its inhabitants and to one's native country. The necessity and justification of the existence of commercial schools, which met so many objections in every quarter, and which, indeed, have given rise to most serious criticisms, are to be found in the necessity of the higher scientific training of the merchant. This appears more and more imperative every day, as this alone qualifies him to work in the different branches of trade and commerce with such foresight and certainty as is rendered necessary by the advance of our social relations.

"The commercial schools must answer these demands. To use an expression of the elder Blanqui, the organizer of the oldest and most important commercial school in France: 'They must organize our trade and commerce by training and instruction.'

"I have already said that for a long time the most severe criticisms were made upon these commercial schools, and yet this has not prevented their growth and development. Men were not willing to grant them an independent standing, and yet they gave them a certain place in the polytechnic school. This declaration of

dependence was the first step toward independence. For experience has shown that this union of a commercial division with a polytechnic school was an unequal one, and very disadvantageous for commercial instruction. For, on the one hand, the natural center of gravity of commercial instruction is not to be found in such a union, and, on the other hand, it has never been able to secure, in such a combination, equal recognition with the other faculties of the polytechnic school. This explains the unsatisfactory results of such commercial courses both from a statistical and scientific standpoint. The union of technical and commercial courses leads, moreover, to what is, from a pedagogical point of view, a wrong treatment of the pupils, and this is the moral ground which compels us to urge a separation of the commercial schools from the technical institutions, and an independent organization of the former. The technical institutes accomplish excellent results in their own sphere, but the very excellence of this work means injury to the commercial side.

"The merchant, since he belongs to the higher classes of society, must receive such a training in the school as will fit him to maintain his position. This school must be for him a technical or professional training school. It stands in the midst of all the other technical and professional schools, and utilizes them all. It has peculiar characteristics of its own, and must, therefore, be independent. I will not, however, dwell further upon this point of the independence of commercial schools for fear of exposing myself to the same ridicule as the learned scholar who wished to lecture to Hannibal upon the art of war.

"Let us consider for a moment the organization of commercial schools. If we wish for success, the plan of organization must not be a rigid one. It must not be for the school an iron frame which shall hold it within unchangeable limits. On the contrary, it must have regard to the very life of the institution itself, and must correspond to the demands of the ever-advancing development of trade and industry.

"If we consider the organization of the curriculum which our scheme has accepted as the basis of the higher training of the merchant, its fundamental principle appears to be the greatest possible thoroughness, and continual reference to its practical applicability. The theoretical and practical sciences must aid and supplement one another. The first formulate general laws; the latter teach their application to given material. To go from theory down to practice, and to rise from practice to theory, is, and must be, the leading principle in the organization of the commercial school. It will draw everything into the circle of its activity; it will tend to fit the merchant to occupy the position with honor and success in which he has been placed by the relations of modern society. To limit the education of the merchant to that quantity of knowledge known in ordinary life as mercantile would be to mistake his present position and his far-reaching circle of activity. The merchant is, to use the expression which the municipality of Mons employed in an address to the King of Belgium on occasion of the celebration of the constitution in July, 1856: 'He is, so to speak, the industrial center into which all the threads run, and in which social relations cross each other and unite; into which they lead; from which they again run out in order to establish new combinations, which again find their common point in this industrial center.'

"The merchant must have a broad view. He must be trained to be at home in all relations, for his activity is an ever-changing one; it knows neither time nor place; it enlivens, moves, and supports the material interests of society. Commerce embraces in its giant arms the whole world, and forces it to put all its powers at its disposal. It unites by the stroke of the pen all the countries of the world.

"The educational institution, therefore, which is destined to work out the higher training of the merchant, must, above all, take into the circle of its consideration everything which can be made useful for its purpose, and this it can do if a reasonable pedagogical plan be followed in the division and distribution of its subjects of instruction, and if we do not lose sight of the fact that the various sciences are not to be treated separately as in the various special and technical schools, and are not to be taught for their own sake. For it is perfectly plain that we can accomplish nothing in any science, which the higher commercial school takes up, if it is to be taught for itself alone. In technical schools, academies, and other higher professional institutions, the particular branches of science and the manner in which they are to be taught and utilized are determined and conditioned by the purpose in view. I need only mention chemistry, mechanics, and other practical sciences.

"Although it is true that the merchant can never be entirely separated from the manufacturer, and that the one activity continually runs into the other, yet it can not be our purpose to make of the merchant a technically trained manufacturer, a scientific technologist. They go together, it is true, but they are not identical; the polytechnic trains the latter, the higher commercial school the former, and we must leave to each institution its peculiar work. The scheme of instruction which is to train merchants must be an associative one; it must know how to present in a clear light that which is relative, in its relative relations; it must know how to create a whole out of the manifold elements in its curriculum. It must form an organism;

for the life of the educational system must be organic. In it all the various means of education must work toward a unity of result, and, therefore, the main thing in the commercial school is the unity of its curriculum. This attempt to secure a unity by the combination of many different elements has not always been successful. It is, however, the fundamental thought of this institution.

"We have included in our curriculum three classes of educational branches: First, the really technical or professional; second, those which may be included under the head of applied sciences, and third, the purely general or liberal elements. I need not dwell upon the first, for that is the narrowly technical, the so-called mercantile training; but this will become a mere dead routine if it is not supported, supplemented, and enlivened at every point by science. Clearness of vision and thorough self-control, the fundamental characteristics of the merchant, can only be acquired by science; just as a wealth of vision, freshness, vividness are to be obtained for science only from life itself. The real specific activity of the merchant is concerned with office duty, with the handling of products, and with the direction of commerce and trade. The knowledge of products considered as the combination of various kinds of knowledge necessary in dealing with commercial products is based upon natural history and chemistry, which play such an important part in the physiology of animals and plants, and has made modern mineralogy largely a chemical science. These two subjects are necessary as a means of recognizing products and of judging of their genuineness and adulteration. Technology is also an auxiliary science in the knowledge of products, for this teaches the merchant something in regard to the various branches of manufacture—spinning, weaving, etc. The knowledge of simple machines belongs also to this department. The limits of instruction in these subjects must be set by the extent of those products the knowledge of which is absolutely necessary to the merchant, and that instruction in this field must relate primarily to domestic, raw, and manufactured products is a matter of course.

"Another side of the mercantile training which is intimately related to that just discussed is the geographico-statistical. Geography and statistics are the basis of exchange in commodities. The branches which assist in directing the course of commerce are history of commerce, which teaches one the course of human civilization, and political economy based on this branch and on geography and statistics. To the narrowly mercantile training belongs also skill in arithmetic and in the various practical work belonging to the office in its various relations, also in the usages of trade and in commercial legislation, as well as fluency in the use of modern languages so far as they are commercial languages. This side of the training of the merchant must also have its center of gravity or point of combination, and this may be found in a model office, imitating an actual office; the value of which, however, it must be admitted, is often called into question. It is, however, in my opinion, so to speak, the laboratory of the future merchant, which at present is lacking in most German commercial schools, and which we must organize here.

"But besides this specifically technical training, the institution must also afford its pupils a patriotic and moral training; a training of the character, for the future position of our pupils demands more than an exclusively professional education, and nothing is more suitable to throw into their true light the well-known socialistic and communistic vagaries than correct conceptions of religion, patriotism, history, political economy, and law. One's character gains in firmness by a consideration of the truths of science; that indifference, which so often forces intellectual and material interests into the background and favors the development of moral and political weakness, must yield to determination and moral power. If we leave no intellectual power of the youth undeveloped, we may hope on the one hand that the pupil during his residence in this institution will gain besides the necessary knowledge for his future calling that enthusiasm for the practical work within it which will be a great source of encouragement during all his future life, and, on the other hand, that this enthusiasm will serve as the basis of a view of life which will maintain for the youth during his manhood an open eye and a ready hand to aid and assist the great material and ideal interests of our society.

"These, in brief, are the principles which have led me in working out the plan of organization of this institution, which already counts in the very first hour of its formal existence a greater number of pupils than any other commercial institute of the present or former times."

Thus the institution was opened, and has continued its work from that time to this, except when it was disturbed for a short time during the summer of 1866 during the Austro-Prussian war.

That the establishment of the Commercial Academy of Prague really exercised an epoch-making influence in Austria, and that all the other institutions established later have taken its organization more or less as a model, is plain from the fact that the well-known statistician, Von Roden, who had been chosen a member of the organizing committee of the Vienna Commercial Academy, immediately entered into correspondence with Director Arenz, in order to inform himself thoroughly as

to the institute in Prague. The Academy for Trade and Industry at Gratz also took the institution at Prague as its model for the commercial division of its work; the Commercial School at Reichenberg likewise based its curriculum upon that of the institute at Prague. The Prague Academy has also exercised a considerable influence upon the development of similar schools in other countries.

It is an interesting fact that the director at this school considers it a very unwise thing for boys to go from elementary schools first into business, and then to return to the commercial school at a later period for further education. He says that the idea that this is a good plan to follow rests upon a false educational notion. About 2½ per cent of the students of the Prague Academy, up to 1872, had followed this plan, and the experience of the school in the great majority of the cases shows that it is very unwise for young people to go into a business house before they take the course of the school, and that the other plan of taking the course first and then going into a business house is the proper one. In the latter case the advanced instruction of the academy joins directly on to the general course of instruction which the pupil has had in the elementary school. The youth is, moreover, more willing to adapt himself to the necessary school discipline; it is easier for him to take up certain subjects, and he adapts himself more readily to steady work in the scientific and practical branches than when he is older.

The supposed advantages of the other plan are generally bought at the expense of the great disadvantage that many important details of previous instruction slip out of the memory during the time spent in the business house, by which it becomes more difficult for the youth to take up his course of study again. The certificate of having served an apprenticeship is not able to give the youth that tendency toward study which he loses in practical life. On the other hand, the young man who enters a business house after completing this course takes with him a riper mind, on account of which he can learn the details of the business much more easily than he otherwise could.

The director is also of the opinion that the pupils who attend the academy ought not to be otherwise occupied, for this institution, like every other school, demands an absolutely undivided application, without which no systematic, coherent, and thoroughly rounded education can be obtained, If the pupil wishes for the best results from his instruction, he must, so long as he attends the academy, give his entire time to the work, and those youths who have attempted to unite practical work with instruction in the school have soon experienced the disadvantage of this combination, and have given up either one or the other.

HISTORY OF THE INSTITUTION FROM 1856 TO 1872.

The attendance at the academy at Prague was so large in the school year 1857-58 that the instruction had to be given in parallel divisions of from fifty to fifty-four pupils. The second year of the course was opened in the autumn of 1857 and the third year of the course in the autumn of 1858. The higher commercial school consisted, therefore, of a regular course of three years and of a preparatory class. The latter was abolished in 1864, as the number of students steadily decreased, and the necessary preparation could be obtained in other schools owing to the increase in the number of gymnasia and real schools. As the term academy was used for the commercial schools founded in Budapest in 1857, in Vienna in 1858, and in Gratz in 1861, the commercial council was led to claim the right to the same title for its institution, which was granted it by an ordinance of the Government on the 14th of March, 1866, in consideration of the comprehensive curriculum of the Higher Commercial Institute in Prague, of the firm establishment of the same in pecuniary matters, and in consideration of its excellent work.

In the winter of 1859-60 the popular evening lectures were established, intended for the general public, on bookkeeping, correspondence, commercial arithmetic, commercial law, French, tariff legislation, money, and banking. In the year 1860-61 a new element was introduced into the curriculum under the title of exercises in speaking, which will be noted again later. In 1862 the relations of the professors were regulated by a set of ordinances adopted by the council relating to their rights and duties. In 1863 the council ordered that from that time on the pupils of the Commercial Academy, in cases of illness, should be treated gratis in the new Merchant Guild Hospital.

On the 31st of December, 1870, the president of the commercial council, in the presence of a delegation of that body, presented Director Arenz a written address in which the council expressed its thanks to the director of the academy for his services to the institution. The following quotation seems worth noting:

"On the 4th of October, 1856, the Merchant Guild of Prague held a celebration, the memory of which will long remain in the minds of those who were permitted to share in it. We opened at that time an institute whose mission was to train and educate in the commercial sciences the rising generation of merchants, and in this

way to contribute to the prosperity of our national trade. If we consider the results achieved by this institute in the course of the fourteen years of its existence, we must acknowledge that they are in every respect satisfactory.

"The Commercial Academy of Prague holds to-day an honored position among the educational institutions of our beloved country, and has had an attendance, since the first year of its organization, far exceeding the expectations of its founders, and forming the most trustworthy measure of its services. Hundreds of young men who have completed the three-year course of the institute have gone out into practical life, and are at work to-day in the various commercial and industrial houses at home and abroad, utilizing there the knowledge which they acquired in the Commercial Academy at Prague.

"That this institute has been able to develop such a blessing-bringing activity is due, Mr. Director, in a large part to you, who conceived the plan according to which the instruction in this institute should be organized. You have been since its beginning the director of its work, and have accomplished in this capacity a work with your colleagues of the results of which the Commercial Academy may well be proud."

The purpose of the Prague Academy has been from the beginning to direct the activity of its pupils immediately toward the true and at the same time all-round and strictly professional training of the future merchant by subordinating everything to this end and by bringing the various branches of learning into such an internal connection that they supplement and explain one another. Its course of study, as described above, embraces three classes, each with a one-year curriculum. On account of the large number of pupils each of these classes is divided into two sections or parallel divisions with the same instruction.

The method of instruction has been from the beginning the catechetical, which keeps the teacher and the pupil in unbroken relation to one another and enables the latter to have at every moment a correct judgment as to the work of the pupil, and thus to concentrate the work of the instruction upon the real work of teaching and not upon the mere preparation for the final examination. Instruction in the model office is also free from nonessentials. Its main purpose is directed toward accomplishing a clear insight and understanding of details both in themselves and in their relation to the whole, and in this way to develop the pupil into a thinking merchant, combining for this purpose theoretical accounting with the other auxiliary work which belongs to it and with correspondence.

A not unimportant element in the instruction is formed by the exercises in speaking mentioned above. After a brief introduction relating to the fundamental principles of rhetoric and the history of eloquence, the pupils of the last year's class are required in turn to make speeches in the first place upon subjects which are assigned to them. The essays are carefully examined beforehand by the respective professors in order that nothing unsuitable shall be presented. The speaker then delivers his essay without reference to his manuscript. After this speech a debate is opened, in which any other pupil may take part after those regularly assigned for the work have delivered their speeches. The debates are conducted in the presence of a professor, who, at the close, gives a general criticism of the work.

The instructing body of the academy consists of a director, professors, and the assistant teachers. The professors are appointed permanently after a probation of three years.

The youth who attend the Commercial Academy are either regular or special pupils. Regular pupils are those who expect to complete all the required subjects in the curriculum. Special students are those who wish to attend the instruction in single branches. The pupils who wish to enter the lowest class must be able to show that they have completed the lower real school, or a lower gymnasium, or an equivalent course. Those who present certificates of graduation from either of the above-mentioned schools are admitted without examination. The pupils who desire admission into the middle or upper class must show by an examination that they possess the requisite knowledge of the curriculum of the first and second years, respectively. At the close of the three-year course the final examination is held. This examination is both oral and written; it begins early in the month of July and lasts fourteen days. The final certificate, signed by the director and all the professors engaged in the work of the last year, notes the work done in each branch, giving the marks "very good," "good," "satisfactory," "hardly satisfactory," "bad." A final mark is given covering the entire examination, and classing the work either as "excellent," "well done," or "pass."

Whoever does not succeed in obtaining at least the mark of "pass" receives no certificate, but upon demand he may receive a statement that he has attended the work of the class during the past year. The students who pass this final examination with success are admitted into the one-year voluntary service in the army and into the postal service and administrative service.

The school endeavors to secure for its graduates positions in prominent business

houses, industrial establishments, banks, etc. The mercantile public knows that the academy recommends only competent persons, and its candidates find, therefore, responsible and in most cases well-paying positions.

As to the financial control of the academy, this is exclusively in the hands of the commercial council. The scientific and pedagogical control of the institute is entirely in the hands of the director and the faculty. Each class has its own director or dean, who has the special duty of looking after the particular class and forming a sort of intermediate grade between the other teachers and the director.

The yearly tuition is 150 florins. Special students pay at the rate of 7 gulden a year for each course, of one hour a week.

The administrative council of the academy may grant entire or partial remission of tuition. In 1873 about 25 per cent of the students were exempted from tuition, owing to the fact that they held scholarships or that the administrative council had exempted them from tuition.

It is interesting to note that the institution has been, from the beginning, entirely dependent on its own resources, and has never been in a condition compelling it to ask for outside aid, whether in the form of Government grants or in the form of contributions from private citizens or corporations, with the exception of the endowment mentioned above. Not only has it been able to pay its expenses out of its income, but it has been able to add from time to time a certain surplus to its endowment.

In November, 1872, a course in railroading and postal and telegraph service was organized. Students desiring to enter this course were required to have passed through an upper gymnasium, an upper real school, a commercial institute, or some other equivalent school, or they were required to pass a corresponding examination. The candidates for the telegraph course must not be over 17, and those in the railroad course not under 20 nor over 30. Persons actually employed in railroad service were admitted as special students. Postal cadets, stationed in Prague, were required to attend the postal-service course. The curriculum extended over one year. The courses began on the third Monday in October, and in the case of the course in telegraphy lasted four months. The lectures in the railroad courses and in the postal-service courses lasted until the middle of April. The curriculum was organized as follows:

	Hours per week.
Postal service:	
Theory of the post-office	3
Commercial geography and statistics	2
French language	2
English language	2
Railroad course:	
Traffic service	3
Transportation	3
Telegraph and signal service	
Course in telegraphy:	
Theoretical work	2
Telegraph service	3
Practical work	*1
French language	2

One hundred and fifteen students were enrolled in the telegraph course, 73 in the railroad course, and 69 in the postal-service course. The tuition for the telegraph course and for the railroad course was 12 florins each and for the postal service 8 florins. Those who had passed the examination in the telegraph course were eligible for appointment in the telegraph stations throughout Bohemia.

According to an order of the ministry, dated January 7, 1875, these technical courses were to remain a permanent part of the Commercial Academy of Prague, and a State grant of 2,000 florins was made for three years, beginning with 1875. These courses were, however, abolished in the year 1877, and the commercial council was compelled to let them drop, owing to the fact that it could not carry them on with good financial results.

The evening courses, spoken of above, owing to decreasing interest, increasing cost, and growing difficulties in the way of carrying them out, were dropped at the end of the school year 1860–61.

PURPOSE AND PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE ACADEMY.

The present purpose of the academy, as expressed in the announcements of the school, is to furnish to those young men who have a proper preliminary education a theoretical and practical training for commerce in the widest sense of that term. It

* Hour per day.

is a special school for the purpose of giving a special training, characterized by a fundamental feature running throughout the entire course of its instruction, and which aims to give its pupils the kind of training which will prepare them, upon leaving the school, for the various departments of business activity. The various subjects in its curriculum are united in a close organic connection; they complement and explain one another, and, as a whole, aim at raising the level of the general culture of the pupils at the same time that they impart the necessary special knowledge. The instruction in the mercantile subjects, in the narrow sense, is not limited either to purely theoretical discussions nor to the acquisition of commercial mechanical facilities. It is, on the contrary, at once theoretical and practical. It is intended that the pupils shall acquire the necessary insight into the actual conduct of trade and commerce at the same time that they acquire those external facilities which belong to this particular branch of human industry. For this latter purpose the various practical exercises in the model office are especially intended.

Besides the scientific and professional training of its pupils, the Commercial Academy lays a special emphasis upon a broad training and the moral development of its pupils, in order to secure as far as possible the desirable maturity and firmness of character appropriate to the social position of the merchant.

ORGANIZATION OF THE INSTRUCTION.—The Commercial Academy conducts two distinct courses—a three-year course and a one-year course. The latter is intended for the graduates of the intermediate schools. The German language is used as the language of instruction, and the following subjects are included in the curriculum of the three-year course:

German language and literature.—Exercises in grammar, in style, and in speaking, in order to train the student to a correct and fluent expression of his thought. The exercises in speaking are intended to train the pupil to self-control and clearness in expressing himself in discussions before the general public. The history of literature makes the student acquainted with the most important products of German literature as an important element of general culture.

The other important foreign languages.—French and English are required subjects; the participation of the pupils in Italian, Spanish, and Bohemian is optional. The chief weight in these languages is laid on practical instruction in speaking and writing for the mercantile career; mercantile correspondence in each of these languages receives, therefore, special attention; at the same time the students are expected to make themselves acquainted with the most important literary works in these languages.

Algebra.—Fundamental conceptions; logarithms; equations; calculations of probabilities; proportions.

Mercantile and political arithmetic.—Knowledge of usage; practical training in all the various kinds of calculation useful in business life; arbitrage; calculation of funds and loans and life insurance; casting of produce and usages.

Theory of trade.—Correspondence; office work; single and double entry bookkeeping with practical exercises (these last are provided for in the model office); the conduct of the model business house (the pupils are divided into several sections representing agencies or offices in the different centers of trade which carry on commerce with one another. The mercantile, banking, and shipping business receive special attention. Great care is taken that each pupil shall receive training in each of these different departments without losing sight of the business as a whole. At the end of the year the operations of the house are closed and balanced.

Penmanship.

Mercantile and industrial geography.—Study of the Austro-Hungarian State; a careful study of the Austrian Empire in regard to its physical and technical development and its commercial importance. Industrial and commercial statistics by the comparative method.

History with continual reference to commerce and trade.—General history of the world's commerce; history of the development of domestic trade.

Political economy.—Development of the fundamental notions for the correct conceptions of economic relations; theory of production, exchange, income, and taxation.

Commercial and industrial legislation.—Study of the important provisions, from a mercantile point of view, of the civil law, of commercial law, and industrial and financial legislation.

Natural history.—With special reference to the relations which are most important to the knowledge of products.

Physics.—The most important natural laws and phenomena in their technical and commercial applications.

Knowledge of products, chemistry, and technology.—The study of the origin and composition of commercial products, and the methods of testing the same as to their constituents, quantity, genuineness, and adulteration by practical exercises. Discussion of the most important technical and mechanical manufactures, and explanation of the machines used in such work. Third-year pupils have the opportunity,

by practical excursions, of becoming acquainted with the agriculture, trade, and industry of Bohemia.

Stenography.—With special reference to the needs of the office.

MEANS OF INSTRUCTION.—In order to promote the efficiency of the instruction the academy possesses—

(1) A library for the use of teachers and pupils.

(2) A collection of products which is kept up to date, so that it may fairly be considered an exposition of everything which is important for trade and commerce.

(3) A natural history museum, in close connection with the collection of products.

(4) A collection of physical, mechanical, and technological apparatus, so far as is necessary, to make the instruction of the school effective.

(5) A collection of technological wall maps as an aid to instruction in chemistry and knowledge of products.

(6) A chemical laboratory for teachers and pupils.

(7) A collection of coins.

A satisfactory idea of the manner in which these various subjects are treated will be found by comparing the synopsis of the subjects of instruction given in the Vienna Commercial Academy, which covers essentially the same ground.[1]

Privileges connected with the certificate of graduation from the academy.—The regular pupils who have completed the entire course and passed the final examination are entitled to take advantage of the one-year military service law.

Distribution of hours and subjects.

CURRICULUM—THREE-YEAR COURSE.

	Hours per week.		
	First year.	Second year.	Third year.
Required subjects of instruction.			
Theory of commerce	1	1	.....
Office work and correspondence	2	.....	.....
Mercantile correspondence and bookkeeping	.....	4	5
Mercantile arithmetic	3	3	2
Political arithmetic	.....	.....	1
Usage and casting of produce	.....	.....	1
Algebra	2	1	.....
Geography	2	2	2
History	2	2	2
Political economy	.....	.....	2
Commercial legislation	.....	.....	2
Natural history	2	.....	.....
Physics	2	1	.....
Chemistry and technology	.....	2	2
Knowledge of products and technology	.....	2	3
German	4	3	3
French language and correspondence	4	4	3
English language and correspondence	4	3	3
Penmanship	2	2	1
Total	30	30	32
Optional subjects of instruction.			
Italian language and correspondence	3	3	3
Spanish language and correspondence	.....	2	2
Bohemian language and correspondence	2	2	2
Practical chemistry	.....	.....	4
Stenography	2	2	1

Statistics.—The report of the academy for 1891 and 1892 gives the following information as to students attending the three-year course:

Four hundred and forty pupils attended the course. Of these, 152 were in the first year's course; 161 were in the second; 127 were in the third. It will be observed that the number of pupils in the third year formed a very large per cent of the number in the first year. Of the 434 whose names were on the rolls at the end of the year, 177 were Catholics; 17 were Protestants; 240 were Jews; 371 were from Bohemia, 105 being from the city of Prague alone. There were also 6 students from Germany; 3 from Russia; 2 from Roumania; 1 from France, and 1 from Egypt.

[1] See account of Vienna Academy given above.

Of the 434 pupils, 14 were 15 years of age; 81 were 16 years of age; 130 were 17 years of age; 120 were 18 years of age; 58 were 19 years of age; 24 were 20 years of age; 4 were 21 years of age; 1 was 25 years of age, and 1 was 28 years of age—showing that the great majority were between the ages of 16 and 20. Considerably more than three-fourths of the students were over 17; about one-half over 18; 191 were sons of merchants, 49 of manufacturers, 79 of Government officials, 33 of produce men, 26 of farmers, and the others of various other professions. It will be noted that the vast majority of them were from what might be called the business classes.

It is interesting to note that 106 of the pupils studied Italian; 42 Spanish; 187 stenography. Also, that 10 of the students were exempted from the payment of fees altogether; 65 received 50 per cent remission, and 12 held the various scholarships.

THE ONE-YEAR COURSE.

The purpose of the one-year course is to offer to young men with an advanced preliminary training, in the shortest possible time, such an amount of commercial knowledge as will prepare them for a position in some business house, or as will supplement their general educational training, so as to be of assistance in some other occupation.

Organization of the instruction.—The curriculum is constituted in the following manner:

	Hours per week.
Bookkeeping and mercantile correspondence	6
Theory of commerce and office work	2
Mercantile arithmetic	4
Political arithmetic	1
Commercial law	2
Commercial and industrial geography	3
Penmanship	1
Study of important branches of domestic industry	2
Total	21

A synopsis of these subjects may be fairly well understood from the similar synopsis in the case of the Commercial Academy at Vienna.

Various provisions in regard to this course.—No person can be admitted to this course who has not successfully completed the highest class of a domestic or foreign intermediate school. Persons are not required to have passed, however, the final examination in this intermediate school. As no students are admitted with any different preliminary training, all the pupils are classed as regulars, and no student is admitted unless he takes all the instruction given. Only such pupils are admitted as are thoroughly at home in the German language; foreigners must give evidence of a mastery of German before being admitted to this course. The number of pupils is limited to forty. The course begins on the 1st of October and closes the middle of July. The tuition is 150 florins a year; no remissions or reductions of tuition are granted.

Statistics.—The report of the academy for 1891–92 shows that there were 16 pupils in this course at the end of the year: Catholics, 8; Protestant, 1; Jews, 7. All the pupils were over 18 years of age. Two were 18 years old, 1 was 19, 2 were 20, 4 were 21, 5 were 22, 1 was 23, and 1 was 25. Eleven were graduates of the gymnasium and 5 of the real school.

Budget of the academy.—The financial report of the Merchant Guild of Prague for the year ending December 31, 1891, shows that the income of the academy for that year was 55,522.50 florins. Of this sum 1,600 florins came from endowment, 52,512.50 florins came from tuition in the three-year course; 1,275 florins came from tuition in the one-year course; 135 florins came from laboratory fees. Its expenses were classed as follows: Taxes, 1,124.30 florins; sinking fund and rent, 4,000 florins; salaries, 27,021.64 florins; contribution to the Merchant Guild, 2,319.98; repairs, 1,567.56 florins; heating and lighting, 1,081.79 florins; printing, 2,063.41 florins; various other expenses, 944.62 florins. Total, 40,122.40 florins. Showing a surplus of 15,400.10 florins. The estimate for the year 1892 was: Income, 53,300 florins; expenditures, 46,000 florins. The total expenses for the academy up to December 31, 1885, amounted to 889,476.40 florins; the total income amounted to 918,905.53 florins.

Statistics of attendance.—The statistics of attendance are given in the following list:

School year.	Preparatory year.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Total.
1856–57	69	123	.....	.....	192
1857–58	56	118	107	.....	281
1858–59	30	82	97	96	305
1859–60	25	85	74	75	259
1860–61	24	87	76	55	242
1861–62	23	77	75	52	227
1862–63	18	93	64	55	230
1863–64	14	85	86	42	227
1864–65	.....	72	89	55	216
1865–66	.....	52	63	57	172
1866–67	.....	46	48	43	137
1867–68	.....	64	56	34	154
1868–69	.....	73	66	37	176
1869–70	.....	97	72	57	226
1870–71	.....	112	96	60	268
1871–72	.....	143	113	81	337
1872–73	.....	158	130	82	270
1873–74	.....	151	144	110	405
1874–75	.....	70	132	121	323
1875–76	.....	69	78	108	255
1876–77	.....	72	68	76	216
1877–78	.....	68	69	58	195
1878–79	.....	81	67	62	210
1879–80	.....	81	84	56	221
1880–81	.....	101	86	77	264
1881–82	.....	100	113	75	288
1882–83	.....	97	97	105	239
1883–84	.....	118	94	89	301
1884–85	.....	117	125	89	331
1885–86	.....	107	121	111	339

According to the foregoing table it appears that the attendance at the academy from 1856 to 1885 amounted to 3,234, of whom about 86 per cent were from Bohemia, and about 13 per cent from foreign countries. Of these pupils 61 per cent were sons of business men; 19 per cent were sons of officials and German officers; 14 per cent were sons of farmers, capitalists, etc.; 6 per cent were sons of professional men. Fifty-three per cent came from real schools; 31 per cent came from gymnasia; 12 per cent came from private schools; 4 per cent came from other commercial schools.

It appears that of this number 2,128, or 70 per cent, of all the pupils who entered the school, completed the three-year course. Of later years the record is very much more favorable, rising in some instances as high as 95 per cent.

Faculty.—The faculty for the year 1891–92 consisted of a director and 17 teachers. The names and subjects are as follows:

Faculty.	Subjects.
Director.	
Herr Dr. Ernst Kaulichr	Algebra and mercantile arithmetic.
Teachers.	
Herr Ludwig Ausserwinkler	Chemistry and knowledge of products; custodian of collections.
Herr Franz Bardachzi	Bohemian language, literature and correspondence.
Herr Eduard Deimel	Theory of commerce, mercantile arithmetic, bookkeeping, and correspondence.
Herr A. Fischel	Penmanship.
Herr Wilhelm Fischer	Algebra, physics, and natural history.
Herr Josef Guckler	Stenography.
Herr Alois Kraus	Geography, history, and German.
Herr Karl Leclaire	French language, literature and correspondence.
Herr Josef Odenthal	Mercantile correspondence and bookkeeping; director of the model office.
Herr Gustav Reiniger	English language, literature and correspondence.
Herr Josef Riedl	German language and literature.
Herr Dr. Gustav Rolin	French and Spanish languages, and Spanish correspondence.
Herr Gustav Rothbaum	Theory of commerce, office work, mercantile and political arithmetic and usage.
Herr Dr. Anton Scholz	Geography and history; acted as librarian.
Herr Wenzel Sobek	Bohemian language.
Herr Alois Tonelli	Italian language, literature and correspondence.
Herr J. U. Dr. Albert Werunsky	Commercial legislation and political economy.

Salaries and pensions.—It is an interesting feature in most of the European schools, whether private or public, that some arrangement is usually made for the granting of pensions to teachers who have served a certain length of time in the institution. The Merchant Guild of Prague has provided a pension fund, to be made up partly of grants made by the Merchant Guild itself, by contributions of the professors of the school, and by a certain per cent of the surplus income of the school.

Every professor is entitled to a pension after serving ten consecutive years as a member of the faculty of the Commercial Academy. The pension is payable as soon as the professor, in consequence of bodily or mental disease, becomes unable to act as instructor; in all cases upon the completion of forty years of service. The amount of the pension, after ten years of service, is 40 per cent of the salary, and rises 2 per cent every year, so that after forty years of service a professor is entitled to his full salary for the rest of his life.

The professors are appointed at a salary of 1,000 florins, which is raised every five years by the sum of 200 florins, so that after twenty-five years of service the salary amounts to 2,000 florins. Every professor who wishes to enjoy the pension privilege must, within twelve months after his definitive appointment, contribute the third part of one year's salary to the pension fund, and must further contribute a third part of each quinquennial addition to his salary. The widow of a professor who had become entitled to a pension is entitled to a pension of 350 florins a year so long as she remains a widow, and the allowance to the widow for the support of the children of the professor who had become entitled to a pension is calculated according to the rule adopted by the Government for civil-service officials, provided that the pension of the mother and the allowance of the children shall not exceed the sum of 525 florins.

The preceding pages contain a description of the two most important higher schools for commercial studies in Austria, but these two schools do not, by any means, represent the only opportunity for youth who expect to enter business to acquire a special training for their future work. Indeed, it may be doubted whether any other country has organized so complete a system of commercial instruction as Austria. The department of education has given special attention, in the last few years, to the development of this branch of instruction, and while the number of schools is not large, considering the needs of a modern industrial and commercial community, the system on which they are organized is an excellent one, and there is no doubt that it will be further extended in the near future.

Professor Glasser's book on Commercial Education in Austria[1] gives full information as to the present state of commercial education, so far as it can be ascertained from an exposition of the laws bearing upon the subject, and by the statistics as to attendance, etc., in these schools. According to a table printed in that work, there are 13 commercial high schools of the general rank of the Commercial Academy in Vienna and the similar one in Prague, in the Austrian monarchy, excluding Hungary. About 3,000 pupils attend these schools. There are 104 other schools, which may be classed as commercial institutions, covering the ground, more or less fully, appropriated in this country by the commercial colleges, though in nearly all cases the curriculum is based upon more scientific principles and is more carefully developed in the Austrian schools than in our own. The same experience has been met in Austria as in other countries, that the attempt to develop commercial courses side by side with other courses in the same institution has not been successful. Generally speaking, such courses have given satisfaction to no class of people; they interfere with the healthy development of the other courses in the institution, and are uniformly neglected by the authorities of the institution with which they are connected.

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[1] See list of authorities used in the preparation of this report.

HIGHER COMMERCIAL INSTRUCTION IN FRANCE.

1.—THE SUPERIOR SCHOOL OF COMMERCE AT PARIS.

I.—History of its Foundation and Development.[1]

In 1820 two Paris merchants, MM. Brodard and Legret, interested in the future of French commerce, conceived the project of founding a school for the purpose of preparing young men for business by special studies, supplementary to their general instruction. These men of enterprise, whose names deserve to be saved from an unjust oblivion, created for this purpose, in the Hotel des Fermes in rue de Grenelle-Saint-Honoré, an establishment of a type at that time absolutely new, to which they gave the name "Special School of Commerce."

Such an enterprise, which seems to us to-day so natural, was bold for the epoch at which our modest innovators undertook it. In fact, public opinion did not at that time recognize either the necessity or even the possibility of such instruction, for which practice alone up to that time had provided. If people would admit, on being pressed, that our industry needed trained assistants, capable of constructing and caring for the machines[2] which it employed, by repairing accidents which occurred in foundries and machine shops, no one thought that commerce could ever become a subject of instruction in the school, because, as every one claimed, on account of the multiplicity of the specialties of which it is composed.

The basis of this idea, which furnishes some specious arguments of a nature very seductive to the prejudices of the superficial minds of mere routinists, will not bear examination. For if it is true that after having studied the sciences listed in the programme of commercial instruction there are still in each branch of commerce peculiar difficulties, dangers, resources—in a word, trade secrets, so to speak—it is not less true that the man who has been prepared by study will advance more surely and steadily along his chosen way, and that, circumstances being equal, he will possess after a short period of practice an undisputed superiority, thanks to the instruction which he has received. In other words, there exists an amount of commercial knowledge, at once theoretical and practical, which one can acquire in a school, and which can be taught only there. It must be added, of course, that the actual management of real business affairs can alone complete this instruction.

The creation of a special school of commerce, a scientific institution up to that time without a predecessor, offered other numerous difficulties. It was not only necessary to group into one body of studies, methodically organized, all those branches of knowledge which might be useful to a merchant, but also to choose and train professors, to select and classify the studies, and, finally, to find a public, a clientele. In a word, one had to create the pupils, so to speak, and this was not the easiest thing in the world, considering the ideas of the time.

Moreover, the obstacles which these innovators encountered did not come alone from the prejudices against which the schools of commerce to-day must still struggle. It was denied at that time that we possessed the qualities essential to commerce; that our French spirit was suited to the slow continuousness of distant trade; to the chances of long-extended speculations upon which the business of importation and exportation depends. One did not see that our spirit, because of its very impressionableness and mobility, lends itself admirably to all these forms of business. Finally, men refused to recognize that our French intelligence, so keen, so supple, so broad, contained the germs of ability which necessity on the one hand and our

[1] For a full account of this branch of instruction in France consult Léautey, Ecoles de Commerce, from which the account here given is taken, partly in translation, partly in abstract. Consult list of authorities used in preparation of this report.

[2] The School of Arts and Manufacture, which was to provide so well for this instruction, was not founded until later (1829).

high tastes and love of riches on the other were destined to develop. In proof of this fact the industrial and commercial progression, proven by statistics, may be cited—a progression which would have been doubled and tripled by that economic instruction, the lack of which France cruelly misses to-day.

In 1820 there were in addition, in the very situation of things, other serious obstacles. The country had just emerged from the great wars of the Republic and Empire, which had excited all its brilliant faculties, and it was very difficult for the nation to pass over quickly to the consideration of industry and commerce; to enter without hesitation upon that which men disdainfully called "a mercantile career." The young men of the middle class of society, for whom this new establishment was specially intended, leaned toward the so-called liberal careers; they wished to be lawyers, physicians, writers; no one wished to be a merchant. These young men regarded it as a sort of derogation, an acknowledgment of inferiority, to devote themselves to commerce—that is to say, to a specialty of the "earth, earthy," which did not merit serious study; and we have seen that the university, whose classical spirit incited to the admiration of the past, has contributed no little to confirm our countrymen in these ideas, which have paralyzed, and still paralyze, the industrial and commercial enterprises of France.

It was under these circumstances, little favorable to its development, that the new school, shortly after transferred to the Hotel Sully in the rue Saint Antoine, was organized. Some large buildings, spacious courts, and a large garden were put at its disposal. A physical cabinet, a chemical laboratory, and collections of products were established at a large cost. A numerous personnel, too numerous perhaps, was brought together. Finally, the school assumed a uniform, carried a sword, and all its internal movements were carried on to the sound of a drum.

But besides these features, a little ambitious for the ends of a private school, a council composed of distinguished men, members of the institute, bankers, manufacturers, merchants, who comprehended and appreciated at its true value the attempt of MM. Brodard and Legret, devoted itself to framing a programme of instruction, an organization of studies, and modifying it according to necessity and assuring its execution. Having learned by study and experience what various qualities and what various branches of knowledge are indispensable to one who would undertake a commercial career, these men, among whom we find the names of Chaptal, Jacques Laffitte, Ternau, Louis Marchand, Casimir Périer, J. B. Say, Charles Dupui, etc., sketched out with a firm and sure hand the programme and the regulations of this new institution. Their wise provisions have been preserved in the school. They have served as a model, as a point of departure, for all the attempts of the same sort which have been made in France and in foreign countries. It was as a result of their advice, for example, that the new scheme of instruction was originally distributed into three years and divided into three departments or so-called "offices." No student could pass from one department to another without passing an examination. This council, which has continually maintained within the school its healthy traditions, the cause of its prosperity, is still in existence.

The beginning of the school was happy; pupils began to arrive promptly. One can even say without exaggeration that they came from every part of the globe. The proportion which has always maintained itself between French pupils and that of foreigners showed itself at the beginning, in the ratio of one-third or less of foreign students and two-thirds for France. The faculty, well chosen, learned, and devoted, knew how to carry out in a happy way the plans adopted by the council, and during the first two years the future appeared to be secure.

However, misfortune arrived. The charges of the school were heavy, and, in fact, high in proportion to the real capital of the enterprise. The continued success of the school would have been able to meet this loss, but the current began to change before the prolonged difficulties rendered more serious by political events. The faculty found it impossible to repair the losses under the circumstances. Faults of administration were added, the situation became each day more difficult, the school changed hands several times, and finally came to an end after the revolution of July. From 1820 to 1830 the Special School of Commerce was under the successive direction of MM. Brodard and Legret, its founders; M. Monnier des Taillades, a former professor; M. L. Pelleport, a merchant; M. Poux-Franklin, and Adolphe Blanqui, directors of studies.

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Adolphe Blanqui, who held the chair of history, commerce, and political economy, did not fear to undertake, upon his own personal account, an enterprise which up to that time had demanded so many victims.

Adolphe Blanqui was young, without wealth, already a father of a family. The times were bad and the future threatening for his enterprise. However, he accepted the heritage of ruin with a firm resolution to turn back the current of public opinion which at that time narrowly followed the so-called "protective doctrine of national labor," resolved not to allow an institution to perish which was consecrated

to the diffusion of the principles of political economy and to commercial liberty, to which he had already devoted his life. He brought to this useful work an indefatigable activity, an inexhaustible and charming spirit, a wide experience, and the numerous and useful relations which his brilliant qualities and the gracious amenity of his character had gained for him.

Adolphe Blanqui changed the name of the school and called it the "Superior School of Commerce," which name it still bears to-day. He then transferred it from the magnificent Hotel Sully to the more modest location in the Rue Neuve Saint Gilles. There, as a wide administrator, he could limit the expenses and bring them into proportions better adapted to the resources of the moment. Followed by the pupils who loved him, surrounded by a small group of instructors faithful to the enterprise, he was an example to all of labor and devotion. He sacrificed his person and recoiled before no obstacle, and all this was done in such a way that in studying the history of this struggle, which lasted until his death, more than twenty-five years, one does not know which to admire the most—his courage, his activity, the variety of his knowledge, the fecundity of his genius, or the charming influence he exercised upon all who came near him.

The reputation of the institution increased with the growing celebrity of its director. The personality of Blanqui dominated it and protected it at the same time. Deputy from Bordeaux, elected a member of the institute in 1838, a brilliant writer, a popular professor, he threw upon the school the reflection of his own reputation. He created for it connections wherever his writings were read and appreciated. He drew upon it the attention of the Government, whose aid he secured for it, and the institution was then known throughout the entire world under the name of "École Blanqui."

Another man who was also to acquire a certain celebrity, and to honor the school where he had been trained, and to contribute largely to its success was M. Joseph Garnier. Twenty years younger than its director, he became his coworker and then his partner. His lovely character, his just and kind spirit gained for him the sympathies of many by which the institution profited. He remained as a professor of the school until his death, almost five years after. Certainly one can say that if commercial instruction had found in the numerous economists who have held power since 1820 the devotion and assistance which these two men of whom we speak had given, the destinies of this instruction and consequently the economic condition of the country would have been entirely different. It is a great misfortune that men did not understand at that time the importance of such instruction, the necessity there was of developing it, of extending it, of sustaining it, and we are paying dearly to-day for this lack of insight on the part of our governors.

In 1839 the growing success of the Superior School of Commerce led Adolphe Blanqui to transfer it to the Rue Amelot, to the building which it still occupies. He could then undertake certain needed modifications which were not possible while the school was in the Hotel Sully. The institution was again to go through a period of embarrassment, which, although it did not affect the instruction of the school, nevertheless created great difficulties for its director. Finally, after a quarter of a century of persevering and courageous struggle, Adolphe Blanqui died prematurely in 1854, at the age of 56 years, without seeing the results of the efforts which his profound faith in the future of economic instruction had led him to undertake.

This École Blanqui, for one can fairly call it so since it had really become his work by virtue of all that he had done for it, was then acquired by M. Gervais de Caen. This able administrator, who knew how to improve the financial situation of the school and make of it a good business venture, said modestly of his own term of office "that it had come like the labors of the last hour, after the greatest heat and the severest labors of the day." He had, therefore, in his own words the easy merit of contributing to the solidity of the enterprise which had resisted so many storms. He brought to its succor financial resources and the skill of a sound, industrial, and commercial administration.

M. Gervais de Caen, who directed the school for thirteen years—that is to say, until his death in 1867—gave, at least to the pupils whom he had under his care, the future merchants and administrators, an example not to be despised, of a good, well-managed business enterprise, thanks to the order and economy of his management, showing those positive results which the labor of man ought to produce.

M. Gervais de Caen, moreover, did not apply his habits of industrial and commercial administration in a way prejudicial to the instruction of the school. He resolved to maintain the traditions which he had learned in his work with Blanqui. He urged upon the instructing body the loftiness of its mission, demanding of them to take the largest possible part in the incessant progress of science and of the special aid which it brings each day to commerce and to industry. Having outlived the storms, the Superior School of Commerce certainly achieved under his direction a normal rate of advance, reaching each year and oftentimes surpassing the figures fixed for its permanent numbers.

Interested in establishing the necessary discipline for the conduct of the studies, which had been very much relaxed under the direction of Adolphe Blanqui, Gervais de Caen has expressed the following opinion resulting from his long experience: First, that one can not carry on the instruction and education of young men from 16 to 25 years without a personal and constant supervision; second, that in a great city like Paris with young men of this age, belonging almost always to families in easy circumstances, one can not influence efficiently the day pupils from the double point of view of instruction and education. In consequence, and although they were elements of financial profit, M. Gervais de Caen did not hesitate to exclude day pupils from the night courses of the school, nor did he believe in the isolated work in private rooms, and he suppressed this absolutely. This last point of view, which has been enforced since that time in the Superior School, and was later adopted by the School of Higher Commercial Studies, and also the view relating to the exclusion of day pupils and to the necessity of a discipline sufficiently severe to maintain the morals of the resident pupils, have appeared to us worthy of production in this place.

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At his death M. Gervais de Caen, who had no natural heirs, made a will in favor of the daughter of his predecessor. The direction of the school was intrusted provisionally to Aimé-Girard, who for ten years had occupied most brilliantly the chair of chemistry in this establishment. During the last two years of the preceding administration and the two years of the provisional administration which followed the number of pupils was not maintained; it even sensibly diminished. The only school in Paris where one could pursue commercial studies found it difficult to keep up its numbers; in spite of its brilliant past and its reputation without a rival, it had scarcely 70 pupils in 1869.

It was then that the Paris Chamber of Commerce, always solicitous for the interests of national commerce, was impressed with the situation. Its president, M. Deniére, thinking that such a school would secure a greater prestige in the eyes of merchants if it were patronized by the chamber, proposed to his colleagus its acquisition. In the session of the 27th of January, 1869, the chamber accepted the proposition of the president and authorized him to treat with Mademoiselle Blanqui for the purchase of the school and the hiring of the building which it occupied. The purchase was made at the price of 120,000 francs, and the rent of the buildings was fixed at 25,000 francs per year on the following 15th and 18th of February. The first task of the Paris Chamber of Commerce was to select a director of the school. It made a choice of one of the professors of the school, M. Schwaeblé, a former pupil of the polytechnic school, thus showing its firm intention of maintaining the traditions of the school and to raise, if possible, the scientific level of commercial studies, which it had just taken under its efficient and lasting protection. The chamber was happy in its choice of M. Schwaeblé as director, who saw the number of its pupils increase from 70 to 92 in its first year.

During the unhappy war of 1870 and the insurrection which followed the courses of the school were suspended. The building, changed into a hospital rendered very great services, and the faculty proved that it was equal to the most difficult tasks, and that it knew how to fulfill its duty on every occasion.

As soon as it was at all possible the courses were opened again, and the success of the school went on increasing. The chamber, studying the interests of Paris and its commerce, and desiring that the sons of merchants of our city should benefit to a greater extent by the special instruction of this school, decided in 1873 that day pupils, taking a lunch at the school, should be admitted from that time forward. As soon as this decision was made the number of pupils increased, and the figure of 130 was quickly reached and several times passed. We should like to go into details upon this phase of the school, and its remarkable achievements would furnish us interesting descriptions under more than one head, but we must limit ourselves to absolute essentials.

M. Schwaeblé died in the month of July, 1880, some days after the close of the school year. He had been present at the distribution of the prizes, and he was said to have expressed the wish not to die before the close of the school year.

The chamber of commerce had to appoint his successor. A former pupil of the polytechnic school had served it well, and it was again a former pupil of this school which the chamber chose to replace M. Schwaeblé. M. J. Grelley, professor of physics in the school and a friend of M. Schwaeblé, was appointed to succeed him. This choice was not less happy than the preceding one. For no person could have been better prepared for this difficult function than M. Grelley, nor more capable of performing it satisfactorily than he. Formerly a director of an important foundry, initiated into practical affairs, a good accountant, M. Grelley had been long familiar with administrative, industrial, and commercial questions. On the other hand, his position in the school which he was called upon to direct, the justness and amenity of his character assured him the devoted aid of his colleagues. Under the excellent direction of M. Grelley, assisted by the counsel of the members of the chamber of

commerce, and notably of M. Salmon, M. Mignon, and M. Piault, the school in the Rue Amelot has again seen its reputation steadily increase.

To sum up.—The Superior School of Commerce, founded upon an idea the practical value of which was contested for a long time, has passed through four very different periods in its sixty-five years of existence.

The first period, from 1820 to 1830.—This was the epoch of foundation, of groping in the dark, of administrative mistakes which led to a frequent change of hands and finally to a catastrophe.

The second period, from 1830 to 1854.—Saved from the ruins; it was protected and defended against all difficulties and all attacks by a powerful personality which instilled new life into it.

The third period, from 1854 to 1869.—Superior to every individuality but that of the school itself, the management in a certain way impersonal rested upon its early traditions and succeeded in maintaining them and showing substantial advance.

The fourth period, from 1869 to the present.—The apogee of the school—thanks to the support of the Chamber of Commerce, to the constant care of its council of administration, to the happy choice of directors, professors, and examiners, and finally, to the firmness of discipline, to the excellence of its curriculum of study and the incontestable solidity of its work.

It has not been possible for us to procure the statistics of attendance at the Superior School of Commerce for every year since its organization in 1820, but we believe that the number of six thousand is not an incorrect estimate. There were 1,750 pupils from 1872 to 1885, distributed as follows:

Year.	Pupils.	Year.	Pupils.
1872	100	1879	135
1873	105	1880	130
1874	120	1881	120
1875	140	1882	115
1876	140	1883	122
1877	150	1884	115
1878	148	1885	110

This diminution in attendance of late years resulted from the competition of the School of Higher Commercial Studies, which gives essentially the same instruction.

The first department is always the most numerous, and it is, consequently, divided into two sections. The table below shows the average distribution of the students during the last few years:

	Residents.	Half residents.	Total.
First class:			
First section	22	8	30
Second section	22	8	30
Second class	30	10	40
Third class	16	4	20
Total	90	30	120

Foreign pupils constituted, on an average, one-fourth to one-third of the attendance; bachelors, on an average, one-twelfth.

The school has received half residents, or day pupils, only since 1873. Of 1,650 pupils since 1873, 498 were day pupils, an average of 35 per year.

II.—Subsidies, Scholarships, Internal Regulations of the School.

Subsidy.—The Superior School of Commerce has never received any subsidy.

Scholarships.—In 1838 M. Cunin-Gridaine, at that time minister of commerce, desired on one occasion to visit the final examinations of the school to form for himself an idea of the value of the work done there. Being well convinced of the excellence of the instruction, he conceived the thought of assisting each year a certain number of poor youth, and established some half scholarships, which were open to competition. This was the first evidence of interest shown by the Government in commercial instruction. Fifteen years later, on the 8th of June, 1853, M. Magne converted the half scholarships into entire scholarships. To-day the State supports twelve scholarships for pupils who pass two years in the Superior School of

Commerce. In consequence, at the end of each school year, about the 15th of July, six vacant scholarships are open for competition at Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Rouen, Nantes, Nancy, Lille, and Dijon.

The sum granted by the ministry of commerce for the aid of pupils, not having varied since 1853, is to-day considerably below the sum which they actually cost the school. The latter accepts the situation, however, without complaining, for it finds a sufficent compensation for the loss which it sustains in the fact that these scholarships being open to competition, and the regulations under which they are given being administered with absolute impartiality, they are, with very rare exceptions, always held by good pupils.

Conditions of admission to the competitive examination.—No one can be admitted to the competitive examination unless he shall have shown that he is of French birth; that he is at least 16 years of age, and not more than 20, on the 1st of October of the year in which the examination occurs. No dispensation from this provision is allowed.

The candidates who fulfill these conditions must register between the 1st and 15th of July, at the latest, at the prefecture of the department in which they desire to pass the examination. They must submit certificates at that time relating to the birth of the candidate—a certificate of the formalities prescribed by law—a certificate of vaccination, and a written declaration indicating the city in which the candidate wishes to be examined, also detailed information as to the financial condition, the number of children and other charges of the parents, as well as an abstract of the taxes paid by the parents.

Examinations.—The examination consists entirely of written compositions, the subjects of which are taken from the course of study indicated below (the course of the first year), and sent to the prefecture of the ministry of commerce in sealed envelopes. The examination of the essays and the classification of the candidates are reported to the ministry of commerce by a commission appointed for this purpose.

The compositions comprise: First, a dictation intended to show that the candidate can write French correctly; second, a historical or geographical topic; third, a test in accounting; fourth, an exercise in arithmetic; fifth, elementary questions in physics or chemistry; sixth, an English or German theme; seventh, an elementary original design in black crayon. (An hour and a half is allowed for each subject.)

Regulations of the school.—The school receives resident and day pupils, lunching in the dining hall, provided they are at least 15 years of age. No pupil can be admitted to the courses of the second year until he shall have completed his sixteenth year. Admission into this division is allowed only after an examination; bachelors in science and bachelors of special secondary instruction are excused from this examination. The yearly price of board, tuition, and lodging is fixed at 2,000 francs for resident pupils who are present at the opening of the year, which takes place the first Monday in October. Pupils who remain at the school during the long vacation (from the 31st of August to the 30th of September) pay a sum, based on the yearly price, of 200 francs per month. Special lessons carried on without interruption during the months of August and September prepare the new pupils, and the pupils who have fallen behind, for the courses of the following year. The pupils do not wear uniforms. They can have a private room by paying a supplementary fee of 100 francs per term. In return for an annual subscription of 100 francs, the pupils receive lessons in gymnastics, fencing, dancing, riding, and boxing. This subscription is obligatory for all resident pupils.

Day pupils.—The day pupils lunch at the school. They attend the courses from 8.30 in the morning until 5 o'clock in the evening, in accordance with the programme of studies.

The price for the day pupils is fixed at 1,000 francs per year for the pupils who are present at the beginning of the year. The pupils who follow the courses of the school during the long vacation pay a fee of 100 francs for the two months; they do not, however, receive lunch during this period. The day pupils can also profit by the various lessons in gymnastics, etc., by a payment of 100 francs a year. The pupils of all divisions, under the guidance of the management of the school and in accordance with the instructions of their family, attend the different religious denominations to which they belong.

III.—Instruction, Division of Studies, Programme, Employment of Time, Excursions.

First class.—The Superior School of Commerce is divided into three divisions or offices. The entire course of study lasts three years.

The first office (first year) is, properly speaking, only a preparatory year for the more special studies of the following years. This first class is always more numerous

(on an average 60 pupils), and is for this reason divided into two sections. The second section, which is preparatory to the first, comprises the most backward pupils.

The first year is given to the improvement of penmanship, study of history, geography, arithmetic, and an elementary course upon the usages of commerce, primary notions of bookkeeping, also physics and chemistry, in which the students study the elements, vocabulary, nomenclature, and classification; further, the elements of ordinary legislation and of drawing. Pupils commence in this year the study of foreign languages. Foreigners study the French language, and French pupils perfect themselves in the more detailed study of the rules of their own language.

The division of labor, as shown by the detailed programme,[1] implied in a certain way the necessity for the first organizers of this instruction to fix a minimum age for entrance. Intelligence and the memory suffice for certain studies; but the study of science demands power of attention, reflection, and judgment. In a word, the epoch of their development cannot be arbitrarily advanced any more than the development of the brain itself. The minimum age of entrance for pupils to the Superior School of Commerce was accordingly fixed at 15 years for the first class, and the school, as a result of its experience, would be rather inclined to lower than raise this age limit.

Second office or year.—The second office does not receive pupils under 16, as we have said. This provision has been maintained, though not without creating each year new difficulties. The pupils in general have a marked desire to enter upon the second year immediately, without troubling themselves as to whether they are in a condition to profit by the courses. It is for them, and too often for their parents, a question of amour propre.

The various directors of the Superior School of Commerce have found themselves invariably face to face with the difficulty of making those who come forth from the factories of baccalaureates understand that the science of commerce is not composed of certain formulas which it is sufficient to remember in order to be well prepared to make an excellent merchant. These young people are astonished that they must work seriously and for a long time in order to learn that which seems to them so simple a priori. They would often like to arrive at the advanced parts of science at the very beginning; to occupy themselves with finances, with the large enterprises of the merchant, with the complicated operations of the exchange, etc. In a word, they would like to begin at the end, and to begin with that which can only be the complement of serious studies, leading the pupils by degrees to the possession of a positive knowledge which initiates them into the life of affairs. It is easy to see, therefore, that one was obliged to fix a limit of age for entrance into the second year, and to institute an examination which all pupils who enter it directly must pass, with the exception of bachelors of science and bachelors of special secondary instruction.

The courses pursued in the second office, as the detailed programme shows, comprise the continuation of some of the preceding studies: Essays relative to commercial correspondence; the application of arithmetic and algebra to all the operations of commerce and banking; theoretical and practical accounting in its various branches; commercial geography and the history of commerce; the study of the commercial code of fiscal and tariff legislation; of commercial statistics; of chemistry as applied to industry and commerce; of physics; of raw materials and commercial products, specimens of which are to be found in the museum belonging to the school, and, finally, drawing and stenography.[2]

Programme of the course of study in the third year.—The third office (third year) is devoted to superior instruction. This instruction, to which no pupil is admitted without having passed one year in the second office, comprises besides a review of the preceding studies, exchange and arbitrage; the mechanism of the operations of commerce; the multiform applications of accounting to industry, banking, and commerce; the questions of insurance which necessitate the calculation of probabilities; chemistry as applied to the study of merchandise and the detection of adulterations; elements of mechanics as applied to the wants of commerce and industry, to the equipment of trade ports, to that of railroads, docks, etc.; technology or the description of the leading industries, applied physics, commercial and maritime law; political economy; commercial history; the continuation of geometry and drawing, and finally, foreign languages, of which speaking knowledge is required as far as possible. A good pupil of the third year on graduation is supposed not only to understand German, English, and Italian or Spanish, but also to correspond in three of these languages. A few very bright ones—they are rarely French pupils—get so

[1] For programme of first year see syllabus of courses in the School for Higher Commercial Studies, which are essentially the same as in the Superior School of Commerce, also table on page 768.

[2] For programme of second year consult syllabus of courses in School of Higher Commercial Studies (first year of the regular course); also table on page 768.

far as to be able to make themselves understood in speaking. The language courses in the third office are carried on exclusively in the language studied. In the office, where the courses of technology and raw materials have an exceptional importance, one applies the studies by means of an imitation of the real transactions of commerce; each pupil opens and closes accounts of all sorts, he buys and sells merchandise according to the course of the day, carries on a bank, dispatches ships, corresponds in foreign languages, devotes himself, in a word, under the direction of an experienced professor, to the most difficult and varied operations of commerce.[1]

Such a plan as the above needs no commentary. We have not hesitated to produce it entire in order to show that commercial instruction is not, as its detractors pretend, or those who are ignorant of it maintain, a narrow instruction "of the earth, earthy;" an instruction of the shop, but it is in reality a scientific instruction at once general and special, directed toward the positive studies which are of use to young men who intend to play a rôle in commercial, industrial, administrative, or consular careers.

But if the programme speaks for itself, it will not be superfluous for us to call attention to how much devotion, intelligence, experience in practical affairs and in education have been necessary since the origin of this school to create, organize, improve, and make this programme, in its entirety, to constitute that which one has called "the science of commerce," especially when one considers the difficulty of finding instructors who knew how to put together the materials in which it was their business to instruct, for the purpose of their particular training, and in which variety was not to exclude the unity of view.

It would not have been sufficient for the professors to be merely learned, as those in the colleges and lycées; it was necessary for their lectures to bear the seal of experience, for the most of them to have been initiated into the life of affairs, for them to live or to have lived for a certain length of time face to face with practical difficulties arising with every step, and which it was necessary to solve immediately. It was only from such men that one could demand that they should give young men a training which should lead directly to the practice of commerce.

To maintain the traditions of useful education while raising its level to the height of progress realized in science and its applications; such, in brief, was the work of the various managements which have succeeded one another at the Superior School of Commerce, and this was a work of no small merit.

Distribution of the time.—The working day is divided for the resident pupils in the different offices as follows: Lecture and recitations, six hours; study, four hours; recreation, five hours; repose, nine hours; total, twenty-four hours.

There is thus an average of sixty hours of labor per week, including the study hours in the office. The day is thus divided: From 5.30 to 6 o'clock, rising and making the toilet in dormitories; from 6 to 8 o'clock, study in the offices; from 8 to 8.30 o'clock first breakfast and recreation; from 8.30 to 10 o'clock, lessons; from 10 to 11 o'clock, lessons; from 11 to 12.30 o'clock, second breakfast and recreation; from 12.30 to 2 o'clock, lessons; from 2 to 2.30 o'clock, recreation; from 3 to 4 o'clock, lessons; from 4 to 5 o'clock, lessons; from 5 to 7 o'clock, dinner and recreation; from 7 to 9 o'clock, study in the offices.

Distribution of studies in the offices.

Subjects.	Hours per week for each course.			
	First office, second section.	Second office, first section.	Second office.	Third office.
French	9	4½	2	.....
Mathematics	4½	4½	3½	3
Accounting	3	3	3½	3
Penmanship	2	2	2½	1
Commercial correspondence	.....	1	1	.....
Physical geography	2½	2	.....	.....
Commercial geography	.....	.....	3	3
History	2	2½	.....	.....
Commercial history	.....	.....	1½	1½
Physics	1½	1½	1	1½
Chemistry	1½	3	1½	1½
Mechanics	.....	.....	.....	1
Natural history	.....	1	.....	.....
Raw materials	.....	.....	1½	2
Technology	.....	.....	.....	1

[1] For programme of third year, consult syllabus of courses in the School of Higher Commercial Studies (second year of the regular course); also table on page 000.

Distribution of studies in the offices—Continued.

Subjects.	Hours per week for each course.			
	First office, second section.	Second office, first section.	Second office.	Third office.
Commercial law	1	1	1	1½
Fiscal legislation	----	----	1	----
Political economy	----	----	----	1½
Drawing	3	3	3	3
Stenography	----	----	1	----
German	3	4	4	3½
English	3	3	3	2½
Spanish	----	----	1	1
Italian	----	----	1	1
Industrial visits	----	----	----	3½
Total	36	36	36	36

The courses in each of the three offices are intrusted to a special professor. Each pupil must be present at all the courses of the office to which he belongs. The pupils take notes during the lectures of the professor, then study these notes in the offices and consult the books at their disposal; write up their notes carefully, which are then collected by the inspector to be submitted to the professor.

We have estimated that the pupils in the first office have a total of 900 lessons in the course of the school year; those of the second, 911; those of the third, 1,002, independent of the lessons in accomplishments, such as dancing, fencing, etc.

Commercial and industrial excursions.—Just as industrial instruction can only gain by becoming commercial, so commercial instruction strengthens itself by becoming industrial; consequently, the courses in industrial mechanics, technology, and raw materials assume considerable importance in the third office, and in order to reinforce the theoretical descriptions of the things which they have studied, the pupils in this office make frequent visits, under the conduct of an inspector, to the principal establishments of Paris and its environs. These visits are the themes of reports which the pupils make to their director upon each of these industries; reports which require careful supplementary studies in technical works in order to complete the notes which they have taken on the spot. It is evident that these weekly lessons, and the studies by which they are followed, train in an excellent way the observation and judgment of the pupil, by developing at the same time his theoretical and practical knowledge.

The Chamber of Commerce, always in pursuit of better things, has judged, however, that these Thursday excursions were not sufficient for the purpose. Certain industries, and, indeed, some of them very important, are not represented in the environs of Paris at all, notably the extractive and textile industries. The chamber consequently decided that each year, beginning with 1875, the pupils of the third office should make a commercial trip, in the month of April, under the conduct of the director of the school. The expenses of this trip, which amount to about 200 francs, must be defrayed by the pupils. This trip lasts about three weeks. They go ordinarily into the north of France and into Belgium, where the students study the principal factories of cotton and wool; the important coal mines, furnaces, etc. As soon as they have returned to the school, the pupils prepare a detailed account of their trip, which must be submitted on a given day to the director. These reports are in general very carefully prepared. The Chamber of Commerce in establishing these industrial trips decided at the same time to grant to the author of the best memoir, under the name of "traveling scholarship," the sum of 1,000 francs, which could be utilized in making a trip either in France or in a foreign country for the purpose of studying some questions proposed to him by the administrative council of the school. We have examined several of these essays, which were printed on account of their merit, and each of which reveals truly remarkable qualities of style, of method, and of scientific and economic observation. They give marked evidence of the solid character and excellence of the studies pursued by the young men who wrote them. The titles of a few of them follow: First, a report upon the cotton trade of England; second, a report upon the iron and steel trade in Great Britain; third, a report upon the trade and manufacture of linens in the British Isles; fourth, a report upon the trade and manufacture of woolens in Hamburg, Antwerp, London, and Havre; fifth, a report upon the coal trade in the north of France, Belgium, and England; sixth, a report upon the manufacture and trade in sugar; seventh, a report upon the silk trade and factories in France, Italy, and Switzerland.

IV.—Various Examinations.

Special examiners test each day a certain number of the pupils in the three offices upon the principal branches of instruction. General examinations are held every three months for the classification of the pupils, and immediately thereafter an abstract of the marks which each pupil has received for his conduct and his work is sent to the parents. Reports are, moreover, sent each month to the parents.

Final examinations.—The final examinations are, in general, conducted by well-known men, such as Levasseur and Frederic Passy, members of the institute; Alfred Blanche, former councillor of the State; Dr. Gariel, general engineer of roads and bridges and member of the Academy of Medicine; M. Le Coeuvre, professor at the Central School, etc.

The pupils are examined separately in the presence of the professor of the subject to which the examination relates. Each examiner has generally to test one-twentieth of the pupils. He employs for this purpose about a day, from which it may be seen that the examinations are taken in earnest.

The relative importance of each subject of instruction is determined by a coefficient by which the mark given by the examiner is to be multiplied. The products obtained for the different subjects are then added together, and the pupils are classified according to the number of points. Those who have obtained a sum total corresponding to the average mark of 12 on the scale of 20 receive a diploma printed on parchment, signed by the minister of commerce. The average mark of 12 is not easy to obtain, as many examiners mark very low.

To give an idea of the importance attached to each subject, we reproduce a table which served to determine the classification of a pupil who obtained the first diploma in 1884.

The number of points necessary to be obtained for this diploma was 2,568, which corresponded to the average mark of 12—that is to say, that it is equal to the product of 12 by the sum of the coefficient 214. It was the first time, we believe, that the average mark of 18.81 had been reached.

Subject.	Mark.	Coefficient.	Product.
German	*a* 18	18	324
English	16	16	356
Arithmetic and algebra	19	20	380
Industrial chemistry	18	14	252
Accounting	19	18	342
Drawing			
Commercial law	20	16	320
Political economy	20	14	280
Penmanship			
Spanish or Italian	20	12	240
Commercial geography	18.25	18	328.50
Commercial history	20	14	280
Raw materials	19	16	304
Mechanics	16	10	160
Applied physics	20	12	240
Technology	20	16	320

Total, 4,026.50; general average, 18.8111.

a Signification of marks from zero to 20 as follows:

Zero (0)....Failure.	6, 7, 8....Mediocre.	15, 16, 17....Good.
1, 2....Very bad.	9, 10, 11....Passable.	18, 19....Very good.
3, 4, 5....Bad.	12, 13, 14....Fair.	20....Perfect.

V.—Various Rewards, Means of Discipline, Diplomas, Certificates, Medals.

Diplomas.—Pupils of the third office who have completed their studies and passed with success the final examinations before the council of the school receive at the time of the distribution of the prizes a diploma of capacity, furnished by the school and signed by the minister of commerce, president of the council. Only good pupils pursue their studies through the third office, and their number amounts to from sixteen to twenty on the average. The number of pupils receiving diplomas is naturally smaller. The table below shows the number of graduates since 1869:

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1869	15	1873-74	13	1877-78	19	1881-82	10
1870-71	9	1874-75	16	1878-79	20	1882-83	14
1871-72	8	1875-76	18	1879-80	19	1883-84	14
1872-73	17	1876-77	17	1880-81	13	1884-85	11

Being a total of 233 graduates out of a total of 288 candidates.

Certificates.—The pupils of the third office who are not able to obtain a diploma receive a certificate of studies, signed by the president of the Chamber of Commerce. These are the only certificates which the school recognizes as official; both certify the completion of the course; partial certificates are not given.

Medals.—A certain number of medals are given as prizes each year to the pupils of the various offices by the ministry of commerce, the Chamber of Commerce, the Association of Commercial Geography, and the alumni association of the school. The medals are in gold, silver, and bronze for the third office, and in silver and bronze for the second and first offices. One of the prizes given by the Chamber of Commerce consists of a traveling scholarship of 1,000 francs, of which we have already spoken under the heading "Scholarships." Besides these prizes the "Stenographic Institute of the Two Worlds" gives special diplomas to those pupils who are most distinguished in the study of stenography.

General discipline.—The general regulations of the school are very precise; they are not severe, but they are observed with care and firmness. Even the form testifies to experience acquired in the long history of the school; we may mention prohibition of reading works relating to other than the subject of studies, card playing, etc,

The pupils who have obtained permission to be out must return by 10 o'clock in the evening during the winter, and half-past 10 during the summer. They present for the signature of the inspector an exeat, upon which they indicate the name and residence of the persons whom they wish to visit, as well as the hour of arriving and departing; this exeat must be signed by the parents of correspondents. A note is made of the exact hour of departure and the hour of return of each pupil on each occasion that he leaves the building. No students are permitted to leave the building during the working hours. Pupils who do not return at the hour prescribed are punished in the following way: For a tardiness of from five to ten minutes a half demerit; from fifteen to thirty minutes an entire demerit. The pupil, besides this, is deprived of a certain number of possible freedoms, and can even be expelled. The conversation room is open to persons authorized to visit the pupils every day from 11 in the morning until half-past 12; in the afternoon from 2 to half-past 2, and from 5 to 7 in the evening. Pupils can not be visited except in the conversation room.

There are also special rules for the studies; the various branches of work; the movements within the building; the policing of dormitories and other parts of the building, to which the pupils must conform. In the regulations in regard to classes we notice that every pupil dismissed from the room of a professor is given an entire demerit, and the general regulations say that formal refusal to obey incurs immediate suspension from the school. The pupils receive special blank books for the taking of notes. These blank books are inspected at each recitation by the professors and their assistants; the pupils write up these notes for certain courses. All bad work must be rewritten on Sunday. Any neglect of work is followed by a corresponding punishment. During the term examinations every pupil caught in copying any paper is marked and excluded from competition in the general classification. Under the regulations relating to studies we notice further some wise provisions whose rigid enforcement develops good work on the part of the resident pupils, and assures very marked superiority over the day pupils, whose work suffers in general from the too great freedom which is allowed them outside of the school.

In the regulations concerning dormitories we note that at half-past 5 in the morning a bell is rung once, as a signal for the pupils to rise; at 6 o'clock they report themselves for study, and every pupil coming in late incurs a punishment. They retire at 9 o'clock in the evening.

The Superior School of Commerce prescribes, therefore, for its resident pupils what would be for a workingman a real day's labor. To the credit of the resident pupils it should be noted that the gold medals, the great prizes, and the traveling scholarships are almost always taken by resident pupils.

The regulations of the dining hall say that at the sound of the bell which announces lunch or dinner the pupils must come into the refectory, marching two by two, in the order of the places which they occupy. Each master conducts the pupils of his office. During the meal the inspector exercises a general supervision.

The regulations in regard to study prescribe that each student while remaining in his chamber is forbidden to smoke or to read works not relating to his studies. The regulations concerning recreation say that pupils may remain in the office or may go into the library. They are called in turn and by groups to the gymnasium, to the dancing, fencing, and riding halls. The failure to appear in one's place incurs a punishment. Singing, yelling, whistling, and shouting are forbidden, and we know from the people who reside near the school that the conduct of the pupils in this respect is good. We may add that the supervision of the school is intrusted to five supervising masters, an under inspector and an inspector, whose intelligent and devoted assistance aid the director in the firm, fatherly application of these various rules.

Penalties.—The punishments which may be inflicted upon pupils are half demerits, demerits, and suspension from the school. The director and inspector are alone authorized to inflict punishments, upon the demand of the professors or supervising masters. The notebooks of the offices and the courses, the reports of conduct, with the special notes of the inspector, are submitted each evening to the eyes of the director, and give him, combined with the frequent visits in the various offices where he teaches himself, a complete knowledge of each pupil, whom he may thus guide according to his peculiarities and needs.

VI.—Administration, Receipts, Expenses.

The Superior School of Commerce is administered, as we have already said, by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, which delegates its powers to the council of administration, the actual composition of which is given below: President, Jules Piault; administrators, Fortier-Beaulieu, Jarlaud, Magnier, Mignon, Salmon, Weber; director of the school, J. Grelley.

Financial condition of the school.—Thanks to the experience, intelligence, and the constant efforts employed by the members of its council of administration and by the management, the Superior School of Commerce, famous for the solid character of the studies which are there pursued, as well as by its exemplary discipline and the comfort enjoyed by the pupils, is in an excellent financial condition.

Without entering into too great detail it will be sufficient to note that the Paris Chamber of Commerce purchased the clientele and the furniture of the school for the sum of 120,000 francs, in 1869, though it has expended since that time almost 100,000 francs on buildings, and that not only has the school always paid its way, but it has extinguished the greater portion of the original outlay, while paying an annual rental of 25,000 francs to the owner of the property, and not ceasing to give excellent accommodations to its resident and day pupils.

The budget of the school for 1886 is given below. This budget, which does not present any notable differences from those of the preceding years, will suffice for the purpose:

	Francs.
Receipts:	
From term fees of pupils	230,000
Expenses:	
Cost of administration	42,000
Salaries of professors	45,000
Food	70,000
Heating and lighting	8,500
Annual rental	25,000
Laundry	6,000
Advertising	3,000
Maintenance and repairs	8,000
Taxes	600
Payments on indebtedness	12,400
Various costs	9,500
Total	230,000

PERSONNEL OF THE SCHOOL.

The personnel of the Superior School of Commerce is composed of professors, examiners, physician, and instructors, including altogether some seventy persons. Such men as Levasseur, Passy, and Le Coeuvre figure in the list of examiners.

VII.—General Considerations.

If we cast a last glance upon the Superior School of Commerce, we shall see that this useful institution, which has served as a model not only for France, but for foreign countries as well, has never ceased to progress, without, however, leaving the line which was traced for it at the very beginning by men skilled in practical affairs, celebrated for their scientific labors, and who knew how to recognize the need of special instruction for youth destined for the commercial career. It is not unimportant to note in this connection that this school, due to the initiative of MM. Brodard and Legret, the School Blanqui, the School Gervais de Caen, the School of the Chamber of Commerce, directed by polytechnicians, has never varied from its commercial origin. It has remained a school of commerce, reserved for the preparation of superior employees, of trained merchants, of bankers, of managers, of commercial directors for industrial establishments, etc. The school has constantly endeavored in its career, with a perseverance and unity in view, worthy of remark, to unite

general and special instruction, to bind them one to the other in such a way as to constitute a homogeneous whole at once classic and scientific, whose parts should mutually assist and complement each other, whose distinct courses should be definitely related the one to the other, and form a whole like the various chapters of a book, the whole, of course, remaining always improvable.

One fact which proves the intimate and systematic connection of the courses is that those pupils who come out of the first office are ordinarily better prepared and do their work in a better way than those who, pressed by lack of time or by age, enter immediately the second course. One can easily understand that to follow with advantage the lessons of the two higher offices there is no better preparation than that of the school itself, for the reason that its programmes of instruction are combined into a single whole for the three years, of which the first parts are visibly and strongly attached to those which follow.

It is in the second office that the instruction, without ceasing to be general, becomes more special by the courses which relate directly to commerce. Besides this, in the second office the pupils, while carrying on the study of our own language, perfect themselves in the study of German and English and choose one of the southern languages, Italian or Spanish, in such a way as to learn finally three foreign languages. This study of foreign languages (a subject to which one has certainly up to the present not given the attention which it deserves either in schools of commerce or other schools) is facilitated in this school of the Rue Amelot, which is in a certain sense international in character, by the number of foreign pupils who daily assist the work of the professors by their conversations with their French comrades.

It is in the second office that the mathematical spirit, which must be at the basis of every calculation, commences to develop. Here reason takes the place of empirical methods which tend to arrest the development of intelligence, and the pupils treat all the questions which are submitted to them in a rational way. Advancing further, the professor must exercise them in the practice of rapid calculation and of mental calculation, whose utility in business is incontestable. The mathematical courses are excellently given at the Superior School of Commerce. What an excellent book MM. Brasilier, Margerie, or Grelley could make upon financial and commercial mathematics!

Mathematics and accounting, the pencil and the pen, complement each the other. The course in accounting advances in the second office from elementary work to practice. Here one applies the principles of accounting to commerce, to industry, and to banking. The professor instructs in the different usages of cities and markets; his course becomes a course in commerce; correspondence is carried on in several languages. Then there is commercial geography, a science, so to speak, entirely modern, and yet of the first importance in economic instruction.

Parallel with these the students learn, in the course on the history of commerce, how, under the vigorous and fruitful influences of commerce, the natural resources, the intellectual wealth of the nations, their political existence, etc., arise and grow. At the same time that they are studying the facts in which the commercial prosperity shows itself at different epochs and at different countries, the pupils have under their eyes, in the beautiful museum of commercial products, the natural products which are the bases of human exchanges, and the manufactured products which support these exchanges. In a word, it is by the combination of theoretical and practical lessons that they study the progress of commerce and of industry, that they follow its various stages from the earliest times down to the present; in a word, that they learn to know the economic evolution of humanity.

But the young merchant must have a just notion of his commercial duties and his commercial rights. He must also be instructed in the various taxes which are levied on merchandise, on exportations and importations; he must understand the mechanism of the tariff; he must be acquainted with our treaties of commerce with the great nations; finally, he can not afford to be ignorant of the organization of our system of taxes. He must understand their purpose, their necessity, their method of assessment and distribution. The courses in commercial and maritime law, supplemented by those in fiscal and tariff legislation, commercial statistics, etc., fill this gap in his education and present him admirably well prepared for the course in political economy which begins in the third office, and is the philosophic crown of the commercial sciences taught in the school.

In this body of useful knowledge the physical and natural sciences have also found a place and an application. Indeed, how could one give a good course in raw materials without basing it upon courses in natural history, physics, and chemistry? In the same way, would not a course in technology require a course in industrial mechanics, if it is to be at once intelligible and fruitful? All these branches of instruction are closely related, and their practical administration must be preceded by theoretical studies. Moreover, noblesse oblige, one can not limit one's self in a superior school to the examination, pure and simple, of raw materials and commercial products. And then, from merely practical considerations, one must teach the

pupils in the second and third offices the chemical compositions of the leading substances, the physical conditions under which they are produced, and the mechanical principles employed in their various transformations. The merchant of to-day, like the manufacturer, must become acquainted with the scientific methods which clear his judgment, develop his intelligence, and prepare him finally to discover adulterations either in raw materials or manufactured products. This scientific part of the instruction of the school is reenforced in the third office by the commercial and industrial visits made every Thursday to the establishments of Paris and its environs, as well as by the annual trip to the north of France and Belgium, where all the leading industries are studied, under the experienced guidance of the director.

Conclusion.—To determine upon the different courses of study, to arrange the programmes of these studies, to improve them without ceasing by watching over their intelligent development in the classes, by choosing skilled professors adapted to the methods of instruction, and by maintaining with a firm hand the necessary discipline in every direction; all this is without doubt important. But this alone would be insufficient to realize the ideas of the Paris Chamber of Commerce and to preserve the ancient traditions of the sort of a school which we have been discussing. Following a more elevated purpose than even this, the object of this school has always been not merely the creation of a scientific body of commercial instruction, but that of an economic education based upon moral principles. "Get rich" is a motto which needs numerous corrections. A merchant must be twice honest—honest as a citizen, and honest by profession. If nothing is more difficult in the world than to get money, nothing is easier than to lose that which one has gained without labor. Fortunes which grow too rapidly disappear of themselves. Those which are the result of patient labor and honesty are less exposed to adversity, because their possessors, more prudent, guard them more carefully from danger.

We find the motto of this school summed up in the simple words: "Be good, be laborious, be persevering," pronounced by M. Gustave Roy, then president of the chamber of commerce, on an occasion of distributing the prizes of the school.

"Perseverance," he added, "is indispensable to him who wishes to advance. Set before yourself a clear, well-defined end; let nothing turn you from it. Be honest; be led on every occasion by that inward light which is called 'conscience.' Consult it, and when you ask it, if it hesitates, abstain. For in all which is right, loyal, and honest it will never, believe me, show any hesitation. In regulating your lives in this way you will find your reward in the confidence, the consideration, and the credit which you will inspire. A merchant should be honest from calculation, if not from the sense of duty."

To these counsels full of wisdom, to these words marked with the seal of experience, M. Grelley, director of the school, added the following:

"A condition essential to success in business, I do not fear to say it, is ambition. The merchant or the manufacturer who desires only a modest subsistence lacks energy—lacks the great fire necessary to success. In this age of steam and electricity there is no place for the indolent. Success is for those who, to the two essential qualities of order and economy, add the love of labor and the firm resolution to succeed." And he added, in words not less excellent, "I would warn you against a fault unhappily too common with young people who are just starting out in life. Many people have what I should call a 'clerical' character; they arrive in the morning at their labor, do exactly that which they are directed to do, and wait patiently for that which they call the hour of 'liberty' when evening comes. For these there is no such thing as success; they will remain employees throughout their lives. The employee who wishes to succeed must devote himself without ceasing to the affairs which are intrusted to him; he must treat them as his own; he must go before the hour of beginning work, and finish up in the evening that which he has not been able to do in the daytime. This sort of a man is sure to succeed if he adds to these qualities order and economy."

Commerce oblige is, then, the motto of this school. Honesty is a real force, like order, economy, and persevering labor.

The commerce of France can only increase by the study and practice of probity, and it is through such a school as this that such ideas will pass into commercial life, and that an experimental demonstration will be made that probity is synonymous with skill and success.

* * * * * * *

To sum up the characteristics of the Superior School of Commerce: It has based commercial instruction upon solid scientific instruction. From this point of view the programmes of this school are the most complete of any which we have had the pleasure of seeing. A great part of the problem of commercial instruction appears, then, to us to have been solved at the Superior School of Commerce at Paris, which has had the honor of training, since its foundation, more than 6,000 financiers, man-

ufacturers, superior employees, etc., scattered throughout all the countries of the world, and among whom we could name a large number of eminent men in various departments.

VIII.—The Alumni Association of the Superior School of Commerce.

Origin.—Various graduates of the Superior School of Commerce have attempted from time to time to create an association among the alumni of this ancient school. But it was very difficult to reknit the broken threads among the members of so many generations who had experienced so many different fortunes, and were scattered, since the foundation of the school in 1820, thoughout the entire commercial world.

In 1872, a year which witnessed the rise of an extremely favorable movement to schools of commerce, the students of the third office finally succeeded in forming a society. Guided by certain former graduates, among whom was the eminent economist, Joseph Garnier, and aided by the counsel of their first president, M. Paul Lafitte, they succeeded in creating a society, the utility of whose work we are just beginning to appreciate.

Services and progress.—The association, founded by 17 members, includes to-day more than 650 members. The following table shows the annual increase:

Year.	Members.	Year.	Members.
1872	77	1879	470
1873	225	1880	499
1874	288	1881	520
1875	316	1882	575
1876	365	1883	594
1877	414	1884	616
1878	454	1885	633

The original association has not undergone any notable change, but each year has marked, so to speak, a stage in the moral development of the society. The purpose of the union is: First, to cultivate the friendly relations formed at the school; second, to utilize the relations thus created for the development of commerce and industry; third, to aid former pupils by assisting them after graduation and facilitating their finding of positions; fourth, to assist unfortunate comrades. The former pupils of the school and pupils in the third office may be members of the union. The annual fee is 10 francs; one may become a life member by paying at one time the sum of 100 francs. The title of "Donor" is given to those who pay 200 francs at one time.

The management is composed of twelve graduate members, and one member from the third office. It regulates the disposition of the funds, decides upon requests for assistance, and supervises the publications of the society. From the first year of its organization the union has granted an annual prize in political economy for the best pupil in each subject.

At its instigation a traveling scholarship was founded by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, and given to a gradnate of the third year.

The union also names corresponding members at important points in various parts of the earth for the purpose of gathering commercial information. These correspondents also serve as patrons to those members of the society who have newly come to their respective places.

In 1876 a quarterly Bulletin was established, which soon became very prosperous, and furnished to the members of the society interesting papers upon economic subjects, as well as upon facts relating to the society. This publication has recently become a monthly. The society has published, besides, a yearbook since it was founded. By the publication of its Bulletin the union has established connections with various learned and commercial societies, notably the Geographical Society, the Society of Geographical Commerce at Paris, the Scientific Society of France, the Alumni Society of the School of Arts and Metiers.

The banquet, established at the beginning of the society, assembles each year the most devoted members of the union. In 1882 its president, N. Detre, invited the presidents of similar societies in Lyons, Rouen, and Havre, founded upon the model of that of Paris, to take part in the annual banquet of the union in Paris, or to send delegates. It was decided at this banquet to organize a syndicate of the alumni society of the superior schools of commerce in France, which furnishes a new proof that there is utility beyond the commercial in such societies.

The presidency of the syndicate of the alumni society is vested in the president of the Paris union. It was in this double capacity that M. Deligny submitted in March, 1884, the demand for a new syndical grouping. Accompanied by M. Pathier, a

former president, and M. René Le Roy, vice-president of the union, M. Deligny was called to testify before a parliamentary investigating committee, consisting of forty-four members. He insisted strongly upon the necessity of giving to commercial instruction equal advantages to those governmental schools which are endowed by the Government.

Representations were also made to the ministry of marine to obtain traveling scholarships under the same conditions as the society for the encouragement of commerce and industry, and M. Deligny received a formal promise that the State would subscribe a sum equal to that which should be subscribed for this purpose by the societies interested.

In February, 1885, M. Rouvier, minister of commerce, accepted the presidency of the banquet of the union, and promised his high assistance to the various purposes pursued by the syndicate.

Among the numerous evidences of the activity of this alumni society we cite further the foundation of the Conference Adolph Blanqui, a society for commercial and industrial study, whose purpose is to develop among the future graduates the taste for further study and the verbal discussion of questions relating to commerce and industry.

The tribunal of Paris, appreciating the good purpose of the Conference Blanqui, offered it a place of meeting, which the alumni society did not hesitate to accept on behalf of the conference.

Faithful to its purpose and full of solicitude for its members, the society assists them, aids them either in their search for positions or in their commercial careers, by means of the numerous relations which are maintained through the various reunions, by the publication of its Annual and by its Bulletin, and, finally, if misfortune overtakes one of its members the society is always on hand. Moreover, the last word in regard to this brotherly side of the society has not been said. M. Deligny proposed the organization of a circle which should increase still more the development of friendly and commercial relations, and M. Detre then proposed more material reunions for the same purpose.

The publication of the Bulletin, as stated above, has just become a monthly. Finally, we may say that M. René Le Roy, the present president of the society, has submitted to the management a scheme already carried out in part—to form a sort of benefit treasury in favor of comrades who are momentarily embarrassed in their business affairs.

2.—THE SCHOOL OF HIGHER COMMERCIAL STUDIES IN PARIS.

I.—History of the Foundation of the School and its Subsequent Development.

The first idea of the creation of this school should be ascribed to the Paris Chamber of Commerce, which as early as 1866 took up the question of organizing an establishment of higher commercial instruction, complementary to its higher primary institution in the Avenue Trudaine. In 1867 the death of Mr. Gervais, of Caen, proprietor and director of the Superior School of Commerce, turned the attention of the chamber from the idea of establishing a school, and fixed it upon the purchase of an establishment which already enjoyed a universal reputation, and which had become a successful business enterprise in the hands of its director.

We have described in the preceding pages how the Chamber of Commerce got possession of the old school of Adolph Blanqui, and with what satisfactory results.

The idea of establishing a so-called "school of higher commercial studies" was, however, simply put off by this move and not abandoned. It was a subject of consideration under the presidency of M. Houette, then under that of Guibal, but it was under the presidency of M. Gustave Roy that the Paris Chamber of Commerce undertook to solve all the difficulties involved in so costly and important a foundation.

We owe it to historical truth to say that the project of the Chamber of Commerce met only a feeble response from public opinion, a thing which should not be an occasion of surprise, considering the general feeling in respect to everything concerning commercial studies, and the marked indifference which our Governments, imbued with the old university spirit, have showed down to the very present in regard to commercial instruction. Through a learned society, the Oriental Atheneum of Paris, an endeavor was made to stir up an interest in this question in 1875, starting from the principle that the business relations of nations are developed as a direct consequence of the elevation of their intellectual level. This society in the provincial session at St. Éteinne discussed the creation in France of an institution of higher commercial studies. Besides this the National Society in Lyons, sharing in the same view, resolved to examine this question from all aspects by examining as fully as possible into the details of its execution. It even named a special commission for the purpose of drawing up a set of questions to be submitted to eminent men at home and abroad.

Without entering into further details, we must limit ourselves to calling attention to the general tenor of the discussion in the Oriental Atheneum of Paris, and to certain interesting points raised by the commission of inquiry.

After having expressed the view that a superior institute of commerce ought to be founded in France for the purpose of offering to the graduates of the commercial schools, to the consulate cadets, and also to other young people of adequate preliminary education, the complementary knowledge necessary to create and consolidate new relations with foreign merchants, the Oriental Atheneum defined more especially the following as the necessary complement to these studies:

First, comparative legislation of different nations; second, instruction in the languages most used in the great commercial centers of Asia, India, China, and Japan; third, courses of philosophy and æsthetics as applied to commerce, showing the influence of commerce upon the civilization, the ideas, manners, and power of a country, and intended to develop in the students those intellectual and moral qualities which are capable of dignifying the professional merchant.

The Oriental Atheneum demanded in addition a course in the history of commerce among all peoples, ancient and modern; a complementary course in geography, comprising agricultural, industrial, mineral, and commercial statistics of all countries; a study of the present treaties of commerce; a complete study of the means of transportation on land and water, as also of all the means of correspondence, such as the post, telegraph, etc. It also raised the question whether one could not insist that the Government should demand of candidates for consulships the diploma of the Superior Institute of Commerce. Finally it raised the question whether this institution ought to be organized like the Central School of Paris, which takes its pupils throughout the entire day, or whether it would not be better if the pupils were obliged to be present only at particular courses, as in the faculties of law and medicine. Also what would be the best means of controlling and stimulating the work of the pupils; how long the course should be; whether the minimum age for admission should be fixed at 18; whether the students provided with a diploma at the Superior School should be admitted without examination, and whether the degree of bachelor should be accepted from those pupils not provided with such a diploma; what city of France would be best adapted for the location of such a school; what capital would be required; from what source it could be drawn, etc.

On the other hand the National Society of Education at Lyons proposed the following questions:

First, whether an institute of higher commercial studies would be a useful and timely complement to the superior schools of commerce; second, whether this institution could assist in completing the instruction of consulate cadets and commercial agents attached to diplomatic missions; third, whether the institution should be founded on the principle of freedom of superior instruction, or whether they should demand that the State should establish it, or whether it would not be better to adopt the mixed system, in which the State should come to the aid of private initiative. This society closed its report by expressing the following view: "The National Society of Education at Lyons having heard the report of the commission upon the proposal to found in France an institute of higher commercial studies, believing that this new organ of instruction would form a happy and even necessary complement to the actual organization of superior schools of commerce; considering further that it would contribute powerfully to enlarge, elevate, and dignify the respective commercial and administrative callings; considering that the principle of the plan is not denied and that its timeliness is sufficiently well established by the facts produced in the report, and that its realization is not beyond the efforts of private initiative, hereby adopts the report of the commission, and charges its president with communicating the same to each of the chambers of commerce in Paris, Lyons, and Marseilles, with the request to consult upon the means of insuring the execution of the project."

The discussion of the various points raised by the members of the Oriental Atheneum of Paris and those of the National Society of Education at Lyons, each one of which threw some light upon the question, would show it to be very complex. Everything goes to show that the view expressed by the Congress of St. Étienne; the list of questions which were prepared; the final report upon the answers obtained to the questions, and the monograph by M. L. Desgrands, of Lyons, upon the same question, have contributed to persuade the chamber of Paris to take the initiative in the agitation and to put in execution with its own resources a project which it had considered for so long a time.

FOUNDATION OF THE SCHOOL.

In the sessions of the 8th of May and the 24th of July, 1878, the Paris Chamber of Commerce sketched out the plan of the School for Higher Commercial Studies, and decided upon the underlying principles. Shortly after the chamber named a

commission composed of Messrs. Jacques Siegfried, Focillon, and Michau, for the purpose of preparing plans of construction for the school, and what was still more important, its programme of studies, a function which could not have been confided to more competent men.

On the 17th of May, 1880, a decree authorized the Chamber of Commerce to borrow the necessary money for the construction of the school. Finally, the inauguration of the new establishment took place on the 4th of December, 1881, in the great amphitheater of the school under the presidency of M. Gustave Roy, president of the Paris Chamber of Commerce. There were also present Messrs. Léon Say, president of the Senate; Rouvier, minister of commerce and of the colonies, and Allain Targé, minister of finances; and the whole Paris Chamber of Commerce, justly proud of having expended over two millions with a liberal hand in constructing a school of commerce, the most beautiful, the most spacious, the best arranged possible; for which school its members were happy to do the honors to the parliamentary, administrative, industrial, and commercial interest of the country.

Purpose of the school.—The Paris Chamber of Commerce, it is certain, had no intention to create a competitor to its own Superior School of Commerce in rue Amelot, but desired to found an establishment of another type, a sort of faculty or central school of commerce, to which, as M. Gustave Roy said on the day of inauguration, the purpose was to attract young men of family who had completed their classical studies. We find, moreover, that the purpose of the foundation of this school is well defined by the Chamber of Commerce itself in the report which it presented on the 15th of February, 1879, to the ministry of agriculture and commerce, and in which it expressed itself on this point as follows:

"The school is destined, in the thought of the chamber, to give supplementary instruction to the children of the bourgeoisie, who propose upon completing the college to take up a commercial career. The purpose of the chamber is to give to such young men the practical notions of the means by which order and clearness are brought into the commercial world, whose general mechanism will have been explained to them beforehand, and to impress a lofty character upon that instruction which comprehends those modern sciences underlying the necessities of international commerce." According to the same report the chamber proposed to organize an establishment capable of caring for from 250 to 500 pupils. The first of these figures would permit it to cover its expenses at the price of 1,000 francs a year per pupil; the second would assure it the necessary supplementary resources for new growth, and would furnish it an excess of receipts which could be devoted to further improvements.

According to these anticipations, a little optimistic, the necessary grounds for the construction of the school were estimated to be about 5,000 square meters.

Situation of the school.—The School of Higher Commercial Studies is situated at 108 Boulevard Malesherbes, and occupies a site containing 5,910.99 meters, which the chamber purchased at the price of 517,000 francs. Apropos of this action and in response to certain criticisms which have been made on the wasteful extravagance of the chamber in the purchase of such expensive grounds, it must be said that the acquisition of this site was not by any means in itself a bad stroke of business, for at the present hour it is worth at least three times that sum, and there is every reason to believe that in fifty years, the epoch at which the money borrowed must be repaid, the site will be worth at least 2,000,000 francs. It will be sufficient, then, for the school to cover its expenses during this period, for the chamber to have profited finally to the amount of two millions on this operation, and for its generous action to be converted into a profitable stroke of business. This view is correct, in our opinion.

The magnificent buildings of the school, the construction of which was open to general competition, embrace, besides the rooms of administration, the dwellings of the director, of the instructors of studies, etc., 2 grand amphitheaters, 12 study halls or offices, 10 examination halls, the museum of products, the laboratory, the library, business hall, a large refectory for 300 pupils, 24 spacious and well-ventilated chambers for resident students, a hall for sports, large courts, etc.

Development of the school.—The School of Higher Commercial Studies was opened on the 3d of November, 1881. The increase in the number of students may be seen from the following table:

Year.	Pupils.	Bachelors.*a*	Foreigners.	French.
1881–82	50	17	10	40
1882–83	92	35	13	79
1883–84	108	38	10	98
1884–85	117	45	8	109
1885–86	128	51	10	118

a Graduates of lycées.

This table indicates a steady growth, which will certainly increase, owing to the establishment of a preparatory division, a creation somewhat in contradiction, it is true, with the title of the school, but which will certainly be favorable to an increase of attendance.

It will be noticed that the number of foreigners has not increased in proportion to the growth of attendance. There may be different opinions upon this subject. We believe that the presence of foreign pupils in the French School of Commerce, while it shows that the reputation of the school is extended beyond our frontiers, is also a condition peculiarly favorable to instruction in foreign languages.

The pupils for the school year 1885–86 were classified as follows: Preparatory, 15; first year, 67; second year, 46.

Finally, the number of the pupils at the superior school of Rue Amelot, not having been affected by the creation of the School of Higher Commercial Studies, at least to the extent which one might have feared, we conclude that a real service has been rendered to the development of our higher commercial instruction, which was in danger of being hindered from having no place in the only superior school which the capital of France possessed. In order to judge wisely of things it is necessary to take a high point of view, and this is what the Paris Chamber of Commerce has done in showing itself resolved to wait patiently for the definite results which it pursues and which will be the work of time and of steady effort, and of the growth of ideas.

II.—Scholarships—Government of the School.

Besides those young people of family, who, having completed their studies, enter upon active work, preferring labor to idleness, the Chamber of Commerce desired to see in this school also those who, less favored by fortune, have the intelligence, courage, and the will to advance. It is certain that the mixture of these two elements and the good fellowship that is the consequence of intercourse between the classes, have always produced the best results.

Scholarships and semischolarships have consequently been asked for and obtained for the benefit of the new school. The founders are numerous. The ministry of commerce and the Chamber of Commerce have established ten each; one or more each have been founded by the following: Le Conseil Municipal de Paris, la Banque de France, le Crédit Foncier, le Comptoir d'Escompte, la Société Générale, le Crédit Lyonnais, le Crédit Industriel et Commercial, la Chambre Syndicale des Agents de change, l'Union des Banquiers de Paris et de la Province, la Compagnie Générale des Omnibus, la Compagnie Transatlantique, la Compagnie du Gaz, le Gouvernement de la Guadeloupe, le Département de la Seine-Inférieure, la Chambre de Commerce de Phillipeville, MM. Gustave Roy, Dietz-Monnin, A. Poirier, Jacques Siegfried, Ch. Noël, Fould, Lebaudy, Cousté, Honette, Pestel, and finally, the banking house of the Rothschild brothers and Madame Menier, who have given the capital for a perpetual scholarship, producing a yearly income of 1,000 francs.

It is interesting to note that the Chamber of Commerce of Phillipeville established a scholarship. This is an example which we are happy to mention in this place. We wish that all the chambers of commerce would understand that it is their duty to encourage and assist commercial instruction by the establishment of scholarships in the existing schools of commerce, while waiting for that which would be preferable, namely, the establishment of new schools of commerce in their own cities.

The various kinds of scholarships.—The school grants official scholarships, private scholarships, and remissions of tuition. The official scholarships granted by the State and the city of Paris, are so-called external scolarships, open to general competition for those young people whose parents are unable to pay the price of board. The prize scholarships are assigned by the founders to the candidates they designate. The remissions of tuition are granted by the administrators of the school; they vary from 250 to 500 francs.

The price of board at the school, including tuition, is 2,800 francs for the resident students; 1,300 for the so-called "half-residents" or day pupils. Every pupil who has obtained an external sholarship can become a resident pupil by the payment of 1,800 francs. Every pupil who has obtained a remission of 500 francs can become a resident pupil by the payment of 2,300 francs, or a day pupil by the payment of 800 francs. Every pupil who has obtained a remission of 250 francs can become a resident pupil by the payment of 2,550 francs, or can pursue the studies as a day pupil by the payment of 1,050 francs.

Government or city scholarships.—Those young men, whether bachelors, i. e., graduates of lycées, or not, who desire to obtain a Government or city scholarship, are compelled to enter into competition. The candidates must be of French birth, and have completed their sixteenth year at the time of the examination. Candidates for the scholarships of the city of Paris must be residents of Paris. Five Government scholarships are put up each year for competition. A notice inserted in the official

journal indicates the date of the written examination, and is held at the following cities: Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Rouen, Lille, Nantes, Nancy, and Dijon.

Vacations.—The vacation comprises about three months each year, from the 1st day of August to the 1st day of November. The preparatory class begins a month sooner.

Work during vacations.—During vacations the pupils must prepare, according to a plan issued by the school, a paper which represents at least a month's work, amounting to eight hours a day. This paper must be prepared from a point of view essentially commercial; technology, the description of machines, must have only a secondary place.

Those papers are considered the best which indicate the sources from which the information is drawn; the geographical situation of the establishments visited; the names of the persons familiar with the subjects discussed, and those which give at the same time the figures relating to production, consumption, importation, and exportation of the raw materials or the manufactured products studied.

Organization of the school.—The school receives resident and day pupils; foreigners are admitted on the same conditions as natives. The course is opened on the first Monday in November; the length of the course, which, like that of schools at Antwerp, Havre, and Bordeaux, has been two years up to the present, will shortly be extended to three years. Beginning with the 3d of November, 1885, a preparatory class was opened for those pupils who wished to prepare themselves to enter the first year of the course.

It is hardly necessary to say that we approve of this feature, which we have already praised in various connections in discussing the schools of Havre and Bordeaux. So long as commercial instruction is not systematically organized into primary, secondary, and superior schools, the higher schools will have an interest in organizing in connection with themselves such preparatory classes as will insure for them well-prepared pupils. Such a class has long been a feature of the Superior School of Commerce at Paris.

The cost of board and tuition has been fixed as follows: For the preparatory year the price for day pupils is 1,000 francs, plus 300 francs for lunch, which is obligatory; the price for resident pupils is 2,200 francs. In the regular course, both in the first and second year, the price for day pupils is the same as in the preparatory class; that for resident pupils is 2,800 francs. The incidental costs for both classes of pupils amount to about 120 francs a year; these are necessary expenditures, even for those pupils holding scholarships.

III.—Instruction, Division of the Curriculum, Distribution of the Hours.

Instruction.—The Paris Chamber of Commerce desires that the instruction at the School of Higher Commercial Studies should respond to the needs of modern business, which demand of the merchant a very extensive preparation as well as an education capable of developing in him a feeling of the elevated rôle devolving upon commerce in the upward movement of civilization and progress. "It has seemed to us," said M. Gustave Roy, at that time president of the Chamber of Commerce, in his inaugural address at the opening of the school, "that commercial instruction must be advanced in proportion as science advances. That is why we have founded the School of Higher Commercial Studies. For too long a time in France commerce has been considered as an inferior career; it is time to protest against this idea, and to show that the vocations of merchants and bankers demand as much intelligence as any other. It is time for us to impress upon the minds of our youth those truths which the previous course of their education has concealed from them. We have the faith; we shall have the patience. Just and fruitful ideas make way slowly but surely. For our part, as the advance guards of the commerce of Paris, in which the commercial and financial life of France is centralized, let us study its wants and prepare its future. We have learned in commerce as well as in politics to have no fear of liberty, and it is in these ideas that the Chamber of Commerce asks its professors to train the youth."

It is worth while quoting these words of an experienced man, expressing his own opinion and that of the chamber over which he presided, upon a creation which had cost enormous sacrifices. In this case words did not precede acts; they followed them. The capital of France, endowed with a new and superior school, may now say to its friends that "the economic education of their children need never again be ignored in the difficult struggle which they must sustain. This education is as essential to the demands of modern commerce as military education is to that of war. We have no wish that you should be any longer deprived of this on account of the lack of schools and trained professors. Our former school is full; here is a still larger one. Fill it! Show us that we have not outrun the public demand."

We emphasize the point that the chamber of commerce, impressed with the insufficiency of the services rendered to commerce by consuls, and attributing rightly this insufficiency to their lack of economic knowledge, has opened in the direction of the consulate career a new outlet for the pupils of its schools. We find these views squarely announced in the report of M. Gustave Roy upon the programme of studies of the school. "The chamber," he said, "wishes to fill a want of the public administration in preparing young men who shall be able to represent France in its consulates." It is very certain that with this idea the instruction of the new school was reenforced by new courses in law and legislation.

Programme of studies.—The programme of studies, the very title itself given to the school, shows that it was intended to be as advanced as possible. The report of M. Gustave Roy sketches very judiciously its great outlines. At every point in the detailed examination of the question and constitution of the programme itself one is forced to recognize that the programme of studies, tested since 1820 in the Superior School of Commerce and recently brought up to the level of modern knowledge and needs by M. Schwaeblé, aided by the council of administration of the school, furnished at almost every point the desiderata of an advanced course. It was, in consequence, this latter curriculum, slightly amended and strengthened upon the side of law and legislation, which was adopted. Without doubt, as M. Jacques Siegfried advised in his "Memoir," it would not have been a bad idea for the committee to have studied in addition the curricula of the schools of Antwerp, Lyons, Havre, and Marseilles, but for lack of time this was not done.

The result is, therefore, that the School of Higher Commercial Studies and the Superior School of Commerce at Paris instruct in almost exactly the same subjects. It is true the organization of the two establishments is different, and each one has its own particular physiognomy which distinguishes it. But that which concerns the public chiefly is results. Emulation has resulted from the rivalry, and this will certainly be a benefit. We wish, therefore, that at that time, when the schools of commerce shall be organized as parts of a single plan, that there shall be established between the pupils of these schools annual competitions upon the theory as well as upon the application of the studies to the purposes intended, competition which would permit us to judge of the methods and value of each school to the great benefit of the progress of economic commercial instruction. But we shall touch upon this question later.

Preparatory schools.—The method of instruction in the School of Higher Commercial Studies is based upon oral lessons in the class room and upon subsequent examinations relating to the subject-matter of the courses. The length of the course, as we have said, is to-day three years. Of it, one year is the preparatory class, and two years are given to the normal or higher classes.

The programme of the subjects in the preparatory division is fixed by that of admission to the first year of the normal course and embraces French, elements of one foreign language, mathematics, algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, elementary natural history, history of France, and general geography. This course is common to the candidates for admission into the first year of the normal course and to the candidates who desire to compete for the day scholarships.

Normal course—first year.—The studies of the first year comprise accounting, mathematics, geography, the study of merchandise, commercial analyses, political economy, the various branches of law in their relation to commerce, penmanship, and foreign languages—one southern and one northern language, at the choice of the pupils.

Second year.—Pupils continue the study of the subjects begun in the first year and take up in addition the history of commerce; budgetary, tariff, and fiscal legislation; the study of transportation; the importance of harbors, railroads, waterways, canals, docks, etc. Below is given the programme of the studies and the number of hours given to each branch.

This programme offers in its entirety the elements of excellent economico-commercial instruction, such as we should like to see in the near future in high honor among us. For it would quickly form a nursery of young merchants able to develop our domestic and foreign commerce at the same time that it would develop for the future a solid body of judges prepared for the work of the commercial tribunals of consuls, possessing knowledge of commercial affairs and able to render us great services in foreign countries; of properly trained teachers and of experienced accountants and administrators, of whom we foresee that France will have great need whenever we shall determine to apply resolutely a reasonable system and the principles of administrative economy to the conduct of the affairs of the nation.

Distribution of the hours.—In the preparatory class the school day begins at quarter past 8 o'clock and closes at half past 4. The day pupils may remain at the school until half past 6 to do their work upon paying a supplementary fee of 15 francs a month.

The following table shows the curriculum as it was in 1886; the tables and synopsis on page 787 and following show the curriculum in 1893:

PREPARATORY CLASS.

	Hours per week.		Hours per week.
French language and style	4	Geography	3
Mathematics and practical geometry	5	English or German language	5
Physics, chemistry, and natural history	3	Drawing	3
Accounting and elementary notions of law	3	Penmanship	3
History	1½	Examinations	2
		Instructive walks and visits	4
		Total	36½

REGULAR COURSE—FIRST AND SECOND YEARS.

Accounting, 8 hours per week in each class throughout the year.
Mathematics, 3 hours per week in first class throughout the year.
Mathematics, 1½ hours per week in second class throughout the year.
Study of merchandise, 3 hours per week in each class throughout the year.
Tests of merchandise, 2 hours per week in first class (second semester).
Tests of merchandise, 1 hour per week in second class.
History of commerce, 1½ hours per week in second class throughout the year.
Commercial geography, 1½ hours per week in each class throughout the year.
Civil code and civil procedure, 3 hours per week in first class throughout first term.
Commercial, industrial, and maritime law, 3 hours per week in first class from the end of February to end of June.
Commercial, industrial, and maritime law, 3 hours per week in second class throughout the year.
Budgetary, fiscal, and tariff legislation, 3 hours per week in second class throughout first term.
Commercial legislation of foreign countries, 1½ hours per week in second class throughout third term.
Political economy, 1½ hours per week in first class throughout the year.
Study of transportation, 1½ hours per week in second class throughout third term.
Equipment and commercial material, 1½ hours per week in second class throughout third term.
English and German languages, 5 hours per week in each class throughout the year.
Spanish or Italian or Portuguese, 3 hours per week in each class throughout the year.
Penmanship, 30 hours per week in first class.
Penmanship, 20 hours per week in second class (distributed throughout the year).
Commercial visits, 4 hours per week in each class (beginning with January).

IV.—Various Examinations.

Preparatory class.—Candidates who have completed their fifteenth year are admitted into this division without special examinations, and at any time during the year. This class is destined to train pupils for the first year of the regular course.

Regular course.—First and second year. Those young men furnished with a diploma of bachelor of letters or sciences, also the bachelor of special secondary instruction, may enter directly and without examination upon the work of the first year. No student is admitted directly to the second year's work. The entrance examinations to the first year take place from the 15th to the 30th of October of each year in the buildings of the school. This examination is divided into two parts, written and oral.

The written examination consists of the following: First, an essay (one and one-half hours); second, a mathematical subject (two hours); third, the translation, with the aid of a dictionary, of a French text into English or German at the choice of the candidate (one hour).

The oral examination comprises: First, arithmetic, algebra, and geometry; second, physics, chemistry, and natural history; third, general geography; fourth, the history of France; fifth, explanation of an English or German text.

All the subjects comprised in this programme are equally obligatory. Candidates whose knowledge upon any one of the subjects is considered insufficient can not be admitted. The topics for the written composition can be taken from any subject in the programme. A correct style, a regular and legible handwriting are essential conditions.

Besides a certificate of vaccination and of certificates proving the age (the completed sixteenth year being the lowest year accepted) and the morality of the candidate, those persons who wish to take part in the examination must send to the director of the school before the 15th of October a request to that effect upon stamped paper, declaring their intentions, and also stating whether or not they desire a day scholarship. After the close of the examination the list of pupils admitted is definitely fixed by the council of administration of the school upon the proposition of the examining board, and published in the official journal.

Foreign pupils must furnish references to their consuls. They are admitted to the school in consequence of a special examination intended to determine whether they can follow successfully the course of study.

Special examinations.—The method of instruction in the School of Higher Commercial Studies is based, as we have already said, upon oral lessons and very frequent examinations. A table posted in the school indicates to the pupils the dates of these special examinations, which take place at least twice a week; one upon foreign languages, and one upon other subjects of instruction in the programme.

The rules of the school prescribe that no pupil may be required to pass more than three special examinations and more than two general examinations in the same week. Two pupils enter at the same time the office of the examiner. The pupil who has just been examined goes out and informs his comrade who stands next to him upon the list that his turn has arrived. The examiner assures himself that the note books of the subject upon which it is his business to examine are kept up to date, that the graphical and statistical sketches are made with care, and he puts to the pupils who come before him such questions as are intended to ascertain whether the lessons in the school room have been studied and understood. He then gives a mark which figures in the certificate of the pupil.

Papers and reports.—Besides their examinations the pupils are required to write twice a month a paper or report upon a topic assigned by the management, and relating to some subject of instruction in the programme. The subjects assigned for these papers are posted up for eight days; they bear the date of the day when they must be presented by the student.

General examinations.—The general examinations cover the entire instruction in the course. They take place at the end of each course. The questions relating to each subject are drawn by the pupil by lot. The marks for the general examinations in each subject are counted individually, as well as the average of the special examinations. The general average of the student is based upon the average of the special examinations and the marks of the general examinations.

Marks.—The value of the marks is fixed according to the table below:

Zero (0).....Failure.	7, 8.....Feeble.	14, 15, 16.....Good.
1, 2, 3.....Very bad.	9, 10, 11.....Passable.	17, 18, 19.....Very good.
4, 5, 6.....Bad.	12, 13.....Fair.	20.....Perfect.

Classification of pupils.—The marks obtained in the general and special examinations serve for the classification of pupils at Easter and at the close of the year, periods at which reports are sent to the parents. The classification at Easter is provisional; the classification of July serves to establish the passing rank from the first to the second year. No pupil can pass from the first to the second year unless he has obtained a general average of at least 9.

The final classification is based upon the combined general average of the examinations of the first year, which count for one-fourth, and upon that of the examinations of the second year, which count for three-fourths. To obtain a certificate one must have reached a general minimum average of 10. To obtain a diploma one must have reached at the end of the second year a general minimum average of 13. The report of classification given to each pupil contains, in connection with the subjects of instruction, two columns of marks; the one receiving the general average of the special examinations, the other the marks of the general examinations. The marks appearing in these two columns are added together respectively, and each of the sums thus obtained is divided by the number of subjects. The quotient gives the average of the total marks of the special and general examinations. For example:

The quotient of all the special examinations of a pupil is 107 for eleven subjects; that of all the marks of his general examinations is 106 for eight subjects, thus $\frac{107}{11}=9.72$; $\frac{106}{8}=13.25$. The general average obtained is the sum of 9.72 and 13.25 divided by 2, that is, 11.48. The average at the close of the second year is diminished or increased by the average of the report of the first year. Example: (Giving the average of the first year as 10) $[10+(3\times 11.48)]\div 4=11.11$, the final mark.

V.—Various Rewards, Discipline, Diplomas, Certificates, and Penalties.

The diplomas, signed by the minister of commerce, are granted those pupils, foreign or native, who have satisfied in an able manner all the tests of the final examinations at the end of the second year. In August, 1883, 40 diplomas were conferred upon a class of 46 pupils; in August, 1884, 39 diplomas were conferred upon a class of 51 pupils; in August, 1885, 29 diplomas were conferred upon a class of 49 pupils. It is evident that the severity of the examinations for these diplomas is steadily increasing from year to year. There is also for foreign pupils a special diploma intended to testify that they have followed the courses of the school with success.

Certificates of capacity are given to pupils of the second year who, although not able to obtain a diploma, have, nevertheless, given proof of sufficient knowledge of the most essential subjects of instruction.

The list of pupils graduated is published in the official journal. There is no formal distribution of these diplomas, but a simple handing over of the diplomas and certificates on the part of the director. This lack of ceremony is not justified, in our opinion, by good reasons. Everything which can contribute to dignify the instruction, to throw into relief the result of the combined efforts of instructors and pupils ought to be utilized for the profit of this instruction, and to increase the faith in it on the part of the public. One should have faith in superior commercial instruction, and should show that one has faith. This instruction is destined to take an official place above secondary general instruction, of which it will be a development. For the present let us mark for it that place which it has been able to secure.

General discipline.—The inspector of studies who is present at the various courses and at the examinations, devotes himself to all the details of the work of the pupils. He is charged, under the authority of the director of the school, with maintaining a careful observation of the programme of instruction, and of insuring the maintenance of discipline among the pupils. He is aided in the accomplishment of his mission by the under-instructors to the number of four.

As a relaxation from mental fatigue the council of the school has decided that the pupils should have at their disposal a hall of sports; a billiard hall; a checkers and chess-room, as well as interesting reading. Up to the present no restrictions have been placed on the various methods of relaxation. Besides this, boxing, fencing, and dancing halls enable the pupils to amuse themselves according to their tastes. Finally, during the recreation hours, the pupils are authorized to smoke in the hall of sports and in the courtyards.

Punishments.—The following punishments may be inflicted upon the pupils: Half demerit, entire demerit, temporary expulsion, reprimand pronounced by the director, not in the presence of the council of the school; reprimand in the presence of the council, and expulsion pronounced by the council upon the recommendation of the director.

The inspector of studies notes all infractions of the rules by the pupils, and the reprimands which they have incurred in consequence of negligence or irregularity in their work. The council of the school takes into consideration the disciplinary marks of each pupil when it makes changes in the divisions, or when considering applications for certificates and diplomas.

VI.—Administration, Receipts, Expenses.

The school is administered by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, which founded it. It receives no subsidy from the State.

The most serious efforts and earnest solicitude are employed by the president, M. L. Hielard; by the administrators, who aid him with their experience; by the director, M. Jourdan; by the president of the Chamber of Commerce, M. Dietz-Monnin, who sits in the council by right of his office, and who rarely fails to be present at its sessions; and, finally, by M. Gustave Roy, in order to insure the development and the success of the School of Higher Commercial Studies. The careful study which we have made of the progress of this school shows that it has passed beyond the difficulties of its early years, and is advancing each year.

Budget.—The budget of the school is very large, as the Paris Chamber of Commerce wished to do a handsome thing, and desired that no expense should be spared to call attention to its beautiful creation. Of course, experience can not fail to show reforms which it will be necessary to carry out in the modus vivendi of the various departments, as well as in the construction of the curriculum and its application. Thanks to certain economies which were necessary and which could be carried through without inconvenience; thanks also to the steady growth of the number of pupils, which must be still more marked in consequence of the formation of the preparatory class, it is to be presumed that the financial condition of the School of Higher Commercial Studies will be sensibly improved from this time on. This, at least, is the view which we share, being persuaded that there is room in Paris for two great schools of commerce as flourishing as the rue Amelot.

The following table shows the receipts and expenses for the school year 1884–85:

	Francs.
Receipts:	
Term fees of the pupils	176,530.00
Profits in the students' supplies	3,696.00
Total	180,226.00
Expenses:	
Of the personnel and administration	44,840.00
Remuneration of professors and examiners	90,180.00
Expenses of—	
Food	58,000,00
Heating	7,231.00
Lighting	6,500.00
Laundry	4,500.00
Advertising	3,000.00
Library	1,200.00
Laboratory	600.00
Maintenance and repairs	4,500.00
General costs	4,500.00
City water	1,500.00
Taxes and insurance	8,453.00
Annuity to the crédit foncier	100,904.25
Total	337,908.25

This shows a deficit of 157,682 francs, comprising, it is true, the rent of the school buildings, represented by the annuity payable to the crédit foncier for interest and repayment of the loan by this useful establishment to the Chamber of Commerce.

The following was the budget for the school year 1885–86:

	Francs.
Receipts:	
Term fees of pupils	217,550.00
Profits on students' supplies	4,067.00
Sales of material	2,400.00
Balance	4,763.45
Total	228,780.45
Expenses:	
Payment to personnel and administration	44,840.00
Professors	58,550.00
Examiners	11,720.00
Donations	2,000.00
Food	63,593.00
Heating	7,200.00
Lighting	6,960.00
Laundry	5,079.45
Advertising	5,000.00
Library	1,200.00
Laboratory	1,600.00
Maintenance and repairs	5,900.00
General costs	4,700.00
City water	1,895.00
Taxes and insurance	8,453.00
Total	228,780.45

This report differs essentially from the preceding one, as it shows that the school is making expenses and receipts meet, without counting, it is remembered, the annuity to the crédit foncier, which has been assumed by the Paris Chamber of Commerce in consequence of an agreement entered into between the chamber, the city, and the State, and a law relating to the construction of a bourse. By this combination the chamber, by means of additional hundreds levied upon Parisian commerce, finds the necessary means to cover the annuity due to the crédit foncier.

By alienating the most certain of its revenues and by mortgaging the future for fifty years, the Paris Chamber of Commerce, consulting only the dictates of a wise patriotism, has not hesitated to extend superior commercial instruction, and to attract to it the sons of our merchants. The fortunate arrangement, of which we have just spoken, will not impoverish anyone; and Paris possesses, as a result, a

magnificent establishment of commercial instruction, the most beautiful, without doubt, in the world. We may surely say here, if ever, "All's well that ends well."

The director, M. Jourdan, an engineer of arts and manufactures, has been at the head of the School of Higher Commercial Studies since its foundation. He had formerly been the director of the Commercial School in avenue Trudaine, and had there attracted the attention of the Chamber of Commerce. M. Huret, inspector of studies, was also a member of the instructing body of the Commercial School, where he had been a professor for five years.

The large scheme adopted by the Chamber of Commerce for its School of Higher Commercial Studies explains the large number of professors. The faculty number forty-four, including seven examiners. The chamber intended that the equipment of the new school should fully correspond to its really grandiose plan. It has succeeded at the cost of large sacrifices, which will be appreciated and which will produce, in our opinion, the results which the chamber expects of them.

VII.—Conclusion—Noblesse Oblige.

But certain titles are heavy to carry, and the Paris Chamber of Commerce has furnished us a new proof of this. A part of that which has come to pass had already been forseen in the interesting report of M. Jacques Siegfried, where he says: "If the Paris Chamber of Commerce should count upon a considerable number of pupils at the beginning it would run the risk of being deceived. Experience shows that if the utility of superior commercial instruction gradually makes itself felt more and more, it must, on the other hand, count upon meeting those prejudgments and settled habits of thought over which we can not triumph without much patience."

With its attention occupied in raising the level of commercial instruction, and consequently the prestige of the commercial career, the chamber cherished more illusions than M. Siegfried. In fact, M. Gustave Roy, its president, said in the inaugural address, from which we have already quoted some passages: "We have confidence in our work; it is proposed to draw into this school young men who have already completed their classical studies, not those who have not succeeded in the colleges, but those who have distinguished themselves there."

The immediate future, however, did not justify the views of M. Gustave Roy, for the reason that classical instruction never turns the aspiration of its pupils toward the commercial career, and the college graduates, notably those who have distinguished themselves, despise commerce and think that they are destined exclusively for liberal or administrative careers.

Thus we see that the necessities of existence turned the school away from the strict observation of a rule which would have brought it to an early death of inanition, and the School of Higher Commercial Studies, which was intended to give only superior instruction, has been compelled, in order to replenish its classes, to devote itself to secondary instruction. It is this same reason which compelled it to create classes preparatory to this latter instruction; that is to say, to introduce a primary element in the very institution where the secondary element was to have been excluded on principle.

We have advised this last measure in the interest of the school, and we hope for its success. In order to insure homogencity in the classes, and with a view of raising the character of the instruction, it will probably be necessary to double the preparatory year for certain pupils, or to cut this division into two sections. Perhaps it will even be advisable to adopt the same measure for the first year of the regular course, so that the second year may really become an advanced course.

As to the rest, however, we are of the conviction that this measure will be only transitory. The future of commercial instruction is assured because necessity compels it. Under the pressure of economic events whose action on ideas and manners is powerful, as well as under that of better logic, we shall soon see a rapid transformation in our way of viewing the whole subject of education. A logical reorganization of general secondary instruction will prepare the youth for the professional instruction which they may have chosen, and the schools of commerce, considered on a par with other special schools, will not then be less advanced.

VIII.—Association of the Former Graduates of the School of Higher Commercial Instruction.

This association was founded on the 12th of July, 1883. Its place of meeting is at the school, 108 Boulevard Malesherbes. This association is primarily a social benefit society. It has for its purpose, first, to maintain and create amicable relations among the alumni of the School of Higher Commercial Studies; second, to come to the aid of former associates who may need assistance; third, to furnish to the various interests of the association information of every kind. In order to accomplish these various purposes, first, a place of meeting has been fixed, and these meetings are held every week; second, monthly economic conferences and discussions are held by the members of the association; third, a quarterly bulletin has just been established,

consisting of four parts, (*a*) reports of the sessions of the general committee, (*b*) various studies by former pupils of the school, (*c*) notices of wants, (*d*) advertisements for the benefit of the members of the association; fourth, the president can, in case of urgency, give immediate pecuniary assistance; fifth, a committee of employment is established, charged with aiding their former comrades in the choice and obtaining of positions; sixth, as a large number of the alumni have studied law and been enrolled as advocates before the court of appeals, a judicial council has been established. It gives advice upon all legal questions of interest to the members of the association. The idea seems to us excellent. We need lawyers who know how to analyze a balance, a liquidation, etc. Lawyers who have taken a course in the Superior School of Commerce can hardly fail to be successful. The association is administered by a committee composed of 11 members.

OFFICIAL PROGRAMME OF THE COURSES OF THE SCHOOL OF HIGHER COMMERCIAL STUDIES AND THE PREPARATORY SCHOOL CONNECTED WITH THE SAME.

[Ministerial orders of July 27, 1891, and July 27, 1892.]

Programme of the course of the preparatory school.

DESCRIPTION OF COURSES.

Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.	Subjects of instruction.	Hours per week.
French	5	History	1½
Arithmetic }	5	General geography	3
Algebra }		Drawing	2
Geometry	1	Penmanship	1
Accounting	3	Living languages	4
Elements of ordinary legislation	1		
Physics	1½	Total	31
Chemistry	3		

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

FRENCH.

Exercises in orthography, composition, and correspondence.

ARITHMETIC.

Preliminary definitions.—Magnitude, numbers, measure of magnitude, unity, whole numbers, fractions, fractional numbers.

Oral numeration.—Definitions, decimal numeration.

Written numeration.—Definitions, absolute and relative value of a number.

Operations in whole numbers.—Addition and subtraction; definitions, rules, proofs; exercises in rapid calculation, both mental and written, in addition and subtraction. Multiplication; definitions; table of multiplication of the first 15 numbers; different cases of multiplication; theory, and practical rules; theorems relative to multiplication; exercises in rapid multiplication by 4, 5, 9, 11, 15, 19, 21, 25, 29, 30, 31, 39, 41, 125, their multiples and submultiples. Division; definitions, rules, exercises, short division, theorems relative to division; division by 25, 75, 125, their multiples and submultiples.

Properties of whole numbers.—Divisibility. Preliminary theorems. Remainder in the division of the number by 2, 3, 5, 9, 11, 4, and 25. Proofs by 9 and 11 of the multiplication and division. Exercises.

Greatest common divisor.—Definition. Finding the greatest common divisor of two numbers. Fundamental theorems. Rule. Simplification. Exercises. Properties of the greatest common divisor. Greatest common devisor of several numbers.

Prime numbers.—Definitions of prime numbers and of numbers prime to one another. Theorems. Formation of a table of prime numbers. Separation of a number into its prime factors. Rule. Exercises. Divisors of a number. Methods of finding them. Greatest common divisor. Least common multiple.

Fractions.—Definition. Reducing fractions to their most simple form. Reducing to the same denominator. Operations in fractions. Exercises. Decimal fractions. Definitions. Numeration of decimal numbers. Operations in decimal numbers. Estimation of the quotient by means of a given decimal unit. Conversion of common fractions into decimal fractions, and vice versa. Irreducible common fraction giving rise to a circulating fraction. Circulating fractions. Definitions. Finding the generator of such fractions.

Powers and roots.—Definitions and theorems. Extraction of the square root of a whole number. Extraction of the square root of a whole number or fractional number with a certain approximation. Square roots of decimal numbers. Squares and

square roots of fractions. Exercises in rapid methods of extracting the square roots. Cubes and cube roots. Definitions. Extraction of the cube root of a whole number. Extraction of the cube root of a whole number or fractional number to a given approximation. Cube roots of fractions and of decimal numbers, the cube of a fraction. Positive, negative, entire, and fractional exponents. Zero exponents.

Measures.—Ancient French measures and present lawful measures. Comparison. Conversion of ancient into present, and vice versa. Exercises in rapid conversion. Measures of length, of surface, of volume, of capacity, of weight. Monetary measures. Foreign moneys. Application of rapid methods in the conversion of French money into foreign money, and vice versa.

Complex numbers.—Definitions. Operations in complex numbers.

Ratios.—Definitions. Proportions. Proportional magnitudes. Theorems. Applications. Rule of three (direct, inverse, simple, and compound proportions). Method of reducing to unity. Easy questions in proportional parts, alligations, partnerships. Rule of simple interest. General formula. Methods of rapid calculation of the ordinary rates of interest. Definitions of compound interest. Discounts (foreign and domestic). Rules of partnership. Definitions of progressions (arithmetical, geometrical, increasing, and decreasing).

ALGEBRA.

Algebraic calculations.—Employment of letters and signs as a means of abbreviation and generalization. Similar terms. Addition and subtraction. Multiplication. Rules for the signs. Division of monomials. Division of polynomials. Introduction and calculation of negative numbers. Negative exponents.

Equations of the first degree containing one unknown quantity.—Solution: First, of the system of two equations of the first degree containing two unknown quantities; of the system of three equations of the first degree containing three unknown quantities. Brief explanation of the method of solution by the employment of indeterminate factors, of any number of equations of the first degree containing a corresponding number of unknown quantities.

Problems in equations of the first degree.—Interpretation of negative results.

Equations of the second degree containing one unknown quantity.—Solution of the equation $ax^2+bx+c=o$. Discussion. Imaginary roots. Decomposition of the trinomial ax^2+bx+c into its factors of the first degree.

Arithmetical and geometrical progression.—Theory of logarithms deducted from progression. Logarithms of which the base is 10. Tables. The characteristic. Introduction of negative characteristics, for the expansion of numbers smaller than unity, of the logarithmic calculations. The use of tables.

Compound interest and annuities.—Application of logarithms to these questions.

GEOMETRY.

Of the straight line.—Perpendicular lines. Oblique lines. Parallel lines.

Of angles.—Triangles. Polygons.

Of the circumference.—The circle. Measure of angles. Arcs and cords. Tangents and secants of a circle. Measure of the circumference of a circle.

Proportional lines.—Similitudes.

Measure of plane surfaces.—Triangles. Quadrilaterals. Polygons. Circles.

Measure of the surface and of the volume of the principal solids.—Prism. Parallelopiped. Pyramid. Frustrum of the pyramid. Cylinder. Cone. Frustrum of the cone. Sphere.

Practical applications.—Capacity of casks. Volume of a bag of sand, etc.

BOOKKEEPING.—I. IDEAS OF COMMERCE AND THE STUDY OF COMMERCIAL DOCUMENTS.

Commerce.—Commerce in general. Wholesale commerce and semiwholesale. Retail commerce. Domestic commerce. Foreign commerce. Importation. Exportation.

Persons engaged in commerce.—Manufacturers. Merchants. Bankers. Brokers. Remitters. Bucket-shop brokers. Produce brokers. Naval brokers. Commissioners. The bonder of goods. Commercial transportation. Agents.

Exchanges.—Nature of exchanges. Commercial exchanges: Buying and selling for cash, with or without discount. Buying and selling on time or on account, with or without interest. The art of buying and selling: General principles. A knowledge of products. A knowledge of affairs. A knowledge of markets and seaport markets. Estimation of expected gain.

Documents relating to exchanges.—Orders of sale. Orders of purchase. Invoice. Bills. Quittance. Memorandum. Goods on commission. Delivery of goods. Receipt of goods. Card of samples, etc.

Regulations of exchanges.—Money. Bank bills. Paper money. Checks. Checks

made to order. Bills of exchange. Mandate. Assignment. Letters of credit. Clearing-house transactions. Rules of payment: In specie, in bank bills, in paper money, by check, by means of offsets.

Transportation.—By wagon. By railroad; application of the different French and international tariffs. Transportation by canals and rivers. Transportation by sea. Packing of merchandise shipped. Formalities of shipping. Insurance. Tags. A detailed memorandum of goods shipped. Bill of lading. The different tariffs of transportation. Insurance premium.

II. ELEMENTS AND GENERAL THEORY OF ACCOUNTING.

Principal terms used in accounting.—Debtor. Creditor. Debit. Credit. Receipts. Expenditure. Accounts. Keeping the books. Definitions. Different sorts of agents.

Accounts.—Definition of an account. Manner of disposing of an account. Account of receipts and account of payments. Cashbook taken as an example. Practical exercises. Illustrations. Fluctuations of receipts and expenses. Closing and reopening a cash account. Agreement of the receipts and expenditures. Impersonal accounts, representing the inventoried wealth of the enterprise. Personal accounts, representing the third party, debtors or creditors of the enterprise.

The journal.—Definition. The use of the journal. Formula for entries in the journal. Single journal, divided journal. Different modes of dividing the journal. Auxiliary or analytical journal of receipts or cash expenses, bills, store, factory, etc., and transactions carried on by correspondence. General or synthetical journal. Models. Formulæ for the articles recapitulating the relation of the auxiliary journal to the general journal. Practical exercises with actual accounts. Additional advantage of the auxiliary journal and the general journal.

The ledger.—Definition. Use of the ledger. Single ledger. Divided ledger. General or synthetical ledger, auxiliary or analytical ledger. Models. Relation of the journal to the ledger. Practical exercises in opening an account, and the relation of entries in the journal to those in the ledger. Precautions to be taken in order to avoid errors. Agreement of the general journal and the general ledger. Agreement of the general ledger and the auxiliary ledger.

Collective accounts.—Definition. Advantage of collective accounts for controlling the collections of accounts opened in the auxiliary ledger, and for simplifying the balancing of accounts.

Balancing accounts.—Definition. Agreement of entries in the journal and the accounts in the ledger, obtained by balancing the accounts. Periodical balances. Daily balances. Advantage of frequent balances. Model of a general ledger balance with and without collective accounts. Models of balancing the auxiliary ledger. Model of balancing the general ledger, with the methodical classification of accounts.

"*Chiffrier-balance.*"—Definition. Its function; its utility for obtaining the balances in enterprises having a large number of accounts. Daily balances obtained by means of the chiffrier-balance corresponding to the number of accounts.

Division and classification of accounts.—Different species of accounts. Necessity for a classification. Mathematical expressions and commercial operations. Rational classification, which results in accounts of the nominal capital. Accounts of the wealth or means of carrying on an enterprise. Accounts of persons, debited or credited. Rate of profits. Permanence of the inventory.

Analysis of the different series of accounts.—Accounts of the nominal capital of an enterprise. Capital stock. Bonds. Reserves. Different amortizations. Accounts of the wealth composing the inventory of the means of carrying on an enterprise (at the price of the net cost of the properties):

(*a*) *Real estate.*—Commercial funds. Shares. Expenses of establishing the business. Licenses. Realties. Personal property. Materials.

(*b*) *Disposable property.*—Money. Bills receivable. Documents. Raw materials. Warehouses of sale.

(*c*) *Fixed property.*—Manufactory. Buildings. Investments. Joint accounts. Agencies. Lands, etc.

Accounts of persons debited or credited (at the price of purchase or sale).

Accounts of profits (debit or credit of the differences between the net price and the price of sale). Account of sales. Accidental profits and losses. Results of the different operations. General expenses. Accounts of receipts and expenditures.

Inventory—Balance sheet.—The inventory of balances of the classified accounts. Balance sheet. Book of balances. Book of inventories.

The elements of ordinary legislation.—Brief notions relating to matters of public and civil law, commercial law, industrial law, as prescribed in the programme of the normal courses.

PHYSICS—GENERAL NOTIONS.

Preliminaries.—A few notions of mechanics, work, living force.

Force of gravity.—Direction of the force of gravity. Center of gravity. Weights.

Balances. Precision. Sensibility. Weights of bodies. Law of the fall of bodies. Atwood's machine. The pendulum; its applications. Notions regarding the different conditions of bodies.

Hydrostatics.—Principal of the equality of pressure in fluids. Free surface of liquids in equilibrium. Pressure at the bottom of vessels. Hydraulic pressure. The principle of vessels in communication. Applications. Principle of Archimedes. Specific weights. Relation of the areometers to constant weight. Weight of the air. The barometer. Law of Mariotte. The manometer of free air and compressed air. Pneumatic machine. Pumps, siphons, and areostatics.

Heat.—Expansion of bodies by heat. The thermometer. Coefficients of expansion. Their determination. Their use. Conductibility of bodies. Specific heat. Methods of mixture. Fusion, solidification. Latent heat. Freezing mixtures. The formation of vapors in a vacuum. Saturated and nonsaturated vapor. Maximum of tension. Tables. Mixture of gas and vapors. Evaporation, ebullition, distillation. The latent heat of vapors. The principle of the steam machine. Expansion. The ideas of thermo-dynamics. Notions of the equivalent of mechanical work and heat.

Hygrometry.—Rain. Snow. Dew. Distribution of the temperature at the surface of the earth.

Magnetism.—Magnets. Poles. Magnetization. Declination. Inclination. Compass of declination.

Electricity.—Development of electricity by friction. Laws of electrical phenomena. Electricity by induction. Electroscopes. Electrophores. Electric machines. Condensers. Electrometer condensers. Leyden jars. Batteries. Atmospheric electricity. Lightning. Lightning rods. Experiments of Galvani and Volta. The pile. Accumulators. Electrical currents. Physiological, mechanical, physical, and chemical effects. Galvanoplastic, electro-gilding, electro-silvering. Experiments of Œrsted. Construction and the uses of galvanometers. Solenoïdes. Comparison of a solenoïde and a magnet. Magnetization by currents. The electromagnet. The telegraph. Induction. Apparatus of Clarke and Ruhmkorff. Telephones.

Acoustics.—Production and propagation of sound, velocity, intensity, pitch, vibration.

Optics.—The propagation of light. Emission and waves of light. Umbra and penumbra. Laws of reflection. Spherical, concave, and convex mirrors. Radiation of heat. Refraction. Prisms. Lenses. Magnifying glasses. Astronomical telescopes. Compound microscopes. Newton's telescope. Principles of photography. Dispersion of light. Spectrum analysis. The solar spectrum.

CHEMISTRY—GENERAL NOTIONS.

The general idea of chemical phenomena.—Simple and compound elements. Metalloids and metals. Different states of matter. Dissolution. Crystallization. Dimorphism. Polymorphism. Isomorphism. Isomerism. Allotropy. Laws of definite proportions. Laws of multiple proportions. Laws of Gay-Lussac. Law of specific heat. Chemical equivalents and atomic weights. Oral and written nomenclature. The usage of the notation of equivalents and of atomic formulæ.

Oxygen.—Mode of preparation. Physical and chemical properties. Ozone. Combustion.

Hydrogen.—Mode of preparation. Physical and chemical properties. Physical and chemical properties of water. Analytical and synthetical methods employed for establishing its composition. Drinking waters. Oxygenated water.

Nitrogen.—Atmospheric air. The quantity of oxygen and nitrogen in atmospheric air. Protoxide and bioxide of nitrogen. Preparations, properties, analysis. Nitrous acid and hyponitric acid. Nitric, anhydride and hydrate. Preparation and purification of nitric acid. Properties. Ammonia. Circumstances under which this compound manifests itself. Preparations, physical properties of ammoniac gas, its analysis.

Phosphorus.—Preparation. Physical and chemical properties. Red phosphorus, its uses. Combination of phosphorus with oxygen. Phosphoric, anhydrite, and hydrate. Preparation and properties of the different hydrates formed by phosphoric acid. Phosphuretted hydrogen gas, liquid and solid.

Arsenic.—Preparation and properties. Arsenious and arsenic acid. Arsenetted hydrogen. The apparatus of Marsh.

Sulphur.—Extraction and purification of sulphur. Physical properties. Different modifications which test its action under the influence of heat. Chemical properties and usage. Sulphurous acid. Preparation. Physical and chemical properties. Sulphuric and hydride acid, of Nordhausen and of commerce. Preparation and properties of these different acids. Sulphurous anhydride acid. Preparation and properties. Bisulphur of hydrogen.

Chlorine.—Preparation. Physical and chemical properties. Different applications. Oxygen compounds of chlorine. Hypochlorous acid. Hydrochloric acid. Preparation, properties, analysis, synthesis. Aqua regia.

Bromine.—Bromine, iodine, and fluorine. Hydrobromic, hydriodic, and hydrofuoric acids.

Borax.—Boric acid.

Silica.—Silicic acid and fluor spar.

Carbon.—Examination of its different varieties. Oxide of carbon and carbonic acid. Preparations. Physical and chemical properties. Composition. Combinations of carbon with hydrogen. Acetylene. Carburetted hydrogen. Bicarburetted hydrogen. Olefiant gas. Marsh gas, fire damp, Davy's lamp, illuminating gas, flame. Carbonic disulphide.

Cyanogen.—Cyanhydric acid.

Résumé.—Classification of metalloids in their natural families.

Metals in general.—Their properties and classifications. Alloys, metallic oxides; general preparation of metallic oxides; potassium, soda and lime; sulphides; chlorides; sea salt.

Brief notions concerning metallurgy.—Iron, brass, and steel. Lead and copper. Tin and zinc. Silver. Aluminium.

Salts.—Their general properties. The laws of Berthollet. General notions in regard to the ordinary metals.

HISTORY OF FRANCE FROM THE TIME OF HENRY IV TO 1875.

Henry IV. The Edict of Nantes. Sully. Louis XIII. Richelieu. War against the Protestants and nobility. Thirty Years' War. The peace of Westphalia. Louis XIV. Mazarin and the Fronde. The treaty of the Pyrenees. Personal government, foreign relations. Treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle, Nimegue, Ryswick, and Utrecht. Interior government; finances; industry; commerce, and Colbert. Military organization; Louvois. Vauban. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes: its political and industrial consequences. Letters, arts, and sciences in the seventeenth century. Louis XV. Law's system. Wars of succession in Poland, of succession in Austria. The Seven Years' War. Dupleix and Bourdonnais. Choiseul. First Division of Poland. Louis XVI. Turgot's ministry. The Parliaments and the Royal power. The war in America. Founding of the United States. The French Revolution. The States General. The constituent and legislative assemblies. The Convention. Trial of Louis XVI. Girondins and the "Mountain." The 9th of Thermidor. Exterior events. Valmy. Jemmapes. Fleurus. The second and third division of Poland. The Directory. Bonaparte in Italy. Campo-Formio. Expedition against Egypt. Consulate. Civil Code. Concordat. Peace of Luneville and of Amiens. The Empire. The European coalition. Campaigns against Germany and against Prussia. The war in Spain. Expedition against Russia. Campaign in France. The First Restoration. Louis XVIII and the Charter of 1814. The One Hundred Days. Waterloo. The Second Restoration. Charles X. Navarin. Taking of Algiers. The July ordinances and days. Louis Philippe. The February Revolution. Second Empire. Crimean, Italian, and Mexican wars. War against Prussia. Proclamation of the Republic. Letters, arts, and science during the first half of the nineteenth century. Geographical discoveries. Progress of commerce and industry. Treaty of Frankfort. The Commune. The Presidency of M. Thiers and of Marshal MacMahon. Constitution of 1875.

A thorough study is required of the treaties which have been made with foreign powers, and their economic consequences.

GEOGRAPHY.

Object and usefulness of this study. Geographical nomenclature. Division of the surface of the earth into land and water. Continents. Principal seas. The usefulness of map drawing in the study of geography.

France.—Extent and population. Sea coast and land boundaries. Description of the Pyrenees, Alps, and Jura. Neighboring States. Interior mountains. Cevennes, the mountains of Charolais, Cote-d'Or, plateau of Langres, mountains of Faucilles, Jura, mountains of Auvergne, and of Limousin, Morvan. Mountains of Normandy, of Brittany, of Aragon and Ardennes, and Vosges. The general outlines of the separation of the waters, and the division of France into watersheds. Basins of the Seine, of Loire, of Garonne, and of the Rhone. Description of these rivers. Tributaries. Principal cities situated on their banks. Secondary basins. The basins of the Scheldt, of the Meuse, and of the Rhine (French part), these studied in the same manner as the preceding. Division of France into departments. Administrative division. The principal railroad systems. Principal canals.

Algiers.—Physical and political description, situation, boundaries, the Tell, high plateaus, the Sahara.

The French colonies.—In America, in Africa, in Asia, in Oceanica.

Countries under French protection.—In Africa and in Asia.

Europe.—Physical and political description of the principal countries of Europe, capitals, seaports, principal cities, frontiers of British Isles, of Belgium, of the Netherlands, of the German Empire, of Switzerland, of Austria, of Russia, of Spain, of Portugal, of Italy, of Greece, of Turkey in Europe, of the Danube principalities, of Sweden, of Norway, of Denmark.

Asia.—Principal countries, their boundaries, mountains, rivers, principal cities. Empire of India. China, Japan.

Africa.—Principal countries, their boundaries, mountains, rivers, principal cities.

North America.—United States, Canada.

Central America.—Principal countries.

South America.—Brazil, Uruguay, Paraguay, Argentina, Chile, etc.

Oceanica.—Australia, New Zealand, the possessions of Holland and Spain.

DRAWING.

Figure, decoration, flowers, landscape, animals. Studies from casts and from nature. The reproduction of different objects within a fixed space of time. Reproduction of objects from memory. Linear drawing. Architectural drawing. Wash-coloring.

PENMANSHIP.

Theoretical and practical exercises in the different styles of penmanship. Numerous exercises in writing a running hand.

LIVING LANGUAGES.

Themes, translations, practice in conversation.

PROGRAMMES OF THE REGULAR COURSES IN THE SCHOOL OF HIGHER COMMERCIAL STUDIES.

Table of examinations held and marks to be obtained during the academic course.

Subjects of instruction.	Number of lessons per year.*a*		Examinations.						
			First year.			Second year.			
			Special examinations.		Marks in oral examinations at end of the year.	Special examinations.		Marks of the final examination.	Total.
	First year.	Second year.	Written.	Oral.		Written.	Oral.		
Commerce and accounting	120	120	2	6	3	2	6	10	29
First foreign language *b*	165	165	.....	7	3	.....	7	9	26
Second foreign language *b*	100	100	.....	7	2	.....	7	8	24
Mathematics	50	25	.....	6	3	.....	5	8	22
Study of merchandise	60	40	.....	5	2	.....	4	7	18
Tests and analyses	12	13	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	3	4
Commercial geography	40	45	.....	4	2	.....	4	7	17
Commercial history	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3	4
Elements of public law and of French civil law	25	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	2	4
Commercial, maritime, and industrial legislation	35	50	.....	2	2	.....	3	6	13
Foreign commercial legislation	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	2	3
Political economy	30	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	4	5
Labor legislation	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	2
Financial and customs legislation	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	3	5
Study of transportation	.....	16	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3	4
Study of the means of commerce (motors, telegraph, telephone, harbors, railroads, etc.)	.....	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3	4
Penmanship	20	15	2	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	4
Total	657	684	4	40	18	4	42	80	*c* 188

a Each lesson, except the lessons in language and penmanship, lasts one hour and twenty minutes.

b In foreign languages, the mark given on the day fixed for the special examination is the average of the marks on compositions and questions which have been written since the last special examination.

c Each year a mark from 0 to 20 is given for care in keeping their notebooks and bookkeeping books. The sum of the marks thus obtained comprises the marks for department intended by the ministerial order of July 27, 1891, and amounts to 198×20=3,960.

MINISTERIAL INSTRUCTION.

It was not the intention of the committees who revised the programme to avoid repeating all the head titles; it is expressly intended each time that the same subject should appear in the different courses, but should not be treated by each professor, except from the standpoint of the special instructions which he is to give.

The same distinction should also be present in the mind of the examiners for graduation, in the questions on those subjects which are found simultaneously prescribed in the various programmes.

REGULAR COURSE.

Commerce and accounting.—Two years: First year, 120 lessons; second year, 120 lessons.

Instruction in the ideas of commerce, of arithmetic, and of algebra applied to commerce, and of accounting should be simultaneous.—It should be at the same time theoretical and practical, and the professors should make use of numerous practical exercises.

The course on the explanations of commerce places under the eyes of the pupils specimens of the different commercial documents which they are to study.

In the lessons on arithmetic and algebra, as applied to commerce, one part should always be reserved for practical exercises in rapid calculation, oral and written.

The theoretical explanation of accounting should be accompanied, during the first year, by the practice of keeping a complete set of books, and during the second year by the formation of developed treatises.

I. IDEAS OF COMMERCE AND THE STUDY OF COMMERCIAL DOCUMENTS
FIRST YEAR.

Commerce.—Of commerce in general, wholesale and semiwholesale business, retail business, domestic commerce, foreign commerce, importation, exportation.

Persons engaged in commerce.—Manufacturers, merchants, bankers, brokers, bucket-shop brokers, remitters, produce brokers, naval brokers, commissioners, agents, those who give warehouse bonds, transportation of commerce, etc.

Exchanges.—Nature of exchanges. Commercial exchange. Buying and selling for cash, with and without discount. Buying and selling on time or on account, with or without interest. The art of buying and selling. General principles. Knowledge of products. Knowledge of affairs. The study of markets and markets for exports. The calculation of expected gain.

Documents relating to exchange.—Orders of purchase. Bills of sale. Invoice. Bill. Quittance. Memorandum. Goods on commission. Delivery of goods. Receipt of goods. Sample cards, etc.

Regulations of exchange.—Of money. Of bank bills. Of paper money. Of checks. Drafts payable to order. Letters of exchange. Mandates. Assignments. Letters of credit. Offsets. Settling accounts, in specie, in bank bills, in paper money, by checks, by clearing accounts.

Transportation.—Transportation by wagon, by railroads, by canals and rivers. Ocean transportation. Packing and shipping goods. Formalities of shipping. Insurance. Tags. Detailed shipping memorandum. Consignment. Different shipping tariffs. Insurance premiums.

Custom-houses and internal revenue.—The method of administering the laws relating to customs duties and internal revenue. The system of taxing alcoholic drinks. Permits. Various documents.

Warehouses.—Docks. Common warehouses. Their function. Warrants and receipts. Selling in warehouses. Public selling, etc.

SECOND YEAR.

Bankers.—The usefulness of bankers and of banks of credit. Ordinary bank operations. Discount and collections on commercial paper, invoices, receipts, etc. Banks of deposit. Banks of deposits, of issue, for depositing valuables. Loans on mortgages, on merchandise, on various sorts of liens. Payment of coupons. Opening of credit. Issuing checks, mandates, letters of credit, etc. Bureaus of settlement. A clearing-house. Practical function. Clearing-house of London.

The exchange.—Its functions.

Produce exchanges.—Business conducted in them. Cash operations. Time operations. Speculative markets. Averages. Branches; the closing up of branches; options for acceptance, options for delivery, double options, produce quotations. Produce brokers. Bureaus of settlement. Their functions.

The stock exchange.—Examination of quotations, government bonds, capital stock, dividends. Bonds. Shares. Goods. Bills payable to bearer. Bills payable to order. Transfers. Conversion.

The different forms of investments. Permanent investments. French bonds (rentes). Foreign public bonds. Bonds, French and foreign. Preferred stock. Investments in variable securities. Stock of loan associations, of railroads, of industrial enterprises. The investments in permanent securities and lotteries. Bonds of the Land Credit Bank (Crédit Foncier) of France, municipal bonds of Paris, etc. Temporary investments. Time loans. Treasury bonds. Savings banks. Current accounts of deposits in banks. Cash operations. Time operations. Cash and time operations combined. Brisk markets, premium markets; scale of premiums, options; settlements; time loans; delays; discount; rate of settlement.

Insurance.—A practical examination of the different methods of insurance: Life insurance, fire insurance, insurance against accident. Insurance on merchandise; maritime insurance.

Business syndicates.—The grouping of capital in order to carry on commercial, financial, industrial, or agricultural operations.

FIRST YEAR.

Ideas relating to commercial and industrial management.—Organization of a mercantile establishment; order; economy. Of capital necessary for the enterprise. The necessity of carefully determining it. Fixed capital. Circulating capital. Of raw material. Of merchandise. Of production. Of marketing. Of hand labor. General expenses: Constant general expenses and variable general expenses. Importance of exact estimation of these expenses. Their influence on the net cost according to the private marks of the person engaged in manufacturing or commerce. Importance of accounts. Knowledge and statistics which they give. Exact determination of the net cost. The permanence of an inventory which is taken. On the conduct of business. The moral and material conditions which prepare one for success. Of credit and the methods of using it. Publicity; utility; different methods, their advantages and disadvantages. The position of middlemen. The duties of the employee, of the person engaged in commerce or industry, of the administrator, of the silent partner, of the authorized agent, of the stockholder.

II.—ARITHMETIC AND ALGEBRA APPLIED TO COMMERCE—FIRST YEAR.

Mental calculation, rapid calculation.—Daily exercises. Study of the means of abbreviating arithmetical operations.

Interest, discount, commissions.—Definitions of interest. Exercises by the method of number and divisors. Exercises by using aliquot parts. Definition of discount. Domestic discount; foreign discount. Average time of payment. Equation of payments. Calculation of bills of discount at different rates. Of commissions. Manner of applying it and calculating it on bills of discount, and collections, and by means of the bank method. Relation of commission and interest; establishment of tables of comparison. Exercises in calculating compound interest.

Accounts current and interest.—Definition of accounts current and of interest; calculation by numbers and by aliquot parts. The Hamburg method. Rule for this method. Advantages which it presents. The direct method. The rule for this method with and without interest. Advantages. Method indirect or retrograde. Rule and advantages of this method. Practical exercises in the three methods. Different kinds of accounts current: (1) Accounts current calculated and determined at each change in the rate of interest; (2) accounts current calculated and determined for fixed periods and at a uniform rate of interest both on the debits and credits; (3) accounts current calculated and determined for fixed periods at a different rate of interest for the debits and credits; (4) accounts current calculated and determined after each transaction of the debit or credit. Practical exercises with application of the different commissions and different markets.

The different systems of weights, measures, and money.—Explanation of the principal systems. Comparison with the metric system. The reduction of foreign money into francs, and vice versa. The intrinsic par value, the tabulated value, and the commercial value of moneys. Employment of the chain rule.

Of the net cost and of the comparison of merchandise.—Feigned accounts of purchase and of sale. The estimation of the factors of the net cost. Of the calculation of expenses. Manner of grouping them. Construction of a scale of net costs and manner of using it. Gross comparisons, net comparisons. Comparison of weights. Comparisons of price. The usefulness of these comparisons in order to know whether to buy of or sell to a foreigner. Application of the different operations to merchandise.

Algebra.—The application of algebra to the solution of problems of interest, of discount, of alligation, of partnership, and in the reduction of moneys.

SECOND YEAR.

Operations on the exchange.—Calculations of cash operations on the exchange; purchases, sales, arbitration of exchanges, calculation of these operations. Expenses of which it is necessary to take account. Calculation of time operations; purchases.

sales, brisk markets, premium markets, combined markets, scale of premiums. Calculation of operation on the produce exchange. Cash operations; purchases, sales, expenses. Time operations; purchases, sales. Branches.

Bank operations.—The precious metals. Calculation of alloys. Gold and silver quotations. Calculation of the value of an ingot at Paris and at London.

Gold points.—Comparisons of gold. Comparison of pound sterling, of marks, of florins, of rubles, and of dollars.

Exchanges.—Definition of exchange. Lecture on quotations. Negotiable paper due in three months. Sight drafts. Markets giving variable and markets giving invariable quotations. Exercises in the calculation of exchanges. Theoretical methods, practical methods. Employment of the chain rule. Application of algebra. Equation of exchanges.

Arbitration.—Definition. The position of the debtor; methods of settling his debt. Position of the creditor. Means of recovering what is due him. Of speculators or arbitrators of exchanges. Calculation of arbitration on the State bonds and other paper on the exchange.

Figure quotations.—Definition. The usefulness of figure quotations. The quotations of the different markets giving figure quotations at Paris. Problems and operations on the different quotations. Figure quotations in foreign markets. Joined and compared. Calculation of feigned operations.

Orders on banks.—The separation of orders on banks into two parts: First, orders on foreign banks transmitted to Paris; second, orders on the bank of Paris transmitted to foreigners. Elements of which the orders on banks are composed: First, limited; second, the price of purchase of paper on demand; third, price of sale of drafts. Arbitration and comparison of these three elements. Determination of the profit or loss by the operation. Expenses of which it is necessary to take account in arbitration: Stamps, brokerage, transportation, insurance. Detailed statement of the different expenses for the principal financial countries, and expenses which must be added to the price of purchase, or must be deducted from the price of sale.

III.—ACCOUNTING—ELEMENTS AND GENERAL THEORY OF ACCOUNTING—FIRST YEAR.

Principal terms used in accounting.—Debtor. Creditor. Debit. Credit. Receipts. Expenses. Accounting. Keeping the books. Definitions. Different kinds of accountants.

The account.—Definition of the account. Manner of disposing of an account. An account which receives and an account which gives out. The cash book taken as an example. Practical exercises. Illustrations of the movements of receipts and expenses. Closing and reopening of cash accounts. Agreement of the account which receives with the account which pays out. Inverse entry of the fluctuations in the respective accounts. Impersonal accounts, representing the wealth, composing the inventory of the enterprise. Personal accounts, representing the debtors or creditors of the enterprise.

The journal.—Definition. Disposition of the journal. Formula for entries in the journal. Single journal. Divided journal. Different methods of dividing the journal. Auxiliary or analytical journal of the cash transactions, of receipts and of expenses, of bills, of the shop, of the manufactory, etc., and of the transactions by correspondence. General or synthetical journals. Models. Formula of articles recapitulating the transactions of the auxiliary journal to the general journal. Practical exercises with illustrations. The additional usefulness of the auxiliary journal and the general journal.

The ledger.—Definition. Disposition of the ledger. Single ledger. Divided ledger. General or synthetical ledger, auxiliary or analytical ledger. Models. Relation of the journal to the ledger. Practical exercises in opening accounts and of the relation of entries of the journal in the ledger. Precautions to be taken in order to avoid errors. Agreement of the general journal and the general ledger. Agreement of the general ledger and the auxiliary ledger.

Collective accounts.—Definition. The usefulness of collective accounts in order to control the collections of the open accounts in the auxiliary ledger, and in order to simplify the balancing of the accounts.

Balancing accounts.—Definition. Agreement of the entries in the journal and of the accounts in the ledger obtained by balancing accounts. Periodical balances. Daily balances. The advantage of frequent balances. A model for balancing the general ledger, with and without collective accounts. Models for balancing the auxiliary ledger. Models for balancing the general ledger, with methodical classification of the accounts. "Chiffrier-balances." Definition. Their functions, their utility for obtaining balances in enterprises having a great number of accounts. Daily balances obtained by means of the figure balance, whatever the number of accounts.

Division and classification of accounts.—The different species of accounts. Necessity of a classification. Mathematical expression for commercial operations. The

rational classification which results in: Accounts of nominal capital. Accounts of property by means of which the enterprises are carried on. Accounts of persons both debtors and creditors. Accounts of profits. Permanence of the inventory.

Analysis of the different series of accounts.—Accounts of the nominal capital of the enterprise: Capital stock. Bonds. Reserves. Different amortizations. Accounts of property contained in the inventory by means of which the enterprises are carried on (net cost of this property):

(*a*) *Fixed properties.*—Stock in trade. Shares. Expense of settlement. Licenses. Realties. Personal property. Material.

(*b*) *Movable properties.*—Money. Bills receivable. Various kinds of paper. Raw material. Stock on hand.

(*c*) *Property actively engaged.*—Manufactures. Buildings. Speculations. Joint accounts. Joint stock companies. Agencies. Lands, etc. Debit and credit accounts of persons (at the price of sale and of purchase). Accounts of profits (debits or credits of the differences between the net cost and the selling price). Accounts of sales. Accidental gains and losses. Results of the different operations. General expenses. Statement of the cost of management.

Inventory—Balance sheet.—The inventory balance with the classification of the account. Taking an inventory of the assets. Balance sheet. Book of balances. Book of inventories.

APPLICATIONS—TREATISES—SECOND YEAR.

The arrangement of books and of accounts.—The general principles of arranging the books and accounts of capitalists, of persons engaged in commerce, industry, and agriculture. The opening of books of different societies; firms; joint stock companies or corporations; limited joint stock companies; cooperative societies; civil societies; mutual aid societies; partnerships. The functions of the nomenclature of the various series of accounts. The advantage of a certain order of accounts in each series.

Private accounts.—An inventory giving the composition of the capital on beginning the business. Opening of accounts made to conform to this inventory and in the order of a rational classification. Operations comprising a certain period: Expenses, receipts, purchase and sale of shares, management of real estate, a business having one partner who has unlimited responsibility, etc. Inventory of the assets to determine the condition of the capital at the close of management. Balance sheet.

FIRST YEAR.

Commercial accounts.—Inventory giving the composition of the capital at the beginning of the undertaking. Opening of accounts made to conform to this inventory, and in the order of a rational classification. A series of commercial operations comprising purchases, sales, returns, different rules concerning cash payments, time transactions, and giving credit; consignments, partnership affairs, current account with a bank, etc. Function of the account of purchases, of account of stock, of account of sales. General expenses. Statistical abstract of these expenses, partly in the auxiliary ledger, partly by means of a synoptical table. Apportionment of the general expenses in the account of purchases. Annual amortization of the fixed capital. Inventory of accounts to determine the condition of the capital at the close of the undertaking. Balance sheet. Inventory book.

SECOND YEAR.

Industrial accounts.—Inventory giving the composition of the capital at the beginning of the enterprise. Opening of accounts made to conform to this inventory, and in the order of a classical classification. Arrangement of the books and of the entries, because of the division of industrial labor, and in order to obtain in a methodical way the net cost of the manufactured objects.

Purchases of raw material in France or in foreign countries. Accounts of purchases and accounts of stock of raw material debited at the average net cost of the purchases.

Manufacture or successive transformation of raw material. Accounts of manufacture (an account of manufactures for each step of the transformation of material.) Periodical apportionment of the raw material, of the hand labor, and of the general expenses in the account of manufacture. Determination of the coefficient of apportionment of the general expenses. Manufactured objects: Accounts of the manufactured objects in the warehouse; placing these objects in the accounts of manufacture at the ultimate net cost. Sales: Account of sales, debited at the net cost, credited at the price of sale. Other accounts of profits: Accidental gains and losses, results of the different operations, commissions, etc. Closing the undertaking: The inventory of material, of personal property, of fixed property, of the cash on

hand, of bills, of raw material, of material in the course of manufacture, and of manufactured products. The different amortizations. Inventory of the accounts. Settlements. Determination of the results and of the condition of the capital at the close of the enterprise. Balance sheet. Inventory book.

Treatises.—Accounts of a bank with accounts relating to the operations of purchase and of sale of bullion, of exchanges, of arbitration, of the issuing of shares, of financial partnerships. Accounting of a commissioner. Bookkeeping of a shipowner. Principles of bookkeeping of a railroad company, of an insurance company, of a savings bank. Principles of agricultural bookkeeping.

Diagrams of accounting.—The execution by the pupils of synoptical tables, summing up the classification and the function of the accounts of the different sorts of bookkeeping. Comparative study of these diagrams and of balance sheets.

COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE (FIRST AND SECOND YEARS).

The necessity of carrying on business by correspondence in order to be able to trace the different operations. Style of commercial correspondence. Exercises. Registering and classifying of mail trains. Copy of letters and a book of departure of mail trains. Book of postal rates.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES (TWO YEARS).

			Lessons.
Table A	English	First year	165
	German	Second year	165
Table B	Spanish	First year	100
	Italian	Second year	100

The pupils must give proof at the entrance examination that they are able to translate readily English, German, or Spanish. They continue in the school the studies which they have commenced, and are required to learn at least two languages, being allowed their choice, one from each table. The lessons are given in the accounting rooms in groups of from 10 to 25 pupils. In the second year a large part of the commercial correspondence is carried on in a foreign language.

MATHEMATICS (TWO YEARS)—FIRST YEAR (FIFTY LESSONS).

Simple interest.—General formula. Methods of numbers and divisors, of the aliquot parts of the interest rate, of the aliquot parts of time, of the aliquot parts of capital. Separation into proportional parts. Rules of partnership.

Discount.—Different kinds of discount. Solution and discussion of the different problems in discount. Discount at the Bank of France. Method of Thoyer. Improvements introduced by Cauchy.

Accounts current and interest.—Brief examination of the three methods: First, direct; second, indirect or retrograde; third, Hamburg, or by scale.

The precious metals and monetary systems.—Alloys; problems relating to alloys. Moneys, manufacture, allowance; monetary system of France; of the Latin Union; monetary systems of those countries which do not form a part of this union. Relative value of gold and silver: First, the legal relation; second, commercial relation.

Operations on the exchange.—The modes of issuing government loans. National subscriptions. State bonds. The ledger of the public debt. Floating and consolidated debts. Treasury certificate. The budget. Amortization. Conversion. Stocks. Bonds of railroads and other companies. Dividends. The exchange of Paris. Brokers. The different paper quoted. The bank stock. The course of exchange. Bank rate. Brokerage. Guaranties. Taxes. Stamps. Cash operations. Investments. Sales of financial paper. Arbitration of the different bills of exchange. Definite time of sales. Discount. Time sales and at a premium. Options. Settlement. Prolongation or backwardation of cash payments. Prolongation from one settlement to another. Combinations of the different operations, on short term and at a premium. Scale of premiums. The commercial exchange. Business transacted at the exchange of Paris. Branch establishments. Closing up branch establishments. Method of settlement. Options for acceptance. Options for delivery. Double options.

The exchange.—Definition of the exchange. Its origin. Bills of exchange. Domestic exchange. Foreign exchange. Checks. Deposits. Long-time and short-time paper. Discount. Exchange quotations. Markets which give a fixed and markets which give a variable quotation. Explanation of the exchange quotations of Paris, and of the quotations of markets of foreign exchanges. Definition of arbitration. Direct and indirect arbitration. Explanation and application of the chain rule. The construction of comparative tables. Numerous exercises in arbitration between the markets of Paris, London, Amsterdam, Berlin, etc. Arbitration of metals, principally between the markets of London and Paris. Arbitration of public bonds. Prolongations.

THEORY OF LONG-TIME FINANCIAL OPERATIONS.

Compound interest.—Definition and fundamental formula. Study and discussion of the two conditions according to which one is able to estimate the value of an investment at compound interest, when the time is expressed by a fractional number. Generalization of the theory of exponents. Ideas concerning equivalent rates. Formula of exponents applicable to every case. Formula for present interest and for continued interest applied by the French and English stockholders. General solution of problems in compound interest. Practical calculation. The use of logarithmic tables and the numerical tables of Violeine, Pereire, etc. Rule for computation. Investigation of the time necessary for capital to double, triple, etc., when placed at compound interest. The present worth of capital due at a future time. Discount. Different methods of discount. Comparison and discussion. The equated time of payment of several sums maturing at different dates and reckoned at compound interest.

Consols—Annuities—Periodical payments.—Definitions and examples. Distinction of limited or perpetual consols. Immediate or differing. Paper, due at a fixed time, and at a rate of interest determined by certain periodical payments. The settlement of a definite capital by annuities. General formula for annuities. Computation of the different elements. The special study of the difficulties which present themselves in discovering a rate in problems in annuities. Algebraic solutions and approximate practical solutions. Formula of F. Baily and Makeham, etc. The annuities or consols of indefinite maturity. Study of the principal cases. Consols varying according to the law of arithmetical or geometrical progression.

The amortization of loans by annuities.—General relations of the capital, the annuity, rate of interest, and time. Relation of the rate of interest to the rate of amortization. Formula and tables. Public loans contracted by issuing bonds. Construction of tables by amortization. Study of the different complications which one must encounter in practical amortization. Numerous examples taken from the public loans contracted partly in France and partly in foreign countries. The choice of problems in financial operations of long-dated bills.

Probabilities—Chances and risks.—The elementary ideas of the computation of chances. Public lotteries. The actual value of a sum whose payment is doubtful. Compound probabilities. Repetition and proofs. Law of great numbers. Theorem of J. Bernoulli. Application of the principles of the calculation of probabilities to the study of the laws of human mortality. Probable duration of life. Probability of living. Study of the risks of property and of merchandise.

SECOND YEAR (TWENTY-FIVE LESSONS)—APPLICATION OF THE MATHEMATICAL THEORY OF FINANCIAL OPERATIONS.

The stocks and bonds of France and of foreign countries.—Historical sketch of the public bonds of France. State consols. Issuing. Negotiation. A precise computation of the relation of the different types of consols. Perpetual consols and consols which may be amortized. Calculation of equivalents. Study of the public bonds in foreign countries—England, Germany, America, etc.

Commercial bonds—Railroad companies.—The financial relation between the State and the large railroad companies. The agreements from 1859 to 1868 and ultimate modifications. The net reserve. The mechanism of the wear and tear. Guaranteed interests and subsidies allowed by the State. Agreements of 1883. Its results on the value of price of the bonds and stocks of the railroads. Capital stock and dividends. Study of the different questions relating to the dissolution of an industrial company.

Lottery loans.—Special study of the loans of the city of Paris. Application of the principles of the calculation of probabilities in estimating the chances of a lottery and of the chances or risks of repayment. Analysis of the different systems of lottery loans practiced in France and in foreign countries.

Financial operations on a long term of credit by the large establishments of credit.—Societies of landed credit (crédit foncier). Laws and operations of the landed credit of France. Conditions of mortgage loans and of loans granted to the communes and departments. Land bonds and communal bonds. Mortgage banks in Germany, Austria, and Hungary (Renten-Rechnung bei anticipativer Verzinsung). The landed and agricultural credit of Algiers. Colonial landed credit. Study of the operations of the societies for landed credit in the other countries.

Operations of the chief bank relating to the public issue of bonds.—The issue of bonds on the representation of the loans granted by the large establishments of credit. Conversion of a certain loan into another loan of which the conditions of interest and amortization are different. Distinction between nominal and real capital, between nominal and real rate of interest. The net cost of bonds and the profits to the banker contracting the loan. Average price according to a certain rate of

the bonds, stocks, etc., of a certain loan at a certain period, and taking account of all the conditions relating to the payment of interest, the price and premiums of repayment.

Operations of insurance companies.—Exposition of the mathematical principles on which are based the tariffs of insurances on persons and on merchandise. Insurances against fire, against loss by transportation, and against accidents of every nature. Life annuities on one or more persons. A critical study of the ancient and of modern methods of calculation which serve as a base for fixing the tariffs. Insurances in case of death. The termination of the single premium and of the annual premium. Mixed insurances. Insurances for a definite period. Life consols. Reserves of insurance companies. Insurances guaranteed by the State. Pension banks. Special conditions and tariffs. Mutual aid societies. A brief analysis of the principal works published either in France or in foreign countries on a mathematical theory of financial operations.

STUDY OF MERCHANDISE (TWO YEARS)—FIRST YEAR (SIXTY LESSONS).

Precious stones.—Diamonds and precious stones. Origin, places of production. Prospecting. Properties. Uses. Commerce.

Combustible material.—Definition. Industrial importance.

Combustible solids.—Natural vegetable combustibles (wood, tan bark, peat). Natural mineral combustibles (lignite, coals, anthracite). Combustibles derived from vegetable and mineral combustibles (charcoal, peat, coal or coke, conglomerates).

Combustible liquids.—Petroleum, oils of talc.

Combustible gases.—Coal gas, oil gas, water gas. Subproducts: Tar and ammoniac waters, etc. Products and coloring matter derived from tar (for each of these matters the process of extraction and manufacture is explained, the kinds, their uses, the production, and the commerce; statistics of importations and exportation, etc.).

Chemical products—Raw materials.—Sulphur and pyrites. Chloride of sodium (marine and rock salt). Chloride of potassium. Nitrate of soda or saltpeter of Chile. Sodium borax. Origin. Extraction. Use. Commerce, importations, exportations, etc.

Acids.—Sulphurous acid. Sulphuric acid. Nitric acid. Hydrochloric acid. Boric acid, etc. Processes of manufacture. Uses. Commerce.

The alkalis.—Potassium and potassium salts. Soda and the salts of soda. Ammonia and salts of ammonia. Processes of manufacture. Use. Commerce.

Other chemical products.—Alums and salts of alums. Phosphorus and products which are connected with it. Carbonic disulphide. Chloride of lime. Sulphites and hyposulphites used in bleaching. Iodine and iodides. Bromine and bromides. Explosive materials: Powders and dynamites. Processes of manufacture. Uses. Commerce.

Fertilizers and means of improvement.—Definition. The theory of fertilization. Vegetable, animal, and mineral fertilizers. Chemical fertilizers. Means of improvement. Extraction. Manufacture. Commerce.

Vegetable or animal products used in the arts and industry.—Essential oils and essences. Sweet-scented waters. Extracts. Preparation. Applications in perfumery. Commerce. Concrete essences. Camphor. Extraction. Commerce and use (celluloid). Soft resin or balsams. Extraction, use, commerce. Dry resins: amber, lake gum, copal gum, and damir gum. Extraction. Commercial varieties. Employment. Varnish. Resinous gums. Caoutchouc and gutta-percha. Extraction. Commercial varieties, use, commerce. Coloring matters of vegetable and animal origin. Commercial varieties. Commerce. Use. Coloring of thread and tissues. Impression.

Materials used in building.—Division into natural and artificial materials. Statistics given.

Building stones and stones used for ornament.—Quarries. Quarrying. Preparation. Principal varieties. Use.

Bricks.—Tiles. Paving tiles. Other materials made from baked clay for building purposes. Process of manufacture.

Mortars and concretes.—Lime. Cements. Preparation. Test.

Plasters.—Gypsum. Qualities. Preparation and use. Stucco. Different kinds of cement.

Woods.—Forest statistics. Exploitation of forests. Properties, qualities, and defects of wood. Causes of destruction and means of conservation. Different essences. Employment: In shipbuilding, timbers, constructing railroads, telegraph poles, of props for mines, lumber, fuel, carpentry and cabinetmaking, etc. Commerce of wood.

Metals—iron mines.—Tests and treatment.

Brass.—Varieties and physical properties.

Iron.—Refining and manufacturing.

Steel.—Processes of manufacturing and testing.

Manganese.—Natural state. Preparation. Oxide.

Chromium, nickel, and cobalt.—Mines. Extraction. Uses of chromates. Nickel plating. Cobalt blue.

Zinc.—Mines. Extraction and preparation of zinc. Important uses. Flowers of zinc.

Tin.—Ore. Mines. Metallurgy. Properties of the metal. Numerous applications.

Copper.—Mines. Production. Roasting and testing of the ore. Metallurgy. Industrial alloys.

Lead.—Principal mines. Extraction. Use. Salts and oxides. White lead. Litharge.

Antimonium.—Extraction and uses.

Arsenic.—Extraction and uses.

Cadmium.—Alloys. Applications and photography. Yellow cadmium.

Bismuth.—Preparation. Properties. Fusible alloys.

Magnesium.—Manufacture.

Aluminium.—Extraction. Aluminium bronze.

Mercury.—Mines. Applications. Mirrors. Gildings.

Silver.—Ores. Places of production. Extraction. Alloys. Tests. Importance of this metal.

Gold.—Mines. Nuggets. Oriferous sand. Extraction. Monetary alloys.

Platinum.—Extraction. Properties. Uses.

Calculation of the value of different minerals of commerce, the estimation of the approximate value of a mine in the process of exploitation, or one which has just been discovered.

SECOND YEAR (FORTY LESSONS).

Oleaginous substances and industries with which they are connected—oleaginous substances.—Definition. Production. Physical and chemical properties. Classification.

Oleaginous substances of vegetable origin.—Oleaginous seeds and fruits. Extraction of fixed vegetable oils. Study of the principal vegetable oils. Properties. Uses. Production. Commerce. Importations, exportations.

Oleaginous substances of animal origin.—Strictly animal oils, neat's-foot oil, sea animals, fishes. Extraction, properties, uses. Commerce. Fats. Properties. Classification. Commercial varieties. Production. Extraction. Use. Commerce. Spermaceti, animal and vegetable waxes. Production. Use, commerce, manufacture of soap, varieties, commerce, importations, exportations, stearine candles, tallow candles, wax candles, etc. Manufacture. Commerce. Subproducts. Acid oils. Glycerin. Uses. Commerce.

Vegetable products used as medical stimulants, condiments, or foods.—Pharmaceutic products (cinchona, quinine, opium, etc.). Method of gathering, of extraction. Employment, commerce. Tobacco. Coffee. Tea. Cocoa. Spices.

Fruits and vegetables (processes of conservation).

Products of mineral origin—glass making.—Raw material. Window panes. Mirrors. Decanters. Show cases. Venetian glass. Bohemian glass. Hardened glass. Glass bottles. Crystal. Lenses. Strass. Artificial stones. Manufacture and work in glass. Cutting and engraving. Economic condition; centers of productions, etc.

Ceramics.—Clay; kaolin; feldspar. Porcelains. Crockery. Biscuit. Stoneware. Common pottery. Baked earth. Bricks. Tiles. Pipes. Flower pots. Ornamental tiles. Commercial varieties. Manufacture and economic condition.

PRODUCTS OF THE ANIMAL CARCASS—HARD SUBSTANCES.

Bone.—Treatment and utilization.

Horns.—Deer, antelope, moose, etc.

Horns.—Varieties. Methods of working. Hoofs. Claws, etc. Smoothing the horns.

Shells.—Gathering. Working. Varieties.

Animal weapons.—Ivory. Tusks of elephant, hippopotamus, walrus, and sperm whale.

Articles of Paris.—Buttons, combs, toy trade, etc.

SOFT SUBSTANCES.

Skins.—Tanning substances. Green hides. Tanning of sole leather and of very soft leather. Currying. Commercial varieties. Tanning of Hungarian leather. Tawing. Chamois. Morocco. Special leathers: Varnished, shagreen, and shark skins. Parchment. Furriery. Leather objects.

Manufacture of glues.—Material for glue. Glues of Rouen, of Flanders, of Givet, of Alsace, of Germany, of Paris, etc. English glue. Fish glue. Preparation and uses.

Feathers.—Preparation. Working. Coloring. Commercial varieties.

Textiles of animal origin.—Hair. Hair of the goat. Hair of rabbit and hares. Manes. Horses. Bristles of hogs and of wild hogs. Vegetable mane. Brush making.

Silk.—Silkworm. Cultivation. Diseases. Winding off silk. Silk throwing. Coloring. Commercial varieties.

Woolens.—Classification. French and foreign woolens. Work in woolens.

Products of vegetable origin—textiles of vegetable origin.—Flax. Hemp. Retting and Stripping. Abaca. Jute. Phormium. Cotton. Grass-cloth plant. Cultivation. Gathering. Varieties.

Spinning and weaving of the principal textiles.—Numbering of threads. Centers of production and consumption. Economic conditions. Tissues. Simple stuffs, stuffs of armorial design, of artistic design, ribbed stuff, stuff having sinuous threads, and stitched stuffs. Looms. Winding on spools. Felts. Draperies.

Paper.—Raw material. Paper made of rags and straw. Chemical wood pulp, mechanical wood pulp. Preparation. Ruling. Commercial varieties. Paper money. Pasteboard, filter paper, wrapping paper, industrial varieties. Cardboard. Plain cards. Bookbinding pasteboard. Parchment paper. Painting paper. Fantastic paper. Printing paper. Engraving. Bookbinding paper.

Food substances.—Cereals. Wheat, rice, corn, rye, barley, oats, sorghum, millet. Distinctive characteristics. Composition. Cultivation. Commerce. Grinding. Panification. Pastries. Legislation. Economic condition.

Sugar.—Cane. Beet roots, varieties. Extraction of the sugar juice. Treatment. Raw sugar. Varieties and commercial uses. Sugar refining. Lump, fruit, sugar candy, etc. Molasses, glucose, etc. Legislation. Markets. Economic condition.

Drinks—wines.—Vineyards, cultivation, diseases. Preparation of red, white, and sparkling wines, of liquors, of dried raisins, etc. Manufacturing wine. Sugaring. Anchoring. Fertilizing with plaster. Commerce, etc.

Beer.—Varieties. Manufacture.

Alcohol.—Distillation. Alcohol of beet roots, of grains, of potatoes, of molasses, etc.

Vinegar.—Acetic acid.

Legislation relating to beverages and the economic condition.[1]

TESTING MERCHANDISE, ANALYSIS—ADULTERATIONS—(TWO YEARS). FIRST YEAR, TWELVE LESSONS.

Test of combustibles, coals, petroleum.
Test of potash, of soda and saltpeter.
Testing chalks, bleaching chlorides, manganese.
Testing fertilizers. Nitrogen. Phosphoric acid.
Analysis of bronze, of brass, of iron ore.
Determination of lead compound with tin. Testing matter containing gold with a touch-needle. Testing of matter containing silver.
Analysis of drinkable and nondrinkable waters.

SECOND YEAR (THIRTEEN LESSONS).

Testing of oils. Determination of the amount of oil in oleaginous grains.
Analysis of soap.
Testing of textiles.
Testing of flour, meal, etc.
Testing of sugar, of bone black.
Analysis and adulteration of wine, of beer.
Testing of milk, of butter.
Testing of coffee, chocolates, spices.

CHEMICAL MANIPULATIONS—FIRST AND SECOND YEARS.

The lessons on merchandise and raw material are completed by manipulations in the chemical laboratory, in order to make observations under the microscope, in order to discover the frauds to which the different commercial products are liable, as textile material, foods, fertilizers, etc.

[1] All the commercial products which are not mentioned in this brief sketch are treated along with related or derived products.

COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY—(TWO YEARS)—CHARACTER OF THE COURSE.

The course in economic geography treats of the following matters for each country:

A brief conception of the territorial formation. Population. Ethnographical ideas. Languages. Religions. Political institutions. Principal administrative divisions.

General configuration and nature of the soil. Climates.

Agricultural products. Cattle raising. Exploitation of forests. Agricultural regions. Hunting and fishing.

Mineral products. Mines and quarries. Salt mines. Mineral resources. Salt marshes.

Manufactured products. Centers of industry. Their origin, raison d'etre.

Ways of communication. Both small and large navigable rivers. Canals. Railroad routes. Maritime navigation. Seaports. Merchant marine. Navigation companies. Postal services. Telegraph service.

Foreign commerce. Principal markets. Various reasons for their prosperity. Importations and exportations. Usages of commerce. Special study of the commerce of each country with France, and of the competition which French commerce encounters.

Systems of customs duties. Commercial treaties. Weights and measures. Moneys. Institutions of credit.

Social condition. The manners and national character.

FIRST YEAR (FORTY LESSONS).

Europe.—France. British Isles. German Empire. Netherlands. Belgium. Alsace-Lorraine. Switzerland. Austria-Hungary. Spain. Portugal. Italy. Danube States. Baltic peninsula. Greece. Russia. Scandinavian countries.

The French in Northern Africa.

Algiers.—Physical and economical geography, inhabitants, land divisions, public works, administration, budget, system of customs.

Tunis.—Development of colonization, of agriculture, and commerce, system of customs and treaties of commerce, taxes, function of the protectorate. Religious question and the questions indigenous to Algiers and to Tunis.

SECOND YEAR (FORTY-FIVE LESSONS).

Africa.—General notions. Explorations. The European conquests. Berlin Congress of 1885. Treaties of 1890. Principal lines of navigation. Region of the Atlas. Regency of Tripoli. Sahara. Islam and their religious confederates. Routes of caravans. Projects of a railroad across the Sahara. Islands of the Atlantic Ocean. Coast of Guinea and the Soudan. Senegal and French Soudan. The Niger and Lake Chad. English company of the Niger. French, English, and German settlements on the coast of Guinea. Basin of the Kongo and the Western Coast. French Kongo. Kongo Free State. Portuguese and West German colonies. Southern Africa. The Cape and Natal. Orange River Free State. South African Republic. Eastern Africa. Zambezi. English South African Company. Mozambique. Great lakes, the English and German companies. Zanzibar. The Somali coast. Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea. English possessions. Obock. Italians in Africa. Abyssinia. Valley of the Nile. Egypt. Suez Canal. Islands of the Indian Ocean. Madagascar. Comoro and Réunion islands. English possessions.

Asia.—General notions, races and religions, political divisions, the main routes of land and sea communication. Western Asia. Turkey in Asia and Arabia. Iran Plateau. Persia. Afghanistan. Beloochistan. Asiatic Russia. Caucasia. Central Asia or Russian Turkestan. Siberia. English possessions. Indian Empire. Ceylon. The Straits. French India. Indo-China. Burmah. Kingdom of Siam. French Indo-China. Cochin-China. Cambodia. Annam. Tonquin. Extreme Orient. Empire of China, Korea. Japan.

Oceanica.—General notions. Principal voyages of exploration. Physical divisions. Malaysia. Possessions of Holland, England, and Spain. British Australasia. Australia. Tasmania. New Zealand. Fiji Islands. Possessions of France. New Caledonia. French settlements in Oceanica. Germans, English, and Americans in Polynesia. Hawaiian Islands.

America.—General description. Brief history of the discoveries and of the voyages to the North Pole. North America. Political divisions. Principal routes of transcontinental and ocean communication. British possessions in North America. Dominion of Canada. Newfoundland, fisheries. St. Pierre and Miquelon islands. United States.

Mexico.

Central America: The five republics and British Honduras. Isthmus of Panama. The Antilles.

South America: Venezuela. Colombia and Ecuador. Peru, Bolivia, and Chili. Argentine Republic, Paraguay, Uruguay. Brazil. The Guianas.

HISTORY OF COMMERCE—SECOND YEAR (TWENTY LESSONS).

Interest and usefulness of this history. Influence of commerce on the civilization and the development of human relations. Sources of commercial history. Primitive times. The Egyptians. The Phœnicians. The Assyrians. The Persians. India. Greece. Rome and Carthage. Gaul and Germany. The world's commerce at the fall of the Roman Empire. Methods of exchange in ancient times. Shipping of the ancients. Invasions. Commerce at the time of Charlemagne. Fairs and markets. The Arab invasion. Africa during the Middle Ages. Europe from the twelfth to the fourteenth century. Influence of the crusades on the world's commerce. Syria and Egypt. The Italian cities of the Middle Ages. Pisa. Venice. Genoa. Florence. Commerce of France from the eighth to the fifteenth century. Fairs of Champagne. Flanders. England and Germany in the thirteenth century. Hanseatic League. Method of exchange employed by commerce in the Middle Ages. Bills of exchange. Banks. Money changes. Commerce of the Orient after the fall of Constantinople. Maritime voyages toward the West. Discovery of a passage to Asia by way of Cape of Good Hope. Discovery of America. Consequences of these two events for the commercial relations of the world. The Renaissance in Europe, Flanders, Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, England, and Germany. Settlement of Europeans in India. Phases of the conquest. Portuguese in Asia. Spanish conquests in the New World. Decadence of Spain. Organization of the conquest. Principal companies. French and English in India. Colonization of North America by the English and the French. Slavery in the countries conquered by the Western nations. Results of the maritime discoveries. The grandeur of Holland. The changing of commercial routes. The birth of commercial legislation. Colbert and the protective system. The colonial system. The sugar-producing colonies. Financial system of law. The loss of India and Canada. Independence of the English colonies of North America. Commercial results of the independence of the United States. The eighteenth century and its economic reforms. Quesnay, Gournay, and Turgot. Liberal tendencies in commercial affairs. Treaty of 1786. The French Revolution and its consequences from the standpoint of the development of industries and of commerce. Tariff of 1791. Commercial system of the Empire. The continental blockade and its results. The protective system under the Restoration. The corn laws and the laws relating to animals and metallurgy. The customs policy of Prussia since 1816. Organization of the customs union (Zollverein). Its economic results. The Netherlands, Russia, and Sweden. The reform of the customs in Great Britain. Cobden, Robert Peel, and the league against the corn laws. Influence of the customs reform on the commercial politics of Europe. Revolution of 1848 in France. War of the parties on the ground of import duties. Commercial tendency of the second Empire. The system of commercial treaties inaugurated in 1860. Results of this economic revolution. Development of the ways of communication. International treaties. Extension of commercial relations. The merchant marine. Suez Canal. Economic and social evolution in the countries of the extreme Orient. Commerce of China, of Japan, and of India. Australia. Java. Indo-China. America since the War of Independence. Progress of its industry, its agriculture, and of its commerce. Its commercial system. Cause of the war of secession. Economic results of this war. The actual position of the United States from the commercial point of view. Canada. Mexico. Central and South America. The commercial present and the growing importance of the traffic of this country. Panama. Commerce of Europe since 1870. Scientific and industrial discoveries. International expositions. Resources of the principal countries. Methods employed in making payments among the nations in adjusting their commercial balances. Development of credit, of the means of communication, of financial societies. Banks of issue and of circulation. International values. Clearing houses. The exchanges. Statistics. The colonizing tendencies of the European nations, their causes. Conditions of international commerce. Its future. Résumé.

THE ELEMENTS OF FRENCH PUBLIC AND CIVIL LAW—FIRST YEAR (TWENTY-FIVE LESSONS).

Organization of the public powers; the legislative power; the executive power; the promulgation of laws. The judicial power. Organization of the different judicial bodies, specially the commercial tribunals and the councils composed of employers and employees. Commercial representation. The Superior Council of Commerce and Industry. Chambers of commerce. The project of creating changes of naviga-

tion. Consulting chambers of art and manufacture. French and foreign chambers of commerce. Consuls. Of civil rights. On nationality. Of the position of foreigners in France. Of the documents of the civil state. Of domicile. Of marriage. Of parents and of children. Of the parental power. Of minors, of guardianship, and of livery. Of disfranchisement and of legal council. Of movable and immovable property. Of property and possession. Of usufruct and of services. Of the different modes of acquiring property. Of succession. Of gifts among the living and of wills and testaments. Of contracts and obligations. Of the validity of contracts. Of the contract of marriage. Of the renting of property. Of depositing property. Of security. Of transactions. Of franchises and of mortgages. Of prescriptions.

COMMERCIAL, MARITIME, AND INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION—FIRST YEAR (THIRTY-FIVE LESSONS).

Commercial law.—The general ideas of commerce and of commercial law. The sources of French commercial law. Bibliography.

Commercial documents.—Reasons for discrimination (competence, validity, etc.).

Persons engaged in commerce.—Competency (minors, married women). Obligations and rights. Commercial books, publicity of contract of marriage, licenses, election and eligibility to the chamber of commerce, and tribunals. Competence of the commercial tribunals. Methods of procedure. Arbitration.

Societies.—General ideas. Civil and commercial societies. Copartnership societies and partnerships of limited liabilities. Joint stock companies. General ideas concerning stocks and bonds, nontransferable and transferable paper. Joint stock partnerships. Joint stock companies. Premium insurance societies and mutual insurance societies. Cooperative societies. Private copartnerships. Civil societies having a commercial form. Foreign societies in France.

Agents employed by persons engaged in commerce.—Agents acting under powers of attorney. Officers and clerks. Commissioners and attorneys. Brokers.

Of commercial sales.—General rules for closing a sale and its performance. Different species.

Of security.—Civil and commercial security. Special rules relating to commercial security. General storehouses; warrants; receipts. Of transportation contracts. General rules. Of railroad transportation. Transportation through the postal system.

Chambers of commerce.—Operations transacted in them. Stock agents and brokers.

SECOND YEAR (FIFTY LESSONS).

Of commercial paper—Of bills of exchange.—History. Theory of the French code. Of the form of a bill of exchange. Of indorsement, of its form and its performance. Of the provision. Of the acceptance. Of the rights and duties of the holder.

Of checks.—Of their distinctive character. Clearing-house of Paris.

Of bills payable to order.—Domestic bills. The payment of commercial paper by the postal administration in France, Germany, and in Belgium.

Bills payable to bearer.

Bank operations.—Loans. Discount. Opening of credit. Account current. Of the Bank of France. Of colonial banks. Of the landed credit (crédit foncier).

Failures, legal settlements, and bankruptcies.

Maritime law.—General ideas. Sources of maritime law.

Of ships.—Shipowners and owners of privateers. The rights of the different creditors; privilege; mortgages; the right of succession. Abandoning a ship and freight.

Freighting or chartering.—Of the distinction between extraordinary and ordinary damages.

Of the bottomry loan.

Of the maritime mortgage.

Maritime insurance.—General ideas. Particular rules regarding the insurance on a body and the insurance on abilities.

Appendix.—General ideas relating to fire insurance, life insurance, and insurance against accidents.

Industrial law—Patents on inventions.—Of the nature of the law granting the profits from the invention to its inventor. The patent on inventions, its character, formalities, publicity. Of the patentability of inventions. Forfeitures. Duration and tax on patents. Of improvements. Of the importation of inventions patented in a foreign country.

Of the right of foreigners.—Provisional protection during public exposition. Of the property in an invention and a patent.

Of the different laws of which the patent may be the object.—Of the transfer of patents.

Of the concession of licenses. Of counterfeiting. Of jurisdiction in case of law suits. Action in nullity. A suit in case of forfeiture. A suit relating to the property of patents. Suit in case of counterfeiting. Procedure. Repression. Of the secrets of manufacture.

Of the models and designs of manufacture.—General ideas on property in works of art.

Trade-marks and labels.—The character of trade-marks. Optional marks and obligatory marks. Property. Transference. Depositing. Counterfeits. Repression.

Of a commercial name.—Of the names of locality (products sold to foreigners).

Of dishonest competition.—The rights of foreigners in matters of industrial property. International conventions (the union of 1883, etc.). Dangerous manufactories, unhealthy or incommodious. Legal systems. System of apparatus and steam-heating.

FOREIGN COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION—SECOND YEAR (TWENTY LESSONS).

The necessity for harmonizing certain matters of commercial law. Partial results accomplished in this respect. Diplomatic conventions. Congresses of commercial law. The sketch of the actual commercial legislation in vogue in the principal countries. The codes and laws to consult. Bibliography. General ideas relating to persons engaged in commerce. Their distinctive marks and obligations in the principal mercantile nations. The organization of commercial tribunals. Of the commercial sale. Of commercial societies. The system of companies by shares. Special study of the English legislation on the subject. The condition of the law and of the fact relating to societies transacting business outside of the countries in which they originated. Of commercial paper, notably according to the German law at the change of 1848, the English law and Scandinavian legislation. Special laws relating to checks, banks of deposit, and clearing-houses. Of bankruptcy under the principal foreign laws, specially according to the German law of 1877 and of the English law of 1883. Of the bankruptcies of persons not engaged in commerce. Measures to prevent bankruptcy in Belgium, Italy, Spain, etc. Of transportation by railroad. Legislation relating thereto in the great mercantile countries, and especially in Germany. The projects for diplomatic conventions on this subject. Organization of industrial property in foreign countries. The international similarity respecting this subject. Nationality and transfer of ships. Freight contracts. Freight and consignment. Of marine mortgage. Of damages and their regulation. Marine insurance. Special examination of the rules of York and of Antwerp. Organization of commercial tribunals. Judicial powers of consuls. Their mission in regard to persons engaged in commerce, and especially those engaged in the merchant marine.

POLITICAL ECONOMY—FIRST YEAR (THIRTY LESSONS).

Matters relating to taxes, to customs, to labor questions, and to transportation have been respectively comprised in the programmes of the legislation relating to customs and the budget, of legislation relating to laborers and transportation.

Preliminary knowledge.—Cursory review of economic phenomena. The science and art of political economy. The method, importance of observations, of historical criticisms, of experience, of statistics and its most important numerical and graphical processes.

Production.—The three factors in production:

(1) Natural agents. The land and the law of diminishing returns.

(2) Labor. Division of labor. Freedom of labor. Slavery. Serfdom. Corporations. Regulations.

(3) Capital. Its formation, its rôle, its different forms. Machines, their effects.

Classification of industries.—Large and small industries:

(1) Agricultural industry; extensive and intensive cultivation; cultivation on a large and small scale; cultivation of one's own State; renting, Metayers.

(2) Extractive industries.

(3) Manufacturing industries.

(4) Commercial industries.

(5) Carrying industries.

Circulation.—Exchange and value. Current value and normal value. Competition and monopoly. The mechanism of exchange. Money. Two conditions which it must fulfill. Qualities which are necessary to good money. The principal moneys, gold, silver, copper coin. The principal facts regarding the history and price of the precious metals. Monetary systems. Legal rate of exchange. Gresham's law. Paper money. Depreciation of silver, its causes, its effects. The American silver bill. The Latin Union. Monometallism and bimetallism. Present state of the question in the world. The effects of the depreciation of money on international commerce.

Credit.—Its usefulness. Advantages and guarantees offered by the borrower to the lender. Commercial credit. Fiduciary circulation. The exchanges of public and other paper. The exchange. Banks: function of bankers, discount, deposits, current accounts, checks, clearances. The clearing-house; banks of issue, their relation to the State, their systems in the principal countries. Mortgage credit. Landed credit. Marine mortgage. Credit on security. Loans on deeds, warrants. On articles put in pawn. Agricultural credit. Popular banks. Different systems.

Commerce.—Domestic and foreign commerce. Position of the middleman. Wholesale and retail commerce. Speculation. Monopoly. Law of exportation. Crises. Theory of crises.

Distribution.—Individual property. How it is established. Its economic advantages. Its legitimacy. Transference: gifts, sales, inheritance. Common patrimony.

Freedom of contract.—Rent. Interest. Basis of interest, its causes and effects. Regulation of interest. Salaries. Basis of salaries. Productivity of labor. Different forms of salaries, bounties, participation in the profits. Profits of the entrepreneur.

Consumption.—Productive and unproductive consumption. Economy and prodigality. Luxury. Absenteeism. Public consumption.

Population.—Malthus and his doctrine. Pauperism: Causes and remedies. Saving. Insurance. Assistance.

The State.—Its position in the economic order of things. Its interference. National and international regulations. Socialism.

LABOR LEGISLATION—SECOND YEAR (TEN LESSONS).

The contract in hiring out one's services.—Professional syndicates. Societies cooperating for production, for consumption, for construction, and for credit. Combinations. Conciliation and arbitration. Privileges relating to salaries. Not distraintable. Methods and times for the payment of salaries. Apprenticeship. Regulation of the work of children, of women, and of adults. Accidents in factories, responsibility; professional risks; industrial societies for the prevention of accidents. Laws or legislative questions concerning the institutions for encouraging saving, and providing against future need (institutions for pensioning the aged, insurance and mutual aid societies, etc.) Principles of legislation compared.

LEGISLATION RELATING TO THE BUDGET AND CUSTOMS—SECOND YEAR (TWENTY-FIVE LESSONS).

Legislation relating to the budget.—The budget of the State. Origin and history of public finance. Preparation, voting and execution of the budget. Extraordinary and supplementary credits. Public expenses. Ministerial credits, financial administration and public accounts. Public debt. Amortization. Conversion. Progression of the budget. Resources of the budget. Public revenues. Public domain and the private domain of the State. Railways. Taxes. General ideas of the tax. Its nature. Its characteristic and economic result. Its influence on industry and commerce. The single and the multiple tax.

The proportional and the progressive tax. Tax on capital. Tax on revenue. The direct tax. The indirect tax. Cost of collection. The indirect taxes. Land tax, contribution from persons and personal property, the door and window tax. License. Tax on the revenue derived from personal property. Tax on luxuries. The indirect taxes: Tax of registration and the stamp tax, the customs duties, statistics, etc. Taxes on consumption. Products of the post-office, and the duties on transportation. General organization of the postal and telegraph service. Local taxes. Budgets of the departments and of the communes. The octrois. The reduction of taxes. Financial organization and the fiscal legislation of the principal foreign countries: England, Germany, Austro-Hungary, Italy, Russia, Turkey, United States, etc.

Customs legislation.—The successive changes in customs legislation which have been made up to the present time. The actual systems. French tariffs. Tariffs of the principal foreign countries. The treaties of commerce in vogue at the present time. The administration of custom-houses. Double character of the duties collected by them. Fiscal duties. Protective duties. Theory of duties on the basis of "payment for services rendered." General and conventional tariffs. Respective advantages of these two forms of customs legislation. "The most favored nation" clause. Methods of taxation. Specific duties. Duties ad valorem. Drawbacks. Temporary admissions. Bounties on exportation. Division of the customs duties. Duties on importation. Duties on exportation. Duties on transit. Accessory duties collected by the administration of the custom-houses. Its cooperation in recovering certain interior taxes. Police measures and measures taken to prevent fraud. Active

administration of custom houses. Extent of land and sea frontiers. Indication of the procedure of the methods of recourse in case of disputes in regard to customs. Rights of preemption, etc. Commercial statistics. General commerce. Special commerce. Customs valuations. Official values. Actual values. Influence of price. Raw material. Manufactured products. Special systems. Systems in the colonies. Customs legislation relating to the principal industries. The grain trade. Extractive and manufacturing industries. Sugars. Tax on salt. Marine fisheries, etc. Merchant marine. Differential duties. Surtaxes on the flags. Surtaxes on the warehouse. Bounties on navigation and equipment. Subsidies for construction. Commercial politics and the customs tariffs of the principal countries.

STUDY OF TRANSPORTATION—SECOND YEAR (SIXTEEN LESSONS).

Establishment, maintenance, and administration of routes of communication.—Of the legal status of ways of communication. Domanial rights. Establishment of ways of communication by the State, the department or the communes. Franchises. Actual development of roads, canals, and navigable routes and seaports. The expenses of establishment and maintenance. History of the systems of French railroads. Financial relation of the companies to the State. Railroads belonging to the State. Railroads of purely local interest. Actual condition of the French systems. Control of the State over the railroads which have been ceded. Legal character of the tariffs, and the conditions on which they are established.

Economic study of transportation.—Of the value of transportation and its net cost. Influence of tolls on the development of traffic, and on the utility of the routes of communication. "Baremes" and fixed price. Their advantages and their disadvantages. Price of transportation by railroad or by water. Their variations. Actual importance of the traffic. Net cost of transportation by railroads. Elements of variation in the net cost. Fixed price and "baremes." Representation of the tariffs by curves. Of competition in matters of transportation, especially the competition between railroads and waterways. Tariffs called "Tariffs of penetration."

A special study of railroad tariffs.—General principals of railroad tariffs. Uses of "Recueil Chaix." "Baremes" and their graphic representation. Application of distance. Clauses relating to intermediate stations, not mentioned, and connected. Passenger rates. Classes, round-trip tickets, excursion tickets, and compartments of luxury. General tariffs of fast and slow freight. Methods of application and conditions of delay. Classification. Exceptional tariff. Accessory expenses. Special tariffs. Methods of applying these tariffs. Portage and cartage. The relation of railroad enterprises to other methods of transportation.

COMMERCIAL INSTRUMENTS—SECOND YEAR (TWENTY LESSONS).

The elements of mechanics.—Velocity and acceleration. Force. Quantity. Work and living force. Mechanical units. The mechanical equivalent of heat. Energy: its transformations and conservations. Sources of energy. Study of the principal motors. Animal motors. Motors propelled by wind. Hydraulic wheels. Turbines. Detailed study of the steam engine and its latest improvements: steam generators; administrative regulation and surveillance. Gas and petroleum motors. Various motors. Instruments of transmission and transformation of motion. Dynamometers and various indicators.

Telegraphy.—The principle of the electro-magnetic telegraph. Overhead and subterranean lines. Detailed study of the Morse system. Discussion of a postal telegraph, lightning-rods, compass, clocks. Dial apparatus. Comparison of the two systems. The apparatus for increasing the rapidity. Monopoly and irresponsibility of the State on the subject of telegraphs. Constitution of the French system; bureaus called "municipal;" semaphores; pneumatic system of Paris. Rates. International communications; land and submarine lines. International union telegraph. Cipher telegrams; cryptography. Lines run in the interest of private persons.

The telephone.—Description and use of Bell's telephone. Microphone: Description and use of a micro-telephone system. Discussion of postal telephones. Effects of induction between the telegraph wires and the neighboring telephone wires; methods of preventing it. Comparison of the respective advantages and disadvantages of the telegraph and telephone. State monopoly; its limitations. Organization of the interior telephone communications of a close property between the different parts of an industrial or commercial establishment. Telephone lines used for private interest. Urban systems and groups of urban systems. Telephonic communications at long distances.

Electric lighting.—The ideas relating to Ohm's law and the electric unities: Ohm, volt, ampère. Volt meters and ampère meters. Brief theory of Graham's machine. Magnetic and dynamo-electric machines, with continued current and alternating

currents. Accumulators. Electric arc lamps. Regulators. Jablochkoff's candle. Incandescent electric lamps. Choice to make between the arc lamps and the incandescent lamps according to circumstances.

Distribution of electric light by direct current or by transformed currents. Lighting of passenger stations, of market halls, and of large industrial, commercial, or financial establishments. Domestic lighting; study of a certain number of cases of actual lighting. Various advantages resulting from the employment of the electric light. Price of electric lighting compared with that of gas. Future of electric lighting, its war with gas.

Transportation by electric force.—The most satisfactory systems. Trials and applications. Electric traction. Administrative regulations and surveillance of electric lines and factories.

Lifting apparatus.—The different types of hand cranes. Timber and metallic cranes, fixed or variable. Steam cranes with or without gearing. Christian cranes. Revolving steam cranes. The organization of transporting in the factory park of Creusot. Cranes run by water under pressure; the Armstrong system. Revolving steam derricks employed in unloading railroad cars or river boats. Inclined planes with trucks.

Railroads.—Comparison between the traction of a vehicle on an ordinary road and on an iron track; necessity for modifying the grades and curves. The numerous conditions which must be fulfilled in order to lay out a great railroad line. A normal track and a double track. Ties; iron rails and steel rails, etc. Transferring from one track to another; switches, crosses, etc. Railroad ties. Turning tables. Rolling stock for transporting merchandise. The construction of a train of cars. Couplings. Different types of cars. Box cars, truck cars, and platform cars. The limitation of charges. Transportation of large pieces of wood. Special cars. Freight stations. Small stations. Principal stations. Quays and market halls. Stations for transshipment of goods. Special cranes employed in these stations. Large stations at junctions. Sorting cars in order to return them. Sorting and classifying acccording to weight (the inclined plane of Edge Hill). Terminal stations; their location (station at Batignolles, of Bercy, etc.). Detailed description of the station "la Chapelle." Switching cars. Moving by hand and with horses. Switch engines. Hydraulic windlasses. Charcoal stations. Stations for iron and stone. Particular branches. Conditions of establishment and exploitation. Administrative formalities. Narrow gauge railroad. Facilities and economy of building the road and of material. Example. Stations at the junctions with the principal systems. Their machines for transferring merchandise. Small railroads for the special use of manufactories, of large commercial houses, and warehouses in general. Tramways. Portable railroads.

Inland navigation.—Material for transportation on rivers and canals. Forms and dimensions of boats. Different methods of locomotion: Towing by hand, with horses, and attempts at towing by steam. Navigation with sails and drifting. Steam navigation. Wheel steamers. Screw steamers. Towers. Rafting loose logs and logs fastened together. The canalization of rivers; dams; locks; lateral canals. Summit level ponds. Method of feeding. Inclined plane of the Morris Canal; inclined plane of Black Hill. Great Western elevator; Anderton's elevator; elevator of Fontinettes. Landing places for inland navigation.

Seaports.—War between the marine cities; the progress realized every day in the management and in the use of machinery at seaports. The different operations involved in handling merchandise from the time it leaves the hold of the vessel until it is placed in cars or in storehouses, and vice versa. The harmony necessary to establish between land and naval institutions. Ocean seaports. The tide port. Wet docks. Docks for half tide. Docks for full tide. Deep-water docks. Seaports without docks. Works on the seacoast, jetties, outer dikes. Description of a typical port according to M. Barret. Jetties affected by steamers transporting dispatches, passengers, and prize merchandise. Sheds and storehouses. Iron tracks. Jetties affected exclusively by steamers carrying merchandise. Jetties for exportation or importation of heavy and cumbersome merchandise. Wooden bottoms. Pilots: New York. Quays and the shores of docks; their management. Maritime stations. Quays and exterior embankments. Transferring from one vessel to another. The apparatus used for lifting at wharves; movable hydraulic cranes. Floating steam cranes. Derricks worked by hand, by steam, and by hydraulic pressure. The utilization of hydraulic pressure for manipulating turning bridges, windlasses, etc. Unloading of grain. Pneumatic apparatus. Floating elevators. Establishments for repairing; docks for careening, dockyards, windlasses, floating docks. Docks of transfer. Dry docks. The docks of London and of Liverpool. Docks for the exportation of coal. Northumberland and Tyne dock. Detailed description of the seaports at Trieste, Marseilles, Havre, and Antwerp.

Warehouses and general storehouses.—Buildings having several stories and buildings of but one story; advantages and disadvantages of each kind. Construction and

management. Elevator apparatus; charges for hydraulic elevating or lowering goods. Buildings destined to receive special merchandise. Spirits, wines, vegetable oils, petroleum, storing grain. Pits and various granaries.

PENMANSHIP (TWO YEARS)—FIRST YEAR (TWENTY LESSONS)—SECOND YEAR (FIFTEEN LESSONS).

Review of the general principles relating to the different species of handwriting. Theoretical and practical exercises. The customary practice in writing and in the graphic execution of correspondence and of commercial accounts; business letters, commercial bills, invoices. Transferring entries from the journal to the ledger; inventories; balance sheets; discount memoranda, etc. Administrative documents, synoptical tables, memoranda, etc. Foreign commercial correspondence.

NOTES ON THE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS OF FRANCE.

GROUPS.—The French schools of commerce may be divided into two groups. The first group comprises seven higher schools, of which two are at Paris and five in the provinces. The second group comprises four primary and intermediate schools, of which three are at Paris and one in the provinces; a total of eleven schools of commerce.

CONSTITUTION OF THE SCHOOLS.—The Superior School of Commerce at Paris; the Commercial School of the Avenue Trudaine, and the School of Higher Commercial Studies are all governed by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, which purchased the first in 1869 and founded the other two in 1862 and 1881.

The schools at Lyons, Marseilles, Havre, and the Commercial Institute of Paris are controlled by private corporations. The school at Rouen was also created by a corporation; its capital having been exhausted in 1882, an arrangement was made which incorporated the school into the School of Sciences and Letters of Rouen (Academy of Caen), in whose hands it now languishes. The method of subsidies was adopted in the case of the School of Bordeaux, which was organized in 1874. This combination permitted a reduction of the cost of tuition to 200 francs, while giving to the school a good location and an excellent equipment. The School of Reims, supported by the same method of subsidy as the School of Bordeaux, became a public establishment in 1882 under the immediate control of the ministry of public instruction, like the manual school. The Practical School of Commerce and Accounting has remained private property.

If one compares the value of these different methods of support, one must recognize that they are all equally precarious. The School of Rouen has foundered for lack of capital; the school at Havre manages to exist with great difficulty; that at Lyons, founded by a private corporation which seemed to offer more permanence, has about arrived at the end of its resources. If the Paris Chamber of Commerce had been obliged to carry for the School of the Avenue Trudaine and that of the rue Amelot the same deficits as for the School of Higher Commercial Studies, it is evident it would have been obliged to have closed these establishments. As to the School of Bordeaux, it could not survive a disagreement between the three bodies which subsidized it. The school at Reims alone sees its position assured by the aid of the State, but it has lost all liberty. So far as an educational point of view is concerned, those schools governed by private corporations offer more freedom in instruction. Nevertheless, it does not assure as careful supervision as the method of subsidies, for shareholders are usually little interested in operations which do not give profits. Finally, excellent results have been obtained under all methods, so far as the instruction is concerned, but from the administrative and financial point of view the direct control by the State would be preferable to the corporation, which is less watchful and less attentive, and the form of corporate management is, moreover, rarely favorable to enterprise.

COUNCILS.—The different schools are administered by councils, composed ordinarily of the prominent merchants of the vicinity. The councils of the three schools, supported by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, are recruited from the members of that body. Besides looking after the financial administration these committees are also charged with supervising the course of study. The council of the school at Lyons is composed of thirteen members, of whom four are chosen from the Chamber of Commerce and nine from the shareholders. The council of the school at Marseilles is composed of twelve members, of whom ten are shareholders and two are members of the Chamber of Commerce, and is assisted by an educational committee founded by it, and whose members can be taken from outside the body of shareholders; a provision very wise and favorable to good instruction, for it permits the introduction of specialists into the council. The school at Havre is administered by a council of twelve members, composed of shareholders elected in general assembly. Besides

looking after the financial administration, it organizes the instruction of the school and supervises it. At Bordeaux the administration of the school is confided to the Philomathic Society, under the control of a committee of supervision, composed of five members of the municipal council, five members of the Chamber of Commerce, and a representative of the council general of the Gironde, also five members of the Philomathic Society. The Commercial Institute of the Chaussée d'Antin is administered by a council of supervision, taken from the founders and shareholders of the institute. Finally the Professional School at Reims has a committee of patronage and supervision, composed of fourteen members. The Superior School of Commerce at Paris, besides its administrative delegation, has an educational council composed of twenty-five notabilities and presided over by the ministry of commerce.

SCHOLARSHIPS.—In addition to the information which is found in the table published above, we add some remarks upon the pecuniary aid which the State has given to commercial instruction. A ministerial order, dated February 1, 1849,[1] created at the Superior School of Commerce at Paris, directed at that time by M. Blanqui, sixteen half scholarships of 500 francs each. By an order of April 23, 1853, these sixteen half scholarships were transformed into twelve entire scholarships of 1,200 francs each. The total expense of 14,400 francs was taken from the grant for the encouragement of industry and commerce.

A special grant for the maintenance of scholarships in the schools of commerce was first inserted into the budget for the year 1875. This grant amounted to 30,000 francs; it was raised to 40,000 francs by the law of 1883. These scholarships are distributed as follows:

Date of creation.	Name of school.	Scholarships.		Value.
		Number.	Cost.	
			Francs.	*Francs.*
Apr. 23, 1853	Superior School of Commerce of Paris	12	1,200	14,400
Oct. 14, 1874	Commercial School of Paris	10	240	2,400
Law of finances of 1883	School of Higher Commercial Studies	10	1,000	10,000
Feb. 22, 1875, Jan. 5, 1882, and Dec. 15, 1884.	Superior School of Commerce of Marseilles.	8	600	4,800
Feb. 22, 1875	Superior School of Commerce of Lyons	4	600	2,400
Oct. 14, 1874	Superior School of Commerce of Rouen	10	300	3,000
Feb. 22, 1875	Superior School of Commerce of Havre	3	600	1,800
Do	Superior School of Commerce of Bordeaux	5	200	1,000
Total				39,800

SUBSIDIES.—The subsidies given to the establishments of commercial instruction were made from the grant for the encouragement of technical instruction, which figured regularly in the budgets since the year 1868. A special grant of 24,350 francs for subsidies to the establishments of commercial instruction was inscribed for the first time in the budget for the year 1884. For the year 1886 this grant was raised to 42,000 francs. These grants were distributed as follows for the year 1884-85:

Establishments of commercial instruction.	1884.	1885.
	Francs.	*Francs.*
Superior School of Commerce of Lyons	5,000	5,000
Superior School of Commerce of Rouen	2,000	2,000
Superior School of Commerce of Havre	5,000	5,000
Commercial School of Paris	200	200
Commercial Institute of Paris	1,500	1,000
Superior School of Commerce of Paris	50	50
Philomathic Society of Bordeaux	2,000	2,000
Industrial Society of Saint Quentin and of l'Aisne	3,000	3,000
Society for the Technical Instruction of Women	500	500
Society of the Rowen for the Technical Instruction of Women	1,000	1,000
Superior Higher Course of Commercial Accounting for Women	1,000	1,000
Society for the Technical Instruction of Women (foundation E. Lemonnier)	1,000	1,000
Course of Accounting of the Paris Chamber of Commerce	1,100	1,100
The Academic Society of Accounting, and other societies	1,000	1,000

TRAVELING SCHOLARSHIPS.—The budget for the year 1885, under the head of the ministry of commerce, contained a special grant of 9,000 francs for the establishment of traveling scholarships, in favor of the graduates of the higher schools of commerce. This grant was raised to 18,000 francs by the budget of 1886; the grant asked for at

[1] Some half scholarships had been established ten years earlier.

that time was 50,000 francs. The creation of traveling scholarships answers the necessity of extending our field of commercial activity abroad, as well as a just requirement from the standpoint of instruction. One must not forget the fact that in other careers—in the fine arts, in university studies—traveling scholarships have been established at great expense, and that schools have been organized in order to enable the graduates to ripen their talent by the study of the works of the great masters.

In Belgium the Government created, in 1862, several traveling scholarships for the licentiates in commercial sciences graduating from the Superior School of Commerce in Antwerp. Public opinion in France has been favorably inclined to the idea of taking a similar step in favor of the graduates of our schools of commerce. M. Jacquemart, in an excellent report, has made himself the eloquent interpreter of this sentiment, and he has been fortunate enough to gain his cause. Everything points to the fact that future budgets will increase each year the grant for these scholarships. The grant in Belgium amounts to 45,000 francs.

"When the French State shall decide to follow the example of Belgium, we said some time ago, it must not hesitate to increase the number of scholarships. One means of creating a large number of them without increasing the cost to the contributors would be to transform them into temporary loans made by the treasury, and reimbursable under given conditions."

We have on several occasions mentioned this system, which could also be adopted by commercial societies or syndicates or insurance companies. This system of loans would substitute for a beneficiary a debtor who has taken upon himself certain formal obligations.

"The beginning of a commercial career, let us add, ought not to be a gift from a society; a capital received and which is not to be repaid; a debt which is not to be liquidated. The State should limit itself to making a loan, and the traveler who benefits by the advance should repay it when he shall have succeeded in making it bear fruit. This capital would then assist other travelers, who would employ it fruitfully in their turn."

However it may be with these reflections, we congratulate M. Jacquemart on this happy initiative and the result accomplished. The necessary thing was to do something. Below is appended the set of regulations relating to traveling scholarships, founded by the ministry of commerce:

ARTICLE 1. A certain number of traveling scholarships will be annually opened to competition by the minstry of commerce. These scholarships, of an annual value of 3,000 francs, are granted for three years.

ART. 2. To be admitted to the competition, candidates must produce a certificate of good conduct and moral character, and evidence showing, first, that they are French citizens either native or naturalized; second, that they are at least 20 years of age and not more than 25 at the time of the competition; third, that they are furnished with a diploma of one of the schools of commerce designated below:

School of Higher Commercial Studies; Superior School of Commerce at Paris; Superior School of Commerce at Lyons; Superior School of Commerce at Marseilles; Superior School of Commerce at Bordeaux; Superior School of Commerce at Rouen; Superior School of Commerce at Havre; Commercial Institute of Paris; Commercial School of the Avenue Trudaine at Paris.

ART. 3. Other things being equal, the proof that the candidate has already passed one or more years in active busines is also considered.

ART. 4. The competition, announced a month in advance in the official journal, occurs at Paris from the 1st to the 30th of December.

ART. 5. Registrations are received at the ministry of commerce up to the 15th of November.

ART. 6. The competitive examination is divided into two parts: First, a written examination; second, an oral examination. The written examination comprises, first, commercial geography of the entire world; second, the history of French commerce; third, a composition in a foreign language—English, German, Spanish, Italian, or Portuguese. The oral examination includes, first, the commercial geography of the entire world; second, French customs legislation; third, French commercial law; fourth, a foreign language—English, German, Spanish, Italian, or Portuguese, at the choice of the candidate.

ART. 7. These different examinations are conducted before a jury named each year by the ministry of commerce.

ART. 8. The candidates judged worthy of the traveling scholarships will be asked to choose their place of residence after consultation with the minister of commerce, who will strive to render their sojourn abroad easy and pleasant, by recommending them to large French business houses and procuring for them as much as possible the assistanse of diplomatic and consular agents.

ART. 9. The holders of these scholarships must address, each quarter, to the ministry of commerce a study upon the commerce and industries of the region in which

they are living. They must add a certificate from the French consul in the district where they are residing, certifying that they are occupying themselves with serious studies, with business, and with commercial journeys.

These regulations suggest some reflections on the diploma which one requires of the candidate, certifying that he possesses the knowledge shown in the programmes of the schools. We believe, then, that the examination is superfluous. It will certainly be judged to be so later when the State shall control the schools directly. But as long as the examination is recognized to be necessary, why have they eliminated from the test everything which relates to the science of commerce itself, which forms with modern languages the basis of the instruction in the schools of commerce? Law and legislation are only auxiliary branches in this instruction.

Is not the essential rather the commercial knowledge of the sort demanded, attested either by the possession of a diploma or by an examination covering the programme of the higher schools themselves, and satisfactory statements in regard to the state of the health, character, habits of study, intellectual keenness, industry, spirit of initiative, fine sense of honor, etc., all things which escape the test of the examination? This information could be furnished by the chambers of commerce, and especially by the man who had employed the candidate.

The regulations say further that, other things being equal, the fact that the candidate has already passed one or more years in active business will be taken into serious consideration. This provision authorizes, by implication at least, the candidate to present himself without having had any business experience—a thing which seems to us undesirable. We should have preferred that, other things being equal, practical experience should receive absolute preference, and as a matter of principle, considering the actual state of commercial instruction, this practical experience ought to be insisted upon in all cases, with the minimum period of one full year. At any rate, and let us emphasize this fact, if the foundation of these traveling scholarships is to give the best results regard must be had to the state of health, activity, initiative, and moral character of the candidate, and more attention must be paid to commercial knowledge than to legal knowledge.

The holders of traveling scholarships must address, every quarter, a report to the minister upon the commerce and industries of the countries which they are visiting. This provision is excellent. We believe, however, that one ought to profit by the experience obtained in Belgium, where the report of a scholarship holder, demanded at one time a few months after the trip, is now demanded only after a full year, so that the pupil can make a careful study of the commerce of the country where he is living. "Since this provision was adopted," M. Grandgaignage, director of the institute, writes us, "I notice that the reports are more thorough, and merit publication in the consular reports."

SCHOLARSHIPS—APPEAL TO THE MERCHANTS.—If the State is thus so far from having encouraged commercial instruction, what shall we say of our commerce itself? With rare exceptions no person in France has understood the importance of this instruction, which must be considered as truly national as that in agriculture and industry. We have shown elsewhere in this treatise that only a few chambers of commerce—those of Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, and Bordeaux—have really made sacrifices for the sake of this instruction. What have the other chambers of commerce to the number of 103 done? Absolutely nothing. Those who have not created schools of commerce have not even founded scholarships in the establishments in which they ought to have interested themselves, because they are representatives of commerce. Is it not incredible? And what have the syndical chambers of merchants and manufacturers done? These number 167 in Paris alone, and they count members perhaps by the thousands. Alas! They have not even founded a scholarship, nor encouraged in any way the graduates of these schools. Syndical chambers in the provinces to the number of 343 have shown the same indifference; they have given absolutely no aid to commercial instruction, as absolutely nothing as to the study of theology. How about our municipal councils, especially those of the large cities? The same indifference, except at Paris, Lyons, Havre, and Bordeaux. And the departments, the councils general? The same disregard, except the department of the Lower Seine, and that of the Bouches du Rhone. And what of the learned societies, and especially the societies of political economy? Again nothing; absolutely nothing, except the Philomathic Society of Bordeaux and the Society for the Protection of Commerce in Marseilles. Our economists, it would seem, ought to interest themselves in something else than the mere development of economic science. A certain number of merchants, bankers, and corporations, whose names we have mentioned above, are the only individuals or bodies who have understood the advantage of assisting the instruction which aids our commerce directly.

Let us then take up this good movement and aid it as much as possible. Who should assist the work of commercial instruction if not commercial corporations themselves? One must not leave the whole burden of this work upon a few; one must not expect everything from the State, which justly asks that you should give the example to it which it needs in order to know what one should expect of it.

If we should secure one scholarship from each chamber of commerce, from the municipal council of the leading city of each district, from the council general, and from the syndical chambers we should have a total of 1,062 scholarships. This would not injure any person and our commercial instruction would be immensely advanced. It would then take on an extension worthy of such a nation as ours.

DURATION OF THE STUDIES.—In the actual state of our schools the three-year course is not too long. The School of Lyons has just extended its course to four years, of which two years are preparatory, although lowering, it is true, at the same time, the age of admission to 15 years. The two-year curriculum adopted by the school at Mühlhausen, at Rouen, Havre, and Bordeaux is too difficult for the majority of the pupils. Foreign pupils, moreover, have too imperfect a knowledge of our language to enable them to follow the course with advantage from the beginning.

Commercial instruction, very complex in its nature, must strive to develop the judgment of the pupil at the same time that it furthers his special knowledge and his professional skill. It is for this reason that it must pay some regard to the age of the pupils and to the length of the curriculum. The age of the pupils at the time devoted to work play a great rôle in all educational matters. We believe, therefore, that the schools at Rouen, Bordeaux, and Havre will soon be ready to imitate the schools of higher studies and add a preparatory division.

AGE OF ADMISSION.—At about the age of 14 the pupils in the special secondary instruction finish the studies of the intermediate grade, in consequence of which they could enter the schools of commerce, where they would find an instruction certainly more profitable for them than that of the superior grades of the special secondary instruction. In order to recruit their preparatory classes the schools of commerce would find it to their advantage to lower the age of admission to 14. In exceptional cases the pupils properly prepared at 15 might then enter the higher school. Those who could not pass the examinations with success could spend another year in the preparatory class, which would be divided into two sections, as at Lyons and the Superior School of Commerce at Paris.

BACHELORS.—Those holding a bachelor's degree are exempt from the examination; they may enter directly the first year of the higher school at Lyons; bachelors of science and of special secondary instruction enter the second year directly, and at Marseilles, likewise provided, they can pass an examination on the subject-matter of the first year.

NUMBER OF PUPILS.—The number of pupils at the schools of commerce has not increased in the proportion which one would have hoped from the movement of public opinion which manifested itself in favor of commercial instruction immediately following the year 1870. In 1871 the school was established at Rouen; the following year three other schools were opened at Lyons, Marseilles, and Havre. To found these four establishments they succeeded in obtaining a capital of more than 2,000,000 francs by playing, it is true, upon the patriotic feeling then so much excited against the foreign element, and which desired to remove it forever from our offices. But no new school was established in 1873. A new one was created in Bordeaux in 1874, and with this the development stopped. The enthusiasm for the movement disappeared as the sentiment from which it grew died out. Little by little we returned to our traditional indifference. Observation showed that it was much easier to obtain subscribers than to create a really permanent movement in favor of commercial instruction. The habits of a nation can not be changed in a day. If money is the sinew of instruction, it is necessary that the schools should grow in numbers in order to assure the success of this branch of education. The commercial interests of our leading cities had subscribed the capital for these schools with very good grace, but everything shows that they intended for the present to preserve their children for university instruction, counting upon we know not whom to fill the new schools which they opened. But when we count upon our neighbors we are apt to suffer cruel losses.

Statistics show that each year about 450,000 young people enter upon commercial or industrial pursuits. To hope that one-tenth at least of this number would attend the schools of commerce of various grades was not expecting too much. But statistics show that we only reached about one-thousandth in the grades of superior instruction, and about three and thirty-seventh thousandths counting the pupils of primary and superior primary instruction. The public was not slow in grasping the situation. Even at Bordeaux, in 1874, it was no longer possible to find subscribers to establish a school under the corporate form by the sale of shares. The truth is that in all things time is necessary to prepare the public mind for action, and that in 1870 we were only superficially and, so to speak, artificially in favor of commercial instruction and schools of commerce. If the lesson of our military experience had demonstrated and borne in upon the public mind the insufficiency of our general education, the lessons of our economic experience were not yet sufficiently impressed in order to show us the insufficiency of our commercial instruction. The recovery of business came, moreover, very soon, thus quieting our spirits—ending, it is true, by misleading public opinion on the subject entirely. One doubted no longer of the commercial prosperity of the country. Why should we instruct our youth in

commerce when commerce was going on so well without it? This recovery of business coming so quickly, we repeated the financial follies of the Empire, which was then like a vertigo, which took possession of the nation, corrupted with the ambition of becoming rich rapidly without labor.

To-day things have changed. We are paying for these follies. The lesson has been terrible; we now have time to reflect. And as we see on every side the economic progress of neighboring nations we shall recognize that our commercial education lags far in the rear. Everything, then, points to the approaching success of the schools of commerce.

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Of 1,488 pupils in the school at Lyons, there were 137 in the silk division of the school; the school at Bordeaux had 230 pupils in its industrial division, leaving, therefore, a total of 7,053 pupils for higher commercial studies since 1871 and 9,238 in primary and higher primary instruction.

Examination of the attendance shows a continued increase in the number of pupils in the superior schools during the years from 1872 to 1877. The growth has been sensibly slower from 1880 to the present. However, thanks to the creation of the School of Higher Commercial Studies, the annual number exceeded 600, beginning with 1883. In 1886 it was 618, falling, however, to 490 if one deducts the 128 pupils in the School of Higher Commercial Studies, which would show a diminution of about 100 pupils as compared with the years 1877 and 1878. This diminution is certainly due to the law relating to military exemption, which did not include in the class exempt from the examination the graduates of the schools of commerce. We should no longer cast upon these schools a discrimination so marked as it is undeserved, for the military examination does not correspond in severity even to the final examination of the first year in the higher schools of commerce. If one had wished to injure, to hamper, the growth of these excellent schools, one could not have chosen a more efficient means. One can scarcely attribute so unjust a discrimination to anything else than ill will.[1]

In that which concerns the primary and intermediate schools, figures show a constant growth in attendance. In 1884 the number of students in the School of the Avenue Trudaine decreased about 50 in consequence of the competition of the Commercial Institute, which was so nearly like it, but the following year this loss disappeared, and commercial instruction, in consequence of the creation of the institute, saw the total number of the pupils increased. The Commercial School of the Avenue Trudaine has had 8,780 pupils since its creation in 1863.

FOREIGN PUPILS.—At the Superior School of Commerce in Paris, an establishment whose reputation is widely extended, the foreign pupils sometimes form one-third of the total number. The School of Higher Commercial Studies had 10 foreigners in the year 1886, a total of 51 since its establishment in 1883. At the school at Lyons there is an average of 10 foreign pupils, there being 9 for the scholastic year 1885–86. At the school at Marseilles the yearly average of foreign pupils is from 25 to 30, except during the last year or two, when the fear of cholera has reduced the number by half. At the school of Bordeaux there have been 43 foreign pupils since 1874, and 44 at Havre since 1880, 11 of whom belonged to the year 1885–86.

BACCALAUREATE PUPILS.—It is a matter of interest to note the proportion in which baccalaureate students—that is, graduates of the lycées—are to be found in these schools of commerce. On an average the Higher School of Commerce at Paris has from 8 to 10; the School of Higher Commercial Studies has this year 51;[2] it has enrolled 186 since 1883. There are 15 this year at Lyons; from 6 to 8 each year at Marseilles; 35 at Bordeaux since 1874, and about 10 at Havre since 1880.

RESIDENT PUPILS, HALF-BOARDERS, AND DAY PUPILS.—The Higher School of Commerce at Paris has received half-boarders only since 1873. Of 1,650 enrollments from 1873 to the present, 1,152 were resident pupils and 498 half-residents, being an average of 23. The School of Higher Commercial Studies has this year 52 resident and 74 half-boarders; the school at Lyons 18 residents and 85 day pupils; that at Marseilles 15 resident and 97 day pupils.

REWARDS.—At the end of each year the pupils who have passed the examination in a satisfactory manner receive either diplomas or certificates. Gold, silver, and bronze medals are awarded in the schools of Paris and Marseilles. At Lyons at the end of the second preparatory year the pupils receive a certificate. The diplomas of the Superior School of Commerce and those of the Higher Commercial School of Studies are signed by the minister of commerce.

TRAVELING SCHOLARSHIPS.—Certain schools grant prizes in the form of traveling scholarships to the best pupils, imposing upon them the condition of presenting to the director of the school a commercial report upon the countries which they have

[1] This discrimination has since been removed, and in the last two years, 1892 and 1893, attendance has rapidly increased at these schools.

[2] "This year," in the discussion of French schools, means 1885–86

visited. At the Superior School of Commerce at Paris, where this prize was established by the Chamber of Commerce, a special topic is assigned to the pupil, who must make an extended study upon it. At the school of Lyons the graduate has free choice of his subject, as also at Bordeaux. At Havre the traveling scholarships have been abolished.

DIPLOMAS.—At Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Bordeaux, and Havre the graduates have, up to the present, remained faithful to their chosen career and without, one may say, a single exception. We believe that this record is unequaled by the pupils of any other branch of instruction, and we deduce from this the most favorable conclusions both as to the schools themselves and as to the career, which never fails those who devote themselves to it, provided they have been properly trained, and are resolved to follow the line of good conduct and of persevering labor to which they owe their diplomas. What finer eulogy could be pronounced on any branch of instruction than to say that none of its graduates have gone to swell the ranks of the discontented. There is another thing which we must not forget in regard to this commercial instruction, and that is that it has led about 18 per cent of its pupils to try their fortunes abroad. At Bordeaux, of 93 graduates 16 are in foreign countries or in the colonies. At Lyons, 86 out of 400; at Marseilles, 37 out of 239; at Havre, 18 out of 125; at Paris, 30 out of 233, being a total of 187 educated young men who are devoting themselves to the development of our foreign commerce. This is a most favorable result, and speaks well for these schools of commerce, without the benefit of whose training these young men would have probably remained in France.

As to the graduates who have remained at home, they have usually remunerative posts, formerly open to foreigners alone. These schools have furnished French merchants a body of employees, specially trained, whom a few years of practice make into exceptionally valuable assistants.

Unhappily the number of pupils who pursue their studies up to the obtaining of a diploma is scarcely 15 per cent, being 1,132 out of 7,369 for the period from 1872 to 1886. Without doubt this number would have been considerably larger if the diploma had been accepted as a ground of exemption from the one-year military service examination.

PROFESSORS.—The number of professors varies from nine at the school of Havre to thirty-two in the superior schools of Paris. The salaries are varied in proportion to the importance of the course and the number of hours which the professors give to the respective courses. As to the importance of the courses, they are subject to various estimates, according as the instruction in the various schools tends in one direction or another. From the point of view of the specialty, it would seem that the professors of accounting, of merchandise, and of commercial geography should be found among the best paid instructors. But at the School of Higher Commercial Studies, for example, where one gives, it is true, not so much time to commercial instruction, a professor of accounting receives only one-sixth of the remuneration per hour as a professor of law. There are, moreover, many things to be said upon this complex question of instructors, which is closely connected with the definitive organization of schools of commerce. We return to this subject further on.

Of the six superior schools of commerce only three—that of Paris in the rue Amelot, that of Marseilles, and that of Havre—have directors who also teach. This point will also be discussed later.

Comparative table of the expenses of the various schools of commerce.

	Superior school budget.	Higher studies budget.	Lyons.	Marseilles.	Havre.	Bordeaux.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Salaries	87,000.00	117,110.00	63,167.55	44,979.70	18,866.75	61,400.00
Food	70,000.00	63,593.00	20,321.10	.....	.....	.....
Rent, taxes, and insurance	32,000.00	8,453.00	8,274.15	10,454.12	6,276.40	.....
Heating and lighting	8,500.00	14,160.00	2,197.10	1,917.52	.....	2,300.00
Laundry	6,000.00	5,079.45	1,525.30	.....	.....	.....
Maintenance and repairs	8,000.00	5,900.00	2,073.95	361.75	.....	2,400.00
Advertising	3,000.00	5,000.00	942.50	1,200.30	1,091.20	1,400.00
Sinking fund	12,400.00	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Library	.....	1,200.00	.....	331.35	.....	500.00
Laboratory	.....	1,600.00	.....	.....	.....	.....
Miscellaneous expenses	3,100.00	4,700.00	703.75	1,933.05	395.90	2,000.00
Water	.....	1,985.00	990.48	.....	.....	.....
Materials for manufacture	.....	.....	2,965.65	.....	.....	.....
Total of expenses	230,000.00	228,780.45	103,161.50	61,177.79	26,630.25	70,000.00
Total of receipts	230,000.00	228,780.45	78,492.90	63,979.14	24,013.80	70,000.00
Balances	.....	.....	24,668.60	2,001.55	2,616.45	.....

The budget for 1886 in the first two columns can be modified in the course of the scholastic year. They are made upon estimates based, it is true, upon the experience of preceding years, notably for the Superior School of Commerce, whose receipts and expenses can be estimated almost exactly. It will be noticed that this school pays rent, and practically contributes to the sinking fund. In the budget of the second school the rent represented by the annuity due the crédit foncier does not figure. The school of Lyons shows a loss, as also that of Havre. The school of Marseilles shows a surplus. That of Bordeaux is assisted by various subsidies. One will find the expenses of the Commercial School given on another page. These expenses amount to 120,000 francs, of which 76,000 francs are for salaries. We have no information on this point as to the Commercial Institute. The Professional School at Reims expends 61,000 francs for salaries, of which 47,000 are paid by the State, the rest by the city of Reims, which also pays for the expenses of the school buildings. The Superior School of Commerce more than balances its expenses and its receipts, and is thus enabled to contribute largely to the sinking fund. The Commercial School of the Avenue Trudaine is also in a prosperous condition. The school of Marseilles, in the provinces, after having had a deficit for many years on an average of 11,472 francs from 1872 to 1881, has seen its receipts exceed its expenses in 1882, 1884, and 1885. The schools at Lyons and Havre and the School of Higher Commercial Studies at Paris regularly show a deficit; that at Bordeaux also; but these losses are provided for in the latter case by the various subsidies. As to the Commercial Institute in the Chaussée d'Antin, it is still in the first period of its establishment, that of sacrifices, but everything leads us to hope for excellent results in the near future. Finally, the school at Rouen is suffering, the school at Reims has just begun to grow, and the Practical School of Commerce and Accounting is a profitable private venture.

A COMPARISON OF THE PROGRAMMES OF THE HIGHER SCHOOLS.

The programmes of the superior schools of commerce possess a uniformly common basis of instruction. This is made up of accounting, arithmetic, penmanship, geography, and commercial history, the study of merchandise, French and foreign languages, law and legislation relating to commerce, political economy, and the elements of the physical and natural sciences. To these general and special subjects of instruction almost all the schools have added visits to local industrial establishments, and some of them, notably the superior schools of commerce at Paris and Havre, take long trips of inspection throughout France and in foreign countries. Finally, to answer special wants or local exigencies, certain schools have added other branches of instruction. Such, for example, is the course of elocution at the schools at Marseilles and Havre; the course of equipment at Marseilles, Havre, and Bordeaux; the course in the physical, chemical, and mechanical sciences, and the course in drawing at the Superior School of Commerce at Paris, and numerous courses in law at the School of Higher Studies.

SPIRIT OF OUR COMMERCIAL INSTRUCTION.—The instruction, more comprehensive at the Superior School of Commerce at Paris and at the School of Higher Commercial Studies, is more limited to a narrow specialty in the schools of Lyons, Marseilles, Havre, and Bordeaux, where one devotes more time to the practical exercises in the commercial offices and less time to theoretical science.

These two tendencies in fact have shown themselves in the spirit of our commercial instruction from the foundation of the school at Mühlhausen, whose programme taken from that of Antwerp made a departure from that of the Superior School of Commerce of Paris. It is of value to define more exactly the motives which have underlain these two contrary tendencies. Those who favor confining the instruction to the narrow specialty argue as follows:

"When a school has a well-defined end all its instruction ought to tend toward this end. Whatever departs from this is taken from the time necessary to the fundamental studies. Without doubt it would be very agreeable to know everything, but as one can not study everything one must resolve to limit one's self. In overloading the programme the only result can be that the pupils have studied a little of everything and do not know anything thoroughly."

The programmes of the school at Mühlhausen and those of the schools at Lyons, Marseilles, Rouen, Havre, and Bordeaux have been constructed in accordance with this idea. The opposite line of reasoning is as follows:

"Some have wished the commercial schools to be almost exact representations of business offices. For this purpose one has imitated a business house, and the pupils correspond with each other like true merchants. As a mere exercise this does not seem to be bad, but it is entirely insufficient as a scheme of instruction. One sacrifices theory to child's play and to a supposed reality which in fact does not exist. Is it not a strong deception to believe that you can find, even among the best pupils, young men capable of doing real business service at the time they leave school? One can certainly not instruct in all the branches of business. Which branches shall one

choose? At the Polytechnic School, for example, the purpose is to train engineers and officers for special departments. One might believe that each group should follow a course appropriate to the career chosen by its members. But this is not at all so. The pupils, without exception, follow the same courses, and in consequence these courses are absolutely theoretical. It is only on graduation from the Polytechnic School that the young men enter the schools of application, where they pass two or three years, and from which they graduate as engineers or soldiers. Why should one take up any other plan in the training of merchants? Is there any reason to complain of the results obtained at the Polytechnic School? Are not our engineers sought for throughout the entire world? Can not one say without exaggeration that most of the railroads of Europe have been built by them? The various branches of commerce are more numerous than the careers open to young men leaving the Polytechnic School. But there is a body of knowledge common to all these branches, and their generality necessarily implies a general theoretical instruction."

The conclusion of this line of reasoning is that the schools of commerce must be made polytechnic schools, to which business houses shall stand in the relation of schools of application.

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These two extreme methods of regarding commercial instruction have each its own value, for they contain each a part of the truth.

So far as the first line of reasoning is concerned, it is necessary to consider the very difficult circumstances under which the schools of commerce, established since 1870, were placed. It is also fair to take account of the current of opinion favorable to the practical instruction which prevails with us, especially in commerce, where one denies the efficacy of a purely theoretical commercial instruction. Finally, for the class of pupils compelled in great part to leave school for the employment of the office or the bank, is it not necessary to attempt to communicate rapidly the knowledge by immediate use? It was, then, under the pressure of these various influences and on account of the necessity of recruiting their classes that the managers of our schools of commerce have elaborated their programmes, from which they have omitted everything which did not seem to be directly related to commerce and absolutely essential to its study. On the contrary, at the Superior School of Commerce at Paris, attended by the children of merchants in easy circumstances, one has been able to work out a three-year curriculum, less elementary, more comprehensive, more general; where theory predominates over practice, perhaps to even too great an extent, and an effort was made from the very beginning to establish a programme of studies which, carefully worked out, should not be inferior to-day, from a scientific point of view, to that of special secondary instruction. On this fact is based the charge that in this school everything is sacrificed to theory. They are, however, following a correct view of things, inasmuch as they wish that all special instruction should be solidly based upon general instruction. Moreover, so long as the superior schools of commerce are aiming to attract graduates of secondary instruction they must take care that the latter on entering these schools should not find themselves engaged in a course of study a degree lower than that which they have completed in the colleges or lycées.

At Mühlhausen, and later at Marseilles, Lyons, Rouen, Havre, and Bordeaux, they preferred to model their schools after the institute at Antwerp, without noticing that the examinations for admission into the last-named institution are relatively high, and in these schools they fixed from the first the length of the curriculum at two years, though it had been established by long experience that three years, of which one may be a preparatory year, constitute the minimum period necessary to higher commercial instruction, unless the pupils are bachelors of science, or of special secondary instruction. The institute at Antwerp itself has added a preparatory class, and our schools at Lyons and Marseilles have done likewise. We believe that the instruction in our superior schools of commerce must, without distinction, follow the example of the school in the Rue Amelot in everything which relates to science. A reform of their programmes in this direction would offer the advantage of putting them in a position to receive the bachelors of special secondary instruction, when the movement of public opinion brings these last to them, a thing which will soon happen.

In consequence of the assimilation of the special baccalaureates and of the classical baccalaureates, other things remaining the same, this modification of their programmes would also give to the schools of commerce an opportunity of preparing for the examinations those of their pupils who desired to join a university degree to their diploma.

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But in the eyes of the partisans of practical instruction a good commercial apprentice is not necessarily a college graduate; quite the contrary. A good commercial apprentice, they say, is the man who knows how to cipher well; to keep

books well; who has good notions of commercial geography; who has learned to recognize raw materials and manufactured products; who can reckon up figures rapidly and transportation charges; who knows how to cast up an account without omitting anything; and who speaks several languages. "This is our object," they say. "Ours also," reply the partisans of theoretical instruction. But instead of deceiving ourselves as to the value of pretended practice, which can never even from an empirical point of view, take the place of practice with real things, we think we ought to apply the precious time of the pupils to theoretical studies which have become essential to the epoch of scientific progress. A man, they continue, may know how to cipher well, know how to keep books well, and still be a most pitiable merchant. How often does one see good accountants, who, puffed up by the conviction that they are the chief cause of the success of the house that employs them, set up for themselves after they have made some savings, and become bankrupt in a short time. The calling of a merchant demands a complex of qualities which can not be acquired at school, and which render it one of the most difficult of all. The most important of these qualities, which everyone thinks he possesses, but which is the rarest of all things, is clearness of judgment. The love of labor, order, economy, initiative enterprise, scrupulous honesty, commercial sense are also other indispensable qualities for the merchant. Do you pretend to teach these things?

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Let us try to sum up the valuable points in this discussion, which dates from 1866, the time of the establishment of the school at Mühlhausen and which threatens to become eternal. For this purpose let us begin by formulating the pedagogical spirit underlying these two methods.

On the one hand, one has limited the amount of time given to general instruction for the benefit of special instruction, and of the professional instruction based upon numerous model exercises which we have described under the head of the Institute of Antwerp.

On the other hand, the endeavor is made to strengthen general and special instruction, and the applications of the commercial theory in model offices are limited to the minimum, leaving to practical life the work of finishing, from a professional point of view, the studies commenced in the school.

The first question which presents itself to us would, then, be this: Should commercial instruction give the preference to practice over theory?

Upon this point, which divides the schools and the opinions of merchants, a majority of whom are favorable to practical instruction, we believe there can be no difference of opinion in an epoch of industrial progress like ours, where the level of instruction is coming up on all sides, as to its being absolutely necessary to base commercial instruction upon a general scientific instruction as complete as possible. Certainly we must have recourse to practical applications, but one must not forget that application is simply putting into operation the principles and the rules which constitute the science itself. Theoretical instruction must, therefore, have precedence. Above everything else a commercial school must be polytechnic—that is, a liberal school.

The second question: In what way and to what extent shall technical instruction, in practice, be associated with either general or special theoretical instruction?

In answer to this question we would reply that the fictitious exercises of the model offices are insufficient. Just as one shows to the pupils who expect to be engineers, farmers, physicians, officers, true mines, true bridges, real farms, real patients, real fortifications, real cannons, in the same way one must show and lead the pupils in the commercial schools to study real business and commercial houses, real accounts, real documents, real transactions. Professional study is limited to science, but one does not prepare practitioners without practice, and it is necessary that this practice should not be simply fictitious. The school of commerce will be, then, at once a school of polytechnics and a school of application.

The third question: Can commercial instruction develop the moral qualities which make a good merchant?

This third point, more delicate than the two preceding, does not, however, give us more trouble. One must demand of a good education all that which it is able to give. To pretend that the qualities demanded in business could not germinate and develop in the commercial school is to place commercial instruction a degree below that of our special schools, and consequently to deny the value of this instruction. The painter, singer, soldier, priest, missionary, physician follow careers which demand, besides the appropriate knowledge, special qualities which the school knows how to increase or to beget in the individual. The moral qualities which make a successful merchant are in the same way acquired by an education properly ordered and methodically pursued. Instruction must always be educative, and just as one inculcates patriotism in the soldier, humanity in the physician, self-denial in the missionary, the cultivation of science in the scholar, devotion and culture in the teacher, love of beauty in the artist, in exactly the same way the aptitude for

commercial affairs, a desire for work, the love of order and economy, the spirit of enterprise, clearness of judgment, probity—all qualities which make a good business man—can be taught in the schools of commerce. It is here a question of the direction to be given to the instruction; a question of training, of discipline.

These are the results which one must try to accomplish, and the means of doing so can be found. The self-control of the priest, the bravery of the soldier, the fiery oratory of the advocate, even the skill of extemporizing in the case of the artist and the poet are the fruit of exercise properly devised and methodically and daily repeated. In the same way the qualities of order, of economy, of foresight, of judgment, of integrity, of equity can also be obtained if one knows how to develop them. The commercial sense itself, or the sense for commerce, the sense for business, would not be an exception. Besides this, each profession possesses a fund of experience, of prepared rules and precepts—of trade secrets, so to speak—which is not the exclusive possession of any one person, and which a good scheme of instruction should have and know how to propagate.

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Conclusion.—To sum up the matter of commercial instruction, all the efforts must be devoted to develop in the pupil the theoretical and practical knowledge and the moral qualities which a business career demands. It will be, then, at once general, special, professional, and moral.[1]

It will be general by its programme of the sciences; it will be special by the direction given to the pupils about commercial things, by the importance given to the study of accounting; of industrial and commercial economy; of living languages; of penmanship; of geography; of history; of law; of legislation, and of political economy. It will be professional by the careful study of that which goes on in business, banking, and commercial houses, where one regards order and method by practical application and by the study of things. And, finally, it will be moral because the work, properly directed, impresses good habits upon the youth, and because the economic instruction results in an elevated and morality-producing philosophy.

Critical examination of the actual programmes of study.—Let us take up, then, one by one the more important subjects and indicate the modifications which seem to us desirable in commercial instruction.

Accounting.—In examining the programmes of the commercial schools one sees that a more and more important place has been assigned in their instruction to accounting. It is plain that in doing so they have yielded to the steady pressure of public opinion. But were they prepared to fill up the numerous hours given to this insruction in a thoroughly satisfactory way? We do not believe that we are wrong in saying that even the directors of the commercial schools themselves consider that the enormous amount of time given to exercises in accounting is out of all proportion to the real value of this instruction, and, consequently, to its results. It is necessary, then, to make a reform at this point. Must one reduce the number of hours given to the study of accounting? Is it not rather necessary to modify this instruction and to organize it on a different and more rational plan? It has been accused of oscillating in an uncertain manner between theories badly formulated and practical errors upon which the professors base their courses and the fictitious books which they require their pupils to keep in the commercial bureau. We believe that instruction in accounting should strive to become at once more scientific and more practical. It must get out of the stationary state in which it is at present. We think that while studying seriously the scientific theory the schools of commerce would find it to their real advantage to turn their attention to actual practice. We should like to see their museums enriched with administrative materials, which, methodically arranged by the professors, synthesized by means of their summaries or graphical illustrations, accompanied with explanations, should constitute the material for lessons in things relating to accounting and administration. In consequence, the greatest effort should be made to enable the professors to carry their instruction in industry, banking, commerce, agriculture, and the great branches of administration into the field of practice itself, without being obliged to go outside of the school. In this way all the exercises from that of the preparatory class up to that of the third year might be based upon the materials of actual business. Moreover, during the entire course of the study the pupils should be furnished with documents of every sort, the facsimile of real papers referring to the various operations of the accountant or manager of which we have just spoken. The collection of these documents, their distribution in connection with the matters discussed, and the various correspondence which they have occasioned, the keeping of various books relating

[1] The distinction which is here made between special and professional instruction is not without importance. Special instruction can be given outside of the profession itself; it may ingraft itself upon the instruction given in the exercises of the model or fictitious office. Professional instruction grows out of the practice of the profession itself.

to these operations would constitute an actual lively instruction which would interest the pupils very much. There would be, in fact, under their very eyes, the foundry, the office, the bank, the farm, the great branches of administration, etc., less the raw materials, the manufactured products, the cash, plus the demonstration of the professor.

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We believe it is not necessary to insist upon the value of such an instruction as this, at once analytic and synthetic, based upon actualities substituted for the more or less fantastic exercises of the fictitious office. After having been initiated into the first theoretical and practical notions, the pupil would be able to obtain from the programmes, well constructed, at a glance the system of accounting and the various branches of any given enterprise. He would follow the foundation and the series of operations in examining the books and correspondence relating to them. He would understand the purposes of the various documents, their relations to one another, their centralization, their results. His attention, at first concentrated upon matters of detail, would gradually rise to a conception of the whole. Afterwards he would form, little by little, comparisons between the various branches of accounting and administration which had passed under his eyes.

This study would then become an object of a distinct course in comparative accounting, in which the professor would pass in review the various methods of keeping books used in actual practice; methods whose special advantages and disadvantages he would set forth and discuss from a theoretical point of view. Upon a selected topic from real transactions the pupil could be exercised in the practice of these various methods—English, German, American, synoptical, logis-mographic, etc. Here, also, the different systems of accounting, constructed in accordance with these methods, would figure in the museum of the school, and would be set forth in graphical tables which would synthesize them. Finally, the professor, arrived at this point in the course, could direct his attention to the great systems of accounting in mining, metallurgy, sugar industry, transportation companies, farms, banks, insurance, and, lastly, public accounting.

Thus organized and pursued, we believe that instruction in accounting would really merit the place which is given to it at the base of economic instruction; that it would increase the favor accorded to our schools of commerce, and that our commerce and even the country itself would gain considerably in the near future.

Commercial and industrial economy.—This course, which we do not find figuring in any programme, ought to exist in all the commercial and industrial schools. It would find in great part its substance in the materials of the preceding course, of which it would be the development and, so to speak, the crown. The professional truths derived from the facts relating to commercial and industrial experience would complete its subject-matter.

"Wherever human industry is developed and concentrated," says M. Courcelle-Seneuil, "there a tradition is established. The founders of enterprises transmit to their successors these traditions—these devices whose truth their experience has led them to recognize, and which one may rightly consider as principles—their maxims in commerce, in manufacture, in agriculture, and in each of the subdivisions of these three great branches of human industry."

Some of these truths are purely technical in character; others have a higher significance. One should teach the pupils how to become good employees, good buyers, good sellers, good cashiers, good accountants. But the art of buying and selling—that of paying and receiving—and that of recording these operations do not constitute the whole science of commerce. For a good purchaser, a good salesman, a good cashier, and a good accountant would not be sufficient to insure the success of any enterprise. It is also necessary that these enterprises be well organized, well administered, well directed; and the art of organizing, administering, and directing is based on economic science in this sense, a necessary complement to industrial and commercial science.

Without contesting, then, the utility of courses in political economy, which contain, so to speak, the general philosophy of commercial instruction, we should like to see in the programmes of our schools of commerce a course in commercial and industrial economy, from which the pupils would derive great professional gain. We shall content ourselves here with indicating the outlines of this important course: First, of the various kinds of commercial and industrial classification; second, the capital necessary for various enterprises, the necessity of determining this exactly, the establishment of the business, the study of the laws; third, of merchandise, of the raw materials, of the margin of the markets; fourth, of the workmanship, of general costs, of gains and losses; fifth, commercial and industrial organization and administration; sixth, the importance of accounting in methods of control, the exact determination of the selling price, the keeping of inventories; seventh, of the conduct of the business, of the material and moral conditions necessary to its success, of credit, of the general methods of conducting it, of the means of getting rid

of middlemen; eighth, corporations—the great branches of administration—methods of liquidation, etc.; ninth, of the duties of the employee, of the merchant, of the agent, of the shareholder, of the manager, etc.

Besides their own personal studies the professors would find excellent help for such courses in the following works: Philosophy of Commerce, by M. Stirling; The Duty of the Merchant—Conscience and the Science of Duty, by M. Oudat; Commercial Practice, by M. Devinck; Manual of Business, by M. Courcelle-Seneuil; and especially in the excellent treatise on Industrial Economy, by M. Ad. Guilbault, a very remarkable work relating to this subject.

Private economy.—Domestic or private economy is at the base of the preceding. He who does not carry order into his personal affairs, in the management of his own house, will not find it easy to carry this principle into his business house. If it is wrong to expend too much, it is a still greater wrong to expend without keeping accounts. Whoever does not keep accounts is doing business on a venture. Whoever keeps accounts reflects or will reflect. Confidence and credit desert the prodigal. Credit is the nerve of business; a house of any importance can not sustain itself by its own resources.

The future merchant must learn habits of economy and saving, which is nothing more than putting into practice the lessons which he has learned. Commercial schools have then the duty of developing these habits by obliging the pupils to save, and invest their savings, however modest they may be. These savings should be evidenced by a savings-bank book, or by the purchase of securities of some sort, or by the payments of special premiums which our companies should inaugurate for the benefit of the schools. If one should agree to this view, a coefficient of order and economy might be introduced into the examination mark, similar to that of industry and good conduct. It is, then, by training the judgment of the pupils and by endeavoring to develop in them the professional knowledge and the moral qualities of order that schools of commerce will fulfill most completely their educative mission and that they will do service to commerce.

Arithmetic, algebra, and geometry.—Besides being indispensible to the study of science, mathematics and notably geometry exercise a happy influence upon the reasoning power of man. Instead of desiring to limit this instruction, therefore, one must develop it without losing sight of its special application to business. Let us ask the instructors to give some time to mental arithmetic, an excellent exercise for a future employee or merchant. In theory, arithmetic offers combinations which are infinite, a circumstance which the makers of school arithmetics have abused. In current practice one is ordinarily limited to operations of simple addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division, or to the rule of three. One should train the pupils to perform these various calculations very rapidly, as far as possible without recourse to the pencil; this sort of skill being very useful and much prized in practice. There is a large number of more or less practical processes of rapid calculation, a knowledge of which should be taught to all pupils.

The instructor should not omit to discuss the different methods of calculating insurance used by French and foreign companies and to seize this opportunity to emphasize the advantages of insurance for the merchant. In short, we are particularly in favor of this sort of saving, and our commercial schools should convert their pupils upon this subject. We believe, also, that in return for this useful propaganda the insurance companies would not hesitate to form special combinations for the use of pupils and the instructing personnel, as well as the alumni association and the schools themselves, for which, by means of annual premiums, provided for by gifts or by legacies left by the friends of commercial instruction, one could build up a capital which would insure their future. Could not one in this way, whether by means of gifts, or insurance, or grants, create retiring fees for the personnel of these establishments?

We believe that by taking up seriously a plan of this kind the most excellent results could be achieved. "Help yourself and heaven will help you" is an adage which ought to be in special favor in commercial schools. One accuses our insurance companies of being merely routinists in their management. Is not the fault rather in commerce in general, which by adapting itself somewhat could have compelled these companies to certain concessions of a nature to render more easy the introduction and extension of insurance? For example, why should one not pay the premiums in insurance as one pays his taxes? This usage once introduced, the companies might draw bills upon the insured parties which they could pay through the post-office or otherwise. It is easier to pay small sums than relative large annual premiums. One would popularize insurance in this way, and render it applicable from the school on. We do not care to insist on this subject at this time, contenting ourselves with calling it to the attention of the parties interested and to specialists. Beginning with the schools of commerce, the habit of insurance, facilitated and simplified, would, without doubt, get possession of our entire education. These

small insurances, subscribed by the boys at school, would be later converted into large insurances, and the cause of insurance would be definitely gained in France.

The professor of mathematics, as applied to commerce and finances, should also give special attention in the third year to the study of the functions of popular banks. In France, especially during the last few years, our capitalists manifested a tendency, more and more marked, to realize upon the funds invested in industry, and to employ them in mortgage loans, national securities, etc. These so-called "father of the family investments" will some day cause the rate of interest on good securities to fall below 3 per cent. During this period our commerce will gradually decrease. When the obligation of entering upon business enterprises shall be again imposed by the necessity of things, even upon large fortunes on account of the small rate of interest, we shall be obliged to return to labor, which is the true source of wealth. But will it not then be too late? Will not our industries have perished one by one, and shall we be able to resuscitate them again? But if on account of the lack of confidence, or indolence, or excess of prudence, the sons of the bourgeoisie maintain an expectant attitude, there is no lack among us of men who ask only for the opportunity to work, to engage in business enterprise, and certainly by means of farms, banks, and popular joint-stock enterprises, we should be able to create a new supply of active producers. In a word, it has become necessary to make it possible for intelligent and properly educated men of the lower and middle classes to get out of the ranks of wage earners, and to undertake enterprises on their own account.

Capital frowns upon labor, but labor does not frown upon capital. Germany has been specially benefited by its popular banks; credit has stimulated its industrial and commercial development. This question of banks is of special interest to our future. It is for this reason that we should like the schools of commerce to turn their instruction toward practical economy, and the study of the principal questions connected with it.

Among these questions that of the participation of employees and laborers in the profits of the enterprises in which they are engaged, deserves to be studied in the schools. Profit sharing has already given results which it would be useful to make known to the pupils by showing them that it satisfies the sentiment of social justice, and that it is an element of stability and prosperity.

Penmanship.—One must consider penmanship at its real value, giving to it, in the eyes of the pupils, the importance which it really has in practice. Finally, penmanship is necessary to the work of the accountant and of correspondents. He who possesses a beautiful handwriting—an evidence of taste, of character, and of method—possesses an almost certain means of finding speedy employment; his other qualities will do the rest. We know a number of excellent positions which began really with good handwriting. A request for employment, well written, makes a favorable impression upon him to whom it is directed. The commercial schools, then, should raise the coefficient of this subject in order to favor a careful study of penmanship.

Stenography.—The study of stenography ought to be comprised in the programme of the preparatory year. One would insure the pupils in this way the ability of taking down, without mistakes, the lectures and of getting all the substance out of them. It is also of advantage to exercise the young men in expressing their thoughts easily by exercises in elocution, as is done in the schools at Marseilles and Havre, and those of the United States. But none the less important to train them in taking down rapidly the words of others. These two branches complement each other. In the United States stenography has become a very lucrative profession for both sexes.

Industrial and commercial geography.—It is no longer necessary to demonstrate the advantage of instruction in geography.

"Geography," says M. Rauel Frary, "is the science which contributes most to make us educated men; that which procures for him who possesses it the most real distinction, the most incontestable superiority in social relations. That which enables him to obtain without pedantry the title of 'learned man.' Our other branches of knowledge," says he, further, "disappear for the most part with time, but this strengthens and develops itself continually. The books which are the most widely read next to novels are books of travels. The well-managed journal is intelligible only to him who knows geography, foreign politics, colonial politics, political economy."

"Look at the English journals," says M. Thierey-Mieg; "they are principally geographical cyclopedias. In each number is considered everything which occurs throughout the entire world. Why? Evidently because all this interests the English reader."

Commercial schools, we are happy to say, have always given a large place in their programmes for the study of geography, even exceeding that in classical schools. They will perfect this instruction still more. They will see to it that their pupils

familiarize themselves with the collection and study of commercial, industrial, and political maps. Their efforts will be directed toward rendering as attractive as possible the study of a science which has always been treated in too dry a fashion. We wish that for this purpose they would establish conferences, which might be conducted by travelers or by the former graduates and subsequent holders of traveling scholarships. These conferences might be held in the evening in the lecture rooms, and they could be rendered more attractive by the use of the lantern, by maps, by prints, photographs, etc.

The museum of the school should have relief maps of the principal countries, and its library should contain collections and photographs, history of travels, illustrated books, etc. Industry and commerce need to know their field—that is to say, the whole world—to give to their efforts the most profitable direction. Geography enlarges the horizon of young men; it shows a multitude of careers where their activity can find an employment far more profitable than the clerkship or Government careers.

M. Rauel Frary is right in saying, "Let us say to short-sighted people who claim that emigration is useless because France is not yet thickly populated, and because we have not yet the surplus population to be sent abroad: Our bourgeoisie, in spite of its voluntary sterility, is too numerous. Its children strive with one another in Government schools and in the public departments. In order to offer employment to this crowd of candidates the Government creates new positions. Far from delivering the body social from these parasites the public is even increasing their multitude day by day. Emigration, whether to foreign countries or to the colonies, frees the soil of a useless incumbrance. It opens markets to our national labor. The success of those who go increases the welfare and stimulates the utility of those who remain."

The truth of this is proven by what occurs in Germany and Switzerland, where for a long time past the study of geography and foreign languages has been steadily developed. From this point of view the special secondary instruction of these two countries would seem to have for a chief end the training of emigrants.

Study of railroads, tariffs, commercial and industrial equipment.—This course is closely connected with commercial geography. It demands special maps, indicating the courses of the railroads, canals, the navigable portion of streams and rivers, and the small and great lines of steamboats. These maps to be useful must be accompanied with indications of distances, points of departure, the length of the trip, the length of the voyage, etc. One would initiate in this way the student into a knowledge of the different tariffs of transportation. They would then learn to distinguish between the general, special, and international tariffs of the railroads; a point in regard to which so many merchants are in ignorance. They would study the different systems of classification of merchandise adopted by the different companies, and varying with each one of them. They would be shown the advantage which is claimed for the application of one operation in preference to another, and to direct their shipments by keeping an exact account of the differences of price according to the line adopted. A similar course closed by careful study of the customs tariff ought to appear in the instruction of the school in the last year at least, and be intrusted to a specialist. The postal tariffs would also be a subject of instruction, of the practical study of which an example is already given in the instruction in the Practical School of Commerce and Accounting.

Finally, to render this study of tariffs as profitable as possible it would be necessary to place under the eyes of the students all the actual documents used in practice, and to imitate shipments of every sort to render them familiar with the subject. One will find examples of real operations in the accounting operations of which we have already spoken. In comparing the various methods of shipment by post, by rail, or otherwise, one would set forth the exact differences. The same comparison would be made for the different methods of packing for shipment, and the study of the different methods of reshipment. In the lessons upon commercial and industrial equipment, transportation enterprises, docks, etc., present also matters of interest which it is not necessary to emphasize further here. These lessons would be supplemented to advantage by visits to the shops and factories, and during the Easter vacation by trips to foreign countries, under the guidance of a director, as is now practiced in the superior schools of commerce at Paris and Havre.

Commercial and industrial technology.—This course constitutes at once a part of the general, special, and professional instruction. It should be given, therefore, in all three years, becoming more practical in proportion as the pupil advances, and finally ending in a comparative study of the means of transportation, tariffs, commercial and industrial equipment.

Raw and manufactured products.—A preliminary knowledge of the physical and chemical qualities of products will be acquired in the laboratory and in the sample museums of the school. Theoretical study, therefore, will form the beginning of this important course. The pupils will consequently be trained to distinguish the

different types of raw materials and of manufactured products and to recognize their essential qualities, their forms of production, and their value. They will be given general explanations as to the different processes of production, extraction, and manufacture. The various adulterations will be explained to them, and they will learn to distinguish products little by little, either by sight, taste, touch, reactions, chemical analyses, or by microscopical investigations.

In the museum of the school general graphical tables will indicate the various forms of raw products, of the raw material, of colonial commodities classified in series. They will give general indications as to the commercial quality of the products. These tables will refer to geographical maps, where will be indicated by colors the zones of production and the annual value of their exportation. Explanatory remarks in the margin of these maps will complete the commercial information and give useful statistics. The tables showing the production of cotton, silk, wool, sugar, coal, various metals, seeds, cereals will be well completed by diagrams indicating the variations in price of the most important mercantile commodities. This course, essentially practical, constituting the conclusion of the courses in physics, chemistry, mechanics, commercial and industrial geography, technology, etc., should not be limited to the explanations and manipulations in the laboratories and museums, and it is for this reason that the various schools of commerce have adopted, in a more or less intermittent form, the system of industrial visits, which, of themselves, seem to us insufficient. However wise the professor of technology may be who conducts the pupils into industrial establishments, he is often obliged to content himself with generalities. Each branch of industry has its trade secrets, which are continually modified. The encyclopedias and special treatises must constantly keep in touch with the practice. The pupil, then, after having arrived at a certain stage of knowledge, would get more advantage from conferences conducted by specialists in the different industries. These conferences should commence in the very first year of the regular course; they would take place in the shops and even in the factories of such manufacturers as would consent to do so. One would pass then in review the different industries—silk, ceramics, glassware, materials of construction, paper, pasteboard, chemical products, furniture, metals, leather, and hides.

The art of buying and selling.—Aside from the professional skill which is the result of the personal ability and experience of a merchant, the art of buying and selling conforms to certain principles which can be taught in the school. The various elements of the curriculum of the commercial school should converge toward one end—to make merchants; and it would be surprising if this instruction were to stop at the very threshold of the culminating point of the science of commerce. Moreover, the operations of purchase and sale, carried on in a manner to leave a profit, a just remuneration for capital, labor, and the service which the merchant renders, presupposes a knowledge of arithmetic and accounting which enables him to fix the price at which things must be resold in order to yield a profit, as well as a knowledge of the market—its wants, its extent—and also of merchandise itself. The same operations carried on with foreign countries necessitate, moreover, the knowledge of foreign languages, of commercial usages, and of monetary systems. All these branches of knowledge, and others also, constitute a part of the programme of commercial instruction, comprising, moreover, the mechanism of the great speculation markets. What remains, then, to teach the pupil?

The art of earning money, like that of winning a battle, must be tested in the field. But to win battles it is necessary to have studied tactics and strategy, and the various branches of knowledge relating to these subjects. We may then learn commercial tactics and strategy from former merchants who have retired from business and are willing to devote the substance of that which they know for the instruction of young merchants. The results of their personal observation, the experience which they have gained from others, that which they have themselves acquired, these merchants might impart in a general way, or as they relate to certain branches of business. This course, which would not be the least interesting of those which we have described, would form the element of a technological conference of which we have already spoken above, as well as the course in commercial and industrial economy.

Marine equipment.—This course corresponds to certain local wants. It is given at three schools—at Marseilles, Havre, and Bordeaux. One must take care that this course is not extended unduly and shall not become a course in naval architecture, which would be superfluous and could hardly be considered a part of commercial instruction.

French language.—The work in the French language should be completed in the preparatory class. In the upper classes the pupils should occupy themselves with literature, history, reading, outlines of literary history, etc. This part of the instruction would relieve the minds of the pupils from the severe tension which the positive instruction requires. The merchant of to-day, moreover, ought not to be a stranger in the literary field.

Another reason, based on physiology, would require such instruction as this. Man is rather formed for action and contemplation, for physical exercise or for poetry, than for analysis and scientific abstraction. For this reason we would include gymnastics and literature in the economic curriculum, as well as music, which is a form of poetry at the same time that it is an education of the senses. Monthly literary conferences should be held in the evenings, concurrently with the conferences in commercial geography. In these might be treated especially the literature of the different nations and the more important recent additions to literature. Finally, the study of French, besides being the occasion of numerous oral exercises, which should train the style of the students, would be a good opportunity for commercial essays or abstracts of certain courses and accounts of the Thursday visits. Each pupil should be obliged to have his book of essays relating to things done outside of the school.

Foreign languages.—We have already indicated certain modifications which, in our opinion, ought to be introduced into the instruction in foreign languages in our commercial schools, an instruction which, up to the present, has been modeled too exclusively upon that of the classical languages. Is it by reading the classic authors to her child that a mother teaches it to understand the persons who speak to it and to make itself understood by them? A child of 5 years of age has no idea of rules of grammar, while it may employ fluently and correctly a large number of words and phrases to express its thought at this age; it may already speak several languages. In Russia, Poland, Greece, Egypt, and Denmark young children converse by turn in French, English, Italian, and their mother tongue. We are acquainted with families in Paris from the colonies whose children speak five languages.

Under the influence of necessity a Frenchman residing abroad or a person residing in France learns very quickly to express himself in the foreign tongue—a few weeks is sufficient; with the aid of a teacher, a complete mastery may be gained in six months, at least so far as the wants of commerce demand. This result is due to the fact that the memory, ear, and tongue are all trained at the same time. This circumstance indicates the proper method to be followed. One should turn our schools of commerce into a sort of French colony. Certain days should be fixed when each of the languages to be learned should be exclusively employed in conversation, outside of the lecture room. The teachers of language, much more closely attached to the schools than they are at present, should be present at the meals, in the study rooms, and in the play rooms. The noninstructing personnel of the school should be composed entirely of foreigners, each speaking two languages besides French. One would thus surround the pupils with persons required to converse with them in the languages designated, and never in French. In a word, one would create the necessity and the obligation to learn the language just as in a foreign country.

By this rational method, which demands simultaneous training of the memory, ear, and tongue, progress would be much more rapid. In the three years of the commercial curriculum the young people accustomed to study would easily master three languages, and could learn to understand a larger number. One may object to the introduction of this method, thinking it would largely increase the expense of the schools. But as the old saying goes, "He who wishes the end must wish the means." One must pause to consider the results, for it is the results which satisfy the public and secure success. We are generally divided between the desire to instruct our children in foreign languages and the conviction that one can do this successfully only by sending them abroad. But as it is painful to send one's children away, and is, moreover, not always an easy thing to do, and finally as it may seem hardly reasonable to sacrifice a whole year for the sake of a single subject, it almost always turns out that nothing is accomplished. In this way the study of foreign languages among us is very limited. But would not things change altogether, to the great advantage of commercial schools, if this establishment should prove by positive results the possibility of teaching foreign languages in France itself? Then, without doubt, by this fact alone, the commercial schools would attract public favor and their classrooms would soon become too small.

Elocution, conferences.—The ordinary business man certainly lacks facility of speech. Is it not this fact which keeps them, to the great damage of the country, out of the public legislative halls, which are left, so to speak, almost exclusively to the politicians, while the real interests of the nation demand specially the experience of men trained in business practice and accustomed to the difficulties of administration? Our commercial schools, then, should train their pupils to express themselves before an audience. They should accomplish this by repeated exercises in elocutionary reading; the students should accompany these readings with explanations. Finally, these exercises might be replaced by short debates upon given subjects, as is done at the schools of Marseilles and Havre. The director of the school might preside at these debates. The instructors in the office, and the teachers in geography, commercial law, industrial and commercial economy should also be present.

The questions should relate to the subjects in which instruction is given. From

ten to fifteen minutes might be allowed for each speech. Each of the professors might correct the speech, both as to the style and the manner of the pupil falling within his field of instruction. The subject to be debated might be indicated at the close of each discussion for the following day, and the referees appointed. The use of notes might be allowed to the debater, but he should not be allowed to read his speech. At the end of each debate, and after the pupils have gone out, marks might be given by the director and professors present, the same as at examinations. In order to give to these conferences the importance which they merit, it would be desirable for one of the members of the council of the school, assisted by several of his colleagues, to preside at least once a month.

In the course of his career the merchant is frequently called upon to defend his interests. He will certainly be able to do this in a much more efficient manner if he has been trained in public speaking. In the chambers of administration, in the syndical chambers, in the consular tribunals to which he belongs he would certainly derive great advantages from such facility. Finally, commercial schools have also the mission to train instructors for the commercial schools, and for this purpose lessons in elocution are certainly very desirable.

Commercial law, legislation.—A knowledge, at least in outline, of the code of commerce and of the various systems of law is necessary to the merchant. But we must not give too much space to this study for fear that the merchant, confident of his own knowledge, should come to believe that he could later disregard the advice of specialists, which would certainly be a source of danger. One should strive to give a practical character to this course. As a complement to the theory of commercial law, each school should possess a complete collection of judicial and extra-judicial decisions carefully annotated, and which the professor might use to explain to the pupils the mechanism and usages of procedure, the turns to which it lends itself in skilfull hands, the contradictions of jurisprudence, the small basis there is to human justice, and finally the great advantage which even an unfavorable compromise ordinarily has over a successful lawsuit.

In our opinion, the truly moral and practical side of this instruction would be in inculcating a respect for law, for the rights of others, and to make each pupil a sworn enemy to lawsuits. It is in this spirit that one should warn them against the many inconveniences and dangers of a suit, which takes from business precious time and energy, which deprives the merchant of that tranquillity of spirit which he needs so much in order to conduct his business well, and which does not often accomplish anything else than empty satisfaction and the enrichment of lawyers.

Physical and natural sciences.—The elements of these sciences form a part of the general instruction which the pupil has received before entering the commercial school, and which will be developed in the direction of his specialties in the preparatory year.

Mechanics.—It would be an injury to abolish this course in which the student learns so many useful things, among others the value of the machines for the transmission of motion, the various forms of engines—steam, gas, water, air, electro-magnetic, etc. The elementary study of mechanics is as necessary as that of physics, chemistry, or natural history.

Drawing.—The same thing is true of this as of the preceding subject. The study of drawing finds its application in the construction of graphical figures, diagrams, maps, sketches, etc. Drawing exercises the eye and the hand; it develops a taste for form; it unites positive instruction to matters of art, both pure and industrial, in whose production commerce largely deals, and which, therefore, merchants must know how to appreciate.

History of commerce.—Might we not as well entitle this heading "History of civilization?" Commerce has always played a very great rôle in the history of the world. It is that which binds together men and nations; it is that which supports progress in all its forms; it is the vehicle of ideas; it is the propagator of the beautiful, of the valuable, of the good and the useful.

The history of commerce, connected intimately with that of humanity, gives elevated views of morals and philosophy, views which are drawn from the facts and which give to the future merchants a just idea of the economic and social importance of the career to which they have devoted themselves. Before becoming analytic the history of commerce should, then, be treated in a general way, as is proper, moreover, in other subjects in which instruction is given. One must not lose sight of the fact that the pupil logically feels the need of knowing where one is leading him, and what purpose the subject serves in which one is instructing him. Nothing is better adapted to secure his attention than to give him in advance a general idea of the leading features of that which one wishes him to learn.

Political economy.—The more carefully this subject is developed the more valuable it will be. Political economy is a matter of controversy to-day at almost all points, and the schools ought to beware of teaching their pupils disputable doctrines, whether economic or socialistic. The professor should limit himself to setting forth the

general facts of production, circulation, and consumption of wealth; the different systems of exchanges, and the advantages and disadvantages which appear according to the zones of industry and commerce. This must suffice. Commercial instruction can not have as its purpose the training of dialecticians, but rather of practical men, who will derive more advantage from the study of domestic, industrial, and commercial economy than from the generalities of political economy, which will remain matters of controversy.

We have explained elsewhere that these differences upon the point of doctrine spring largely from the lack of sufficiently exact and complete statistics, a defect which one must attribute to the general insufficiency of practical accounting. From this it results that even the facts of production, circulation, and consumption of wealth have thus far escaped a complete analysis, which might set them forth in a clear light. Political and social economy is, therefore, a science still full of obscurities and contradictions, and, consequently, a science the instruction in which should be carefully conducted in the schools.

Morals.—Morals is a complex of the ideas and rules intended to direct our actions. Morals is independent of religion, and is anterior to it. Every man has an idea of justice and injustice, of that which is good and of that which is bad, of that which he ought to do and of that which he ought not to do. Even the savages have their rules of family and social morals. The courses in the history of commerce, in the various commercial and industrial branches, in political economy, and the courses in law and legislation imply morals. Higher commercial instruction should include sociological studies from which morals might be scientifically separated, and not merely by the exposition of its principles, which one knows without reasoning about them. Ethics, then, holds a large place in commercial education. It is a question of principle; it is also a vital question; a question of existence that our commerce should be and should remain true.

German commerce, in the efforts which it is making to compete with ours, is becoming more demoralized from year to year. French commerce, on the contrary, ought to strive to secure a reputation for excellence of its products and for honesty in its transactions, where manufacturers would be convinced of the truth that honesty is a real force, just as order and as the love of labor, and that without honesty the relations between merchants and consumers can not be permanent.

Our retail commerce, particularly that in cloth and food, is paying dearly at the present moment for losing sight of this truth. In fact, our shopkeepers seem to be possessed of the strange idea that they have the right to cheat because they have paid for a license. Tell them that commerce is organized robbery, and they will protest only for form's sake, if they protest at all. They do not revolt under a sense of injury. Their conscience cries out to them: "You rob whenever you make a sale, every day, every hour; you rob in quantity, quality, and price; you teach your wife, your children, your clerks to rob as you do. You rob the poor as well as the rich; you would rob your own mother, and if it is necessary, in order to increase your profits, that you should adulterate and poison, you become an adulterator and a poisoner. All this, too, without courage, for you rob and poison without running any risk. Your victims greet you, thank you, and are inclined to think that you are good, honest men because you do not rob them more. But when tired of you your patrons flee from you on the very first occasion. Then go; run after them into the galleries of the great establishments whose competition is ruining you without mercy; into the markets, into the bazars better equipped than your shops, and where one can buy at better rates. Go, beseech your patrons; try to excite their pity for the lot of the small shopkeeper on account of the competition to which he is exposed—you will then see how they ridicule you."

After twenty years more at this rate our small shopkeepers will have disappeared in Paris and in the large cities. See to what end piracy leads!

Let us avoid a similar fate for our wholesale trade. Let us preserve a precious reputation for thorough honesty, which will sooner or later bring back to us the consumers who for a time are led away by the artifices of our rivals.

The properly constructed programme of commercial instruction, then, condemns such piracy and constantly pleads for order, good faith, and honor. It is for this reason that accounting, a science of order in accounts, should be kept at the very head of this programme—accounting—the history of the facts of human labor in numbers; accounting, hated by the pirates who practice in the dark and do not love to face their robberies; accounting, whose accurate practice will save our industry by spurring on its progress, still hesitating and uncertain for lack of this orderly principle.

Let us go into a great factory, where we see exposed small objects cut in bone and ivory. And as we go into ecstacies over the cheapness and the fine workmanship of these objects, the merchant remarks to us: "Here are some made in Switzerland and Germany; I am going to astonish you. Not only are they more poorly made than ours, but they cost more. This is easy to explain; our Parisian laborers are more

skillful, do double the work in the same time, and you see that the workmanship is much more elegant." Is not this a typical example? The manufacturer adds: "You have just organized a system of accounting which has enabled me to reform my system of manufacture. In consequence, I have diminished my capital, reduced my business expenses, cut down the useless general charges, increased the general productive charges, perfected my equipment, interested my personnel and my laborers in the welfare of my enterprise, etc., so that to-day I find it to my advantage to manufacture in Paris, and the foreigners purchase of me. People pretend that French manufacturers can not stand competition, and give as a reason that labor is dearer here than elsewhere. Ill will, routine, and ignorance have much more to do with our inability. The truth is, that labor equalizes itself in all industrial centers. It is to be had cheaply only where it is not in demand.

"The truth is, also, that we have accustomed ourselves to buy at high prices whatever gives a large profit, without being obliged to reckon closely. The truth is, also, that whenever we wish we can sell at as low a price and as good a quality as our competitors. It occasioned great expense, I admit, to change my method of doing business, but to-day I count myself happy for having taken in time a step which saved me from ruin and transformed my industry. If other manufacturers would do likewise we should have nothing to fear from our neighbors."

"You speak to me of commercial morality," adds our interlocutor; "it is indeed a subject of great importance, and upon which you rightly insist. Commercial morality is not an illusion or a myth as paradoxical as prejudiced people may pretend. There is no social department in which practice must conform to thorough honesty more than in ours. Even the soldier does not introduce greater regularity into his life than the merchant who is worthy of the name must into his. No one has more care than he to fulfill engagements once entered into and his word once given. I repeat it, we must and can carry on business in an honest way. This is to be our force; this will be our glory! Our city is skillful in labor, it has taste, it has inventiveness—this is essential. When our education in matters relating to commerce and industry shall be well organized, and when we shall conform our lives to this instruction, we shall be invincible."

Music, bodily exercise.—Music is the education of the senses, and this reason alone would determine us to include it in professional instruction. Experience in affairs and relations of life shows, moreover, that the possession of an agreeable art is often a valuable means of success, by making the circumstances favorable to the individual, to say nothing of the fact that it is a good preservative from the dangers of ennui and idleness. Finally, in a school where the courses of study demand a continued tension of the mind toward science and the positive subjects of commercial economy, nothing will relieve the pupil better than music, which, like drawing, like literature, like the bodily exercises in the gymnasium and fencing hall, enters into the hygiene of a well-balanced education. A good system of instruction must respond to the various wants and aspirations of man. It must conform to the law of contrasts. Without this it would produce a destruction of the just balance in the moral and physical health of the pupil, resulting in lassitude and disgust.

Lessons in vocal and instrumental music might be given in the evening after the study hour, from 9 to 10 o'clock. They could alternate with conversation hours. They should be obligatory like the other branches, and gratuitous like the lessons in gymnastics and boxing. Riding lessons, however, might be optional and extra.

Commercial and industrial visits.—These visits should be made every Thursday, not only to the shops and magazines of commerce and industry, but also to the various museums and public expositions. Such lessons being a part of the professional instruction, should be provided for in the formal regulations; and all schools, without exception, should be required to observe them. As it is not possible to give in a profitable manner lessons of this sort to a large number of pupils at once, the various classes would have to be worked in sections, going in different directions under the conduct of the special instructors. At the Commercial Institute, where this system has already been begun this year, most of the pupils are sent off each Thursday to several different places. The general application of this system would present the advantage of varying the lessons in technical things according to the previous preparation of the pupils, and by proceeding methodically by going from the simple to the complex.

General considerations.—It is said that "silence is golden." If this proverb is true, it does not apply to ideas which ought to be spoken. Our commercial schools have all rendered services which are not generally appreciated at their true value, because of the silence which one has observed in regard to it up to the present time, and which we believe it is our duty to break, if for no other purpose than to serve by our modest efforts a cause which seems to us intimately connected with the future prosperity of our country. Making all due concessions, the equipment of the French schools of commerce is not inferior in any respect to that of the other schools of

general or special instruction. If one considers the efforts thus far put forth by them, the difficulties of every sort which they have surmounted, and the results which they have obtained in spite of these difficulties, one must be convinced that the evil days of commercial instruction are approaching their end, and that public favor will soon replace the indifference, as inconceivable as it is unjust.

Does not superior commercial instruction answer to the wants of all social positions, except possibly the so-called "literary profession," and indeed may we not say of them—for the lawyer, the magistrate, the public functionary, the councilor find it to their advantage to know the theory and practice of business? The employees in our commerce and industry, merchants, manufacturers, bankers, brokers, exchangers, farmers—that is to say, all the active personnel of our interior and foreign commerce—ought they not to have this instruction in preference to any other? As to the families of fortune, who do not destine their children to commercial or industrial business, what better education could they give them than that which comprises in its curriculum the science of order and economy—knowledge necessary to the preservation of a fortune. Practical arithmetic, accounting, living languages, the elements of civil and commercial law, and the many other subjects—are not these branches more necessary to the modern mind than Latin, Greek, ancient history, etc.? What, then, is lacking in this economic education to make it in demand?

It lacks only the sanction which crowns university studies. It is not sufficient to open the doors of entrance into the schools of commerce, one must also open the doors of exit. Nothing further can be done until the legitimate demands in favor of economic instruction shall be met and it shall be put on a par with classical instruction.

HIGHER COMMERCIAL INSTRUCTION IN GERMANY.

Germany has, in many respects, the most fully developed system of commercial schools of lower and higher grade in Europe. As the subject of this work relates primarily to commercial high schools, it will not be necessary to do more than mention the large number of primary and secondary schools of commercial instruction to be found within the limits of the German Empire. The work by Harry Schmitt[1] gives a very full account of the present extent of commercial education in Germany. A statistical table, referring to the same subject and published in Glasser's work,[2] brings the data down to the school year 1892–93.

It appears from these works that there are some fifty-five schools in the German Empire which may be classed under the head of commercial high schools, with a total of 5,681 pupils. Many of these are supported by merchant guilds, a number by the cities and a few by the State. The commercial classes and commercial courses organized in connection with the real schools are, of course, supported by the State or city, respectively.

In Germany, at a very early date, the better class of commercial high schools obtained for their graduates the privileges of the one-year military exemption law. This had a very beneficial influence upon the attendance at these schools, and the fact that no discrimination in this respect is made against commercial high schools, has undoubtedly contributed very largely to the success of these institutions.

THE PUBLIC COMMERCIAL INSTITUTE AT LEIPSIC.

[Oeffentliche Handels-Lehranstalt zu Leipzig.]

Of all these schools, the Public Commercial Institute at Leipsic is, perhaps, for our purpose, the best type, and as it is the oldest of the existing schools, it presents, to a certain extent, a picture of the development of this branch of instruction in the German Empire.

This celebrated institute owes its origin to the Merchant Guild of Leipsic, a corporation which has existed since the year 1479, and whose numerous special privileges were ended with the introduction of commercial liberty into the Kingdom of Saxony in 1861. In 1867 this corporation became an open society. Shortly before this time a ministerial ordinance had established the chambers of commerce for the purpose of representing commercial interests.[3]

Five of these chambers of commerce have been established in Saxony. There was nothing more, therefore, for this ancient Merchant Guild of Leipsic to do except to watch over the interests of the schools of commerce, to help, with the considerable fortune which it possessed, certain needy merchants, and to assist other various

[1] "Das kaufmännische Fortbildungs-Schulwesen Deutschlands." Seine gegenwärtige Gestaltung und Ausdehnung. Berlin, 1892. Verlag von Karl Siegismund.

[2] "Das commercielle Bildungswesen in Österreich-Ungarn." By Franz Glasser. Wien and Leipzig, Alfred Holder, 1893.

[3] Leautey's "Écoles de Commerce," page 480.

public enterprises. It devoted itself to this useful mission, but as no new members could be chosen the extinction of this guild was only a matter of time, and in consequence of an agreement between this guild and the Chamber of Commerce at Leipsic the school became the property of the latter body and is supported by the same, using, in the first instance, the income of the funds which belonged to the former Merchant Guild.

The honor of persuading the Merchant Guild to found in 1831 a practical and theoretical school of commerce belonged to Charles Lebrecht Hammer, a member of the firm of Hammer & Schmidt. The Commercial Institute of Leipsic was not, it is true, the first school of this sort established in Germany. A man named Busch had established, at his own expense, an Academy of Commerce in Hamburg toward the close of the last century, and this academy had prospered for some time. The Merchant Guild of Gotha had a school for apprentices in commercial houses from the year 1818, and finally in several of the larger cities of Germany there were private schools of this sort.

The Merchant Guild of Leipsic, then, can not claim the credit of having been the first to establish such a school, but it was the first in Germany, we believe, to open a professional school, in which they proposed to train future merchants who desired to prepare themselves for business by appropriate theoretical studies.

While the common run of merchants declared at that time, as generally in France, against this sort of preparation in a school, the Merchant Guild of Leipsic recognized at that time and emphasized the necessity of raising the level of special studies for those youth who were destined for commercial pursuits, and the further necessity of preparing the way for practice by a study of the theory. Such had also been the object, as we have seen in another place, of the men who established the Superior School of Commerce in Paris in 1820.

The foundation of the Institute of Leipsic was assisted by the Saxon Government. King Anthony showed himself favorable to the enterprise and contributed from his private purse. In 1835 the Chamber of Commerce granted a subsidy of 1,500 German dollars; this subsidy is continued at present.

One fortunate circumstance contributed to the rapid growth of the Commercial Institute of Leipsic. Its first director, David August Schiebe, was a man of great knowledge, of large experience, and at the same time of a very energetic character. He gave to the establishment an excellent organization. The severe discipline which he introduced and the success which followed it gave the school a great prestige.

David August Schiebe was born at Strasburg, in Alsace, on the 2d of October, 1779. He pursued his studies in the lyceum of this city, and was then entered as an apprentice in a commercial house of his native place. He was later a clerk at Strasburg, and from 1804 to 1807 was employed in a banking house at Frankfort. In 1807 he returned to Strasburg and entered the house of Franck & Co. In his leisure hours he occupied himself with literary work, and gave lessons to young merchants. In 1817 he gathered a certain number of instructors about him, and his enterprise seemed upon the point of becoming a school of commerce. But the attempt was premature, and he was obliged to close the institution after two years. He then devoted himself to the direction of industrial enterprises, and acted as agent in most varied commercial affairs. In 1819 he published, in French, his theoretical and practical treatise on Bills of Exchange, a work which was followed in 1825 by his Commercial Correspondence.

Some years after this the school at Leipsic was opened. The directorship of the school was offered to him, and Schiebe hastened to accept a position which enabled him to spread his ideas and to establish a system of instruction, the necessity of which he had been one of the first to recognize.

The necessary text-books for this instruction were not at hand; Schiebe prepared them. His works on Commercial Arithmetic, Bookkeeping, and The Science of the Counting-House exercised a wide influence upon the development of commercial studies in Germany. They appeared in a large number of editions during his life and after his death. "Even to-day," says Kippenberg, formerly director of the school at Gera, "Schiebe's books are the best to be found in this branch of instruction."

After having directed with great success, and in what may be called a truly practical manner, the school of Leipsic down to the year 1850, Schiebe retired from the management and returned to Strasburg, his native city, where he died the following year. His talents, his experience, and his professional loyalty render his memory dear to all his former pupils. For his indefatigable devotion and for the didactic works which he left behind him the school at Leipsic and in general the professors of commercial instruction in Germany owe him undying gratitude.

The successor of Schiebe from 1850 to 1862 was Alexander Steinhouse. After having been employed for twenty-seven years in the greatest commercial houses at Breslau, Venice, and Tampico he traveled in France, Germany, America, and the Indies, and closed his career as a merchant at Riga. From that time on he devoted his activity to the study of the commercial sciences, and for ten years was professor

in various public and private schools, and at last at Moscow. He devoted himself to the writing of pedagogical works, and published a commercial arithmetic in Russia. Under his direction the Commercial Institute of Leipsic improved its methods of instruction, and the number of its pupils went on increasing. In 1862 Steinhouse resigned his position as director and went to establish a school of commerce at Breslau.

From 1863 to 1878 the director of the Commercial Institute of Leipsic was Dr. Karl Gustav Oderman. He had been professor in this school from 1839 to 1854, and was, consequently, fully acquainted with everything relating to it. He had, moreover, shown his ability for directing work by his assistance in the founding and directing of a commercial school at Dresden. Under his direction the school of Leipsic preserved in general its former character, but it experienced numerous innovations in the scope of its instruction—innovations rendered necessary by the new school law of the Kingdom of Saxony and by the educational reforms in Germany. We shall describe these changes more fully below.

Dr. Oderman also took up the revision of the pedagogical works by Schiebe, which remained, so to speak, the classical works in this school. In cooperation with Dr. Feller, Oderman wrote a commercial arithmetic, which has been a great success in the commercial world, and which is now in its fifteenth edition. Oderman resigned in 1878, and left the school with the reputation of an experienced master, of a scientific trainer of youth, and an energetic director. In recognition of these services the King of Saxony, from whom he had already obtained several distinctions, accorded him the title of professor.

Charles Wolfrum, who succeeded him in 1878 as director of the school, had been professor of the commercial sciences at the Commercial School of Augsburg from 1851 to 1862; director of the school at Gotha from 1862 to 1872, and director of the School of Commerce at Augsburg from 1872 to 1878. He still holds the position of director at the Commercial Institute at Leipsic.

We shall have occasion later to speak more in detail of the organization of the institute, but to give a general notion of its development it will be sufficient to note here that from 1851 to 1886 there were 5,827 pupils in the department for apprentices; 5,002 pupils in the higher department; 322 pupils in the professional course; making a total of 11,151 pupils in fifty-five years, or an average of about 202 pupils a year.

The Commercial Institute of Leipsic had in 1884–85, 472 pupils; 1885–86, 494 pupils; 1890–91, 620 pupils; 1891–92, 662 pupils; 1892–93, 681 pupils.

DIVISION OF THE INSTITUTE—GOVERNMENT—FEES.

The Commercial Institute of Leipsic, as noted above, has been, since December 21, 1886, under the control of the Leipsic Chamber of Commerce. It is under immediate supervision of the city council of Leipsic, and under the general supervision of the royal ministry of the interior. The school board, which has immediate charge of the school, is elected by the Chamber of Commerce, and consists of six members, elected for a term of six years, one-half going out at the end of each three years.

The purpose of the school, according to the statutes published in 1888, is a twofold one. One is to give the commercial apprentices an opportunity to obtain the necessary general education and special training necessary for their calling; secondly, to give the desirable scientific training to those youth who wish to devote themselves to commerce and similar careers. The school is, accordingly, divided into three divisions. First, the apprentice department, which is the continuation school for apprentices actually engaged in commercial houses, and whose pupils are relieved from the necessity of visiting the city continuation schools. Secondly, the higher department, which is authorized to grant a certificate, conferring the privileges of the one-year military service law upon those pupils who complete the course in this division. Thirdly, the professional course, the purpose of which is to acquaint young men who have already acquired by study along other lines the degree of education necessary to secure the privileges of the one-year exemption law with the general theory of commerce.

PROVISIONS RELATING TO THE VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS OF THE SCHOOL.

First, apprentice department.—Every apprentice of a Leipsic commercial house can be admitted in the apprentice department upon showing his fitness to take up the work. Each candidate must pass an entrance examination. In order to be admitted into the third or lowest class, it is necessary that the pupil shall have completed an elementary school. To be admitted to the second class, he must show that he is acquainted with the subjects taught in the third class. Pupils can be admitted only upon the request of the head of a commercial house, who thereby becomes responsible

for the tuition of the pupil. The course of study extends over three years, including ten hours a week, divided as follows:

Subjects.	Hours per week.			Subjects.	Hours per week.		
	Third class.	Second class.	First class.		Third class.	Second class.	First class.
German	2	1	1	Correspondence	.....	.....	1
English	.....	2	2	Geography	1	1	.....
French	2	2	2	Penmanship	2	.....	.....
Commercial arithmetic	3	2	2				
Commercial science	.....	1	1	Total	10	10	10
Office work and bookkeeping	.....	1	1				

The tuition is 80 marks a year. The hours of instruction are from 7 to 9 in the morning; parallel divisions attend from 2 to 4 in the afternoon.

Second, higher division.—This division has a three-year course. The year begins at Easter time; pupils are admitted at other times, only upon showing that they can take up the work with profit by a special examination. Pupils must be at least 14 years of age. They must pass an entrance examination in German, French, geography, history, and arithmetic.

The curriculum embraces the following subjects:

Subjects.	Hours per week.			Subjects.	Hours per week.		
	Third class.	Second class.	First class.		Third class.	Second class.	First class.
German	4	3	3	Commercial science	.....	2	.....
English	5	4	4	Commercial law	.....	.....	1
French	5	4	4	Office work	.....	2	.....
Mathematics	3	3	4	Correspondence	.....	.....	2
Commercial arithmetic	5	3	2	Bookkeeping	.....	.....	3
Physics	3	2	.....	Political economy	.....	.....	2
Mechanical technology	.....	.....	2	Penmanship	3	2	.....
Chemistry	.....	2	2	Drawing	2	2	.....
Study of products	.....	.....	1	Athletics	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2				
History	2	2	2	Total	36	35	36

Instruction is also given as optional work in:

Subjects.	Hours per week.		
	Third class.	Second class.	First class.
Italian	.....	2	2
Spanish	.....	.....	2
Stenography	2	1	1

For foreigners in all the classes of this higher division the tuition is 360 marks a year; for natives of the Empire, 240 marks in the third class, 300 in the second, and 360 in the first. A matriculation fee of 10 marks is also required.

Third, professional course.—As this is the most advanced class in the school, only those pupils are admitted who hold a certificate entitling them to the privileges of the one-year military service law, or who have completed an equivalent course. This department is divided into two subdivisions—an apprentice department, with ten hours a week, and a regular students' department, with thirty-four hours a week. The course in both cases covers one year.

I. REGULAR STUDENTS' DIVISION.

Curriculum:	Hours per week.
English	5
French	5
Spanish	2
Commercial arithmetic	4
Commercial legislation	2
Bookkeeping	5
Correspondence	2
Political economy	3
Commercial history	2
Study of products	2
Penmanship	2
Total	34

II. APPRENTICE DIVISION.

Into this course only such apprentices are admitted as hold the certificate mentioned above.

Curriculum:	Hours per week.
English correspondence	2
French correspondence	2
Mercantile arithmetic	2
Commercial legislation	1
Bookkeeping	2
Commercial science	1
Total	10

Instruction is given between the hours of 7 and 9 in the morning.

It will be noted that this institution is organized so as to answer the wants of a commercial community in a most complete way. For those young men who have had a good preliminary preparation, such as is involved in the completion of what we may call an ordinary English high school, and who have gone directly from that into business, there is found an opportunity in the apprentice division of the professional course to get assistance in the special or technical study of the business in which they are engaged. Those who are able to spend another year, after completing such a course as is mentioned, find in the regular students' division of the professional course an opportunity to spend another year in preparing themselves somewhat more specially before entering upon a business career. This latter course corresponds very closely to the graduate course described in connection with the Prague and Vienna academies of commerce.

The second or higher division of this school corresponds very closely to what we should call an ordinary commercial high school, with a course of three years. It is evident that the pupil attending this department must give his entire time to the work of the school.

In the first, or apprentice department, an opportunity is offered for those clerks and apprentices in business houses who have had the advantage of an elementary school education, to carry on systematic work, suited to their age and preliminary training, at the same time that they are engaged in commercial houses. It will be noted, as stated above, that the instruction in the apprentice department, both higher and lower, is given between the hours of 7 and 9 in the morning, so that pupils are able to attend these courses while actually engaged in business. It will be interesting to note the distribution of students among the various departments.

In 1892–93 out of 681 pupils 454 were in the first, or apprentice division, taking the ten hours a week course through the three years; 155 were in the higher division; and 72 were in the professional course, of whom 37 were in the regular division and 35 in the apprentice division.

The second, or higher division, corresponds to the regular course in the academies of Prague and Vienna. It will be noted that the first, or elementary division, has by far the largest number of pupils, and to judge from the growing number in this department it answers a real want in a commercial community like that of Leipsic. In the annual report of the Commercial Institute for 1892–93 the director expresses himself as follows upon one or two important matters connected with the curriculum of the school:

"Wholesale and retail trade are as different in their methods of work as the ordinary work of a mechanic and that in a large factory. In training youth, therefore,

for one or the other of these callings, the demands to be made are very different. To do good work in retail trade one needs less comprehensiveness of knowledge than skill and reliability in the operations of simple business transactions. The curriculum of an ordinary public school gives the apprentice in retail trade, therefore, a satisfactory preliminary training. If to this be added certain instruction in a properly organized professional school the young pupil receives a scientific basis upon which the more ambitious of them can successfully build. And it will remain for experience to bring their technical skill to its highest degree.

"But this course of study is very insufficient for a young man who wishes to occupy a more important position in the field of wholesale trade. It is a great fault in our commercial education that we are trying to reach by a simple supplementary course, such as that given in our first division, the same result as can be obtained only upon the basis of thorough preliminary training. This is sometimes done from ignorance and sometimes from lack of resources. The large dealer has no less important functions to perform in a community than the educated individuals of other classes, and he can fulfill them satisfactorily only if he is willing to give as much time and care to his education as the members of other classes are willing to give to theirs. We must allow to each youth an opportunity to obtain a well-rounded general education first of all, and then, before entering commercial life, a careful course in the commercial sciences and languages. Instruction of such importance can not be carried on as a mere side issue, before or after business hours. It can only accomplish its proper result in case the pupils have a satisfactory preliminary training, are of the proper age, and devote their entire time to the school. Such supplementary or continuation instruction as is given in our first department is and can be only a temporary resource. The object of this department must remain, therefore, so long as present conditions prevail, the education of the mercantile middle class for the work of retail trade. Nothing more can be accomplished by this method of instruction.

"The curriculum covers three years of ten hours a week; the subjects are indicated above. Very little is demanded of the pupils in the way of work at home. It is fortunate that the instruction can be given between the hours of 7 and 9 in the morning, or 2 and 4 in the afternoon, while body and mind are still fresh. Evening work along this line is almost useless.

"The attendance in this first division has increased from year to year, a proof that its advantages are coming to be generally recognized by our mercantile classes. In consequence of this growing attendance it has been possible to divide the pupils into divisions according to their preliminary training. Those who are better prepared are put into the same divisions, and the instruction can be carried somewhat further and with better success than in the other divisions. As a rule about 70 to 75 per cent of the pupils who enter have completed the curriculum of the public school (what we in the United States should call the grammar school), the others have attended the lower classes of higher schools. It is interesting to note that about one-fourth of the pupils who enter this department complete the three-year course. At the close of the second year most of these pupils have reached an age when they are no longer required to attend a continuation school, and it is seldom that their own desire, or the wish of parents or masters, is strong enough to persuade them to complete the course."[1]

In regard to the professional course the director makes the following remarks in the same report:

"It has become more and more evident every year that the business circles of our own and other cities are coming to recognize the importance of our professional course (third department of the institute). Well-known manufacturers and merchants both at home and abroad are sending their sons to this course, in consequence of the favorable opinions of former graduates. We have received, and are receiving, from day to day, very flattering letters from former graduates and from employers. Indeed, it would be a cause for surprise if a year's earnest study of foreign languages and the various branches of commercial science should not have a permanent influence upon the intellectual development of the pupils. The extraordinary ability of the young German merchant, who is coming to be recognized in foreign countries, though in many cases with great unwillingness and with considerable envy, is no result of routine work. It is the consequence of careful and thorough training of our young people. Our mercantile classes should, therefore, derive new courage from this fact; they should rather make many steps forward than a single one backward. They should be careful not to save time and money at the wrong place. A nation whose commercial ralations are extending throughout all continents, whose

[1] In the Kingdom of Saxony pupils having completed the ordinary school course to the close of the fourteenth year are required to attend continuation schools, held either during the evening or on Sunday, or before or after business hours, for a longer period of two years, and as the apprentice department of the Commercial Institute of Leipsic has been accepted by the school authorities as a continuation school, one finds in this an explanation of the growing attendance in this department.

mercantile and naval marine is well equipped for the very best service, whose banner waves over many colonies, needs merchants of insight, financiers of wisdom, and inventive and enterprising organizers."

PROGRAMME AND METHODS.

Léautey, in his excellent work, so frequently referred to in this report, also calls attention to the fact that the Institute of Leipsic has taken special pains to divide and subdivide its instruction so as to adapt it in the best manner possible to the wants of its pupils. The business of the retail dealer does not necessiate such special and comprehensive knowledge as that of the wholesale dealer. The small merchant can only rarely turn to a profitable purpose in his sphere of action the knowledge of foreign languages, of mathematics, of algebra, etc. He needs, however, to be well acquainted with the goods themselves, to be versed in mercantile calculation, accounting, etc. The Institute of Leipsic has then established an elementary training, and a more advanced training for young men who wish to enter the wholesale trade.

In Germany the youth of limited means generally enter business immediately upon quitting the elementary school. Those who take up commerce as a career complete their school training in a continuation school during the three or four years of apprenticeship, through which they must pass. They are required by law to follow the courses of these schools while serving their apprenticeship. Under these conditions, it is no great disadvantage for them to enter at an early age upon business life, which trains them in the handling of goods, in the proper conduct toward their customers, in bookkeeping, and in applying the knowledge which they gain in the school.

There are also the studies preparatory for more advanced positions, studies in which the Institute of Leipsic gives by far the largest share to theory, contrary to the method applied in the beginning by Schiebe. This development, a work of time, of circumstances, and of the difficulties which lay in the way of developing a suitable personnel to give the instruction, is worthy of careful study. Schiebe laid down a programme of study which shows his preference for practical work; instruction in the science of commerce beginning in the second class, four hours a week. Schiebe himself gave this course, following the theory of commercial science by Jacob and his own works upon the subject; he thought that the pupil would arrive at a better understanding of commercial affairs if he actually went through the same process as the merchant in his office.

"This method is empiric," said Dr. Aymerick, "it offers, it is true, a certain advantage, it trains the pupils in acquiring a certain facility and external polish, but the real knowledge and training which is the essential part can not be acquired by such an unscientific method."

Certainly, we answer, practical lessons ought not to precede theoretical lessons. But after the theory has been set forth, these practical lessons may come in to complete the training of the pupil and to enable him to derive the fullest advantage from the instruction in the school. It is, however, very essential that these practical lessons shall be well given. It is this upon which we have insisted in our plan upon the reorganization of commercial instruction. (Léautey.)

"At the school at Leipsic," continues our correspondent, "many years passed before we had text-books treating of the various branches of commercial science in a manner simple and clear. It was only as the result of long development that we came to see that the simple repetition of the same exercises again and again has only a very small value, if one does not penetrate into the very reason and spirit of the same. Everywhere we endeavored to discover a common law resulting from the unending variety of similar facts, and by this means to escape a useless prolixity. This is the road which scientific commercial instruction in Germany has followed to perfect itself."

Very well. But in this way has there not been a certain abuse of theory? Extremes meet, and they are ordinarily equally pernicious. We repeat what we said before, that the schools of commerce should be at once polytechnic schools and schools of application, and in order that application shall bear its best fruit it is necessary that it should be exercised not upon imaginary operations, but upon real operations properly conducted, properly systematized, and all the documents relating to which should be methodically brought together under the eyes of the pupils.

It would be superfluous to recount here the various modifications which were made in the Institute of Leipsic from 1831 to 1868, modifications which were suggested by the experience of the school. It is sufficient to say that during this whole period the basis of the method remained the same as Schiebe had instituted in the first instance. But in the movement for educational reform from 1868 to 1871 the Institute at Leipsic was compelled to follow the movement or lose its title of a higher school. The law relating to military service in Saxony, of December 24, 1866, had

conceded to the three schools of commerce at Dresden, Chemnitz, and Leipsic the right to give a certificate entitling to the one-year military service privileges, and it was necessary to reorganize the instruction to conform to the requirements of this law.

It was, then, at this time that the university tendency of general culture began to overbalance the purely commercial instruction of early years both at the Institute at Leipsic, and, in general, in all the higher schools of commerce in Germany. In all these institutions it was necessary, in order to comply with the provisions of the military law, to reorganize their curricula from the very bottom, and to give more time to the instruction in mathematics, physical and natural sciences, history, geography, and literature. This reorganization implied the necessity of diminishing the time given to the commercial sciences, and also the importance of the practical exercises in the countinghouse.

It was not until 1869 that the Institute at Leipsic declared itself ready to comply with the legal provisions, and from that time on this establishment acquired the right to give the certificate for the one-year voluntary service.

This change in its instruction led it, on the other hand, to enlarge the sphere of action of the school, in order to preserve its former professional character. It was noted that a certain number of pupils from the real schools, who held the military certificate, entered immediately into business life, to spend the years which had still to elapse before they were of military age. These young men, from 16 to 17 years of age, while trained in modern languages, mathematics, history, geography, but entirely unacquainted with the commercial sciences, found themselves at a disadvantage in their practical careers on account of this lack of special knowledge. It appeared, then, to be plain that the Institute at Leipsic had here the task of creating a professional course for those young men who had obtained the military certificate. The success of this course, opened in 1876, did not entirely meet the expectations of its founders.

Three years later, in 1879, another attempt was made. By the side of the professional course, which comprises ten lectures a week, another course was established of from thirty to thirty-two exercises per week for those youth who held the military certificate and were willing to devote an additional year to study for preparation of the commercial career. This last course was received with considerable favor, and the attendance shows a steady increase. This result, although very satisfactory, shows that in Germany, as in France, public opinion is still in doubt as to the value of commercial instruction.

The director of the school expressed himself upon this point in the following manner:

"It is thought," he said, "by large classes of our population that commercial practice can fully take the place of theoretical knowledge. It is, however, true that he who has a theoretical knowledge learns more from experience than the mere empiricist, to whom he will always be superior when it comes to a matter of judgment or to execute intelligently an order, or to act with energy and decision in different situations; but many years will probably pass before the value of our technical professional instruction will be fully appreciated and before the number of our pupils increases in proportion to the advantages which professional study assures to him who follows it thoroughly."

It is not necessary to print a synopsis of the courses, as the individual subjects taught cover very much the same ground, having due regard to the greater or less proportion of time devoted to them, as in the French and Austrian schools. It will be noted from a comparison of the curriculum given above with those of the schools in France and Austria that considerably more attention is given to the nontechnical subjects in Germany. This may be explained, however, by the fact mentioned above, that in order to get the privilege of granting the military certificate, these schools were obliged to introduce general subjects more largely, rather than because of any belief that the German curriculum in its present form is better than the French or Austrian.

It is not necessary to go into a more detailed discussion of questions of discipline, etc., as in this respect the Institute of Leipsic differs but little from those already mentioned. A glance at the budget of the school may, however, be of interest.

The school is carried on, under ordinary conditions, in such a way that a financial deficit regularly occurs, which is met by the chamber of commerce from the proceeds of funds belonging to it. It is well housed in a model school building, erected in 1890. The budget for the year 1885-86 shows the following receipts and expenditures.

	Marks.
Receipts:	
Tuition from the—	
Higher division	32,751.71
Professional course	11,932.15
Apprentice department	23,585.27
Total	68,269.13
Subsidy from the Government	4,500.00
	72,769.13
Expenses:	
Pensions and salaries	63,662.61
Lighting	928.62
Heating	938.42
Printing	1,076.50
Books for library	571.00
Chemical laboratory	451.78
Miscellaneous expenses	508.39
Rent	9,700.00
Total	77,827.32

NOTE.—Sections of the report relating to higher commercial instruction in Belgium, Italy, and England are omitted. In regard to the latter Professor James says:

"It is not far from the truth to say that there is no such instruction given in England at all, at least such thorough, systematic, and advanced instruction as would justify our putting it in the same category as that of France, Austria, or Germany. It is in this department as in so many others. The genius of the people—so eminently commercial—the favorable situation of the country, and the many other circumstances which have combined to put England at the very head of commercial nations, have also seemed at first to dispense with the necessity of giving time and labor to systematic school preparation for such occupations. On the other hand, the many unfavorable circumstances which have combined to prevent the growth of commerce and industry in Germany, France, and Austria have brought these nations to a recognition of the fact that thorough education along all these lines was the only hope of their being able to compete with England at all. The result has been what might have been expected. Owing to the superior education and training of her youth Germany has been steadily diminishing the disadvantages of her position, and English merchants are now awaking to the fact not only that German trade is increasing more rapidly than English but that even the trade of England herself is passing into the hands of German merchants who have settled in London."

CHAPTER XVI.

EARLY EDUCATIONAL LIFE IN MIDDLE GEORGIA.[1]

VACATION TIME—ACADEMIES—A MANUAL-LABOR SCHOOL—THE UNIVERSITY.

I.—Vacation Time.

Some account has been given of society in middle Georgia during the period of occupation by immigrants from the older States, mainly from Virginia and North Carolina, who, despite the perils on the very border of savage existence, were attracted thither by the extraordinary fecundity and salubrity of that region. Therein it appeared that, on account of peculiar exigencies of situation in the beginning, patrician rule, as in all similar conditions in the past, obtained; but that, not long afterwards, other exigencies equally important led to coalescence of the several classes of whites for purposes of security and well-being needful to all. To this coalescence, it was argued, were owing the speedy, healthful growth and development of a rural population which in a comparatively brief while helped to raise the State, the youngest of the thirteen, to a high rank among its confederates.

In that account were mentioned some of the shifts to which resort was compelled under the then existing conditions to obtain for the children of those immigrants instruction in the elements of learning, and sketches were made of what came to be known as "Old-field schools," which were, perhaps, if not the most unique, at least the most crude among the elementary schools throughout the whole country, yet, notwithstanding their eccentricities and jejuneness, productive of much benefit to the new community so far distant from enlightened centers. Exuberance of health and eagerness of enterprise enabled the settlers to meet difficulties and drawbacks, make the best of opportunities, however slender, turn all accidents to every possible good account, and, fully conscious of the need of better things, patiently, yet with energy and confidence, labor for their procurement. Boys and girls who got their first instruction at these schools, even those grown afterwards to be among the most eminent and accomplished, used to recall and rehearse scenes therein enacted so grotesque and bizarre as to sound incredible, yet which, even including some that were barbarous, were told not only without a tittle of pain or resentment, but with a humor so gushing as to be thankful for things whose recollections inspired it.

Note was made in that account of the intermingling of sexes both in school and in class, and some habitudes peculiar to such close relationship, including inchoate devotion of the stronger to the weaker. Mention was made, also, of several things in discipline, of the games and sports indulged separately by boys and girls, and of other things attendant upon school life.

In this chapter the writer will undertake to describe portions of the life of boys and girls while out of school, within family circles, and, when grown old enough for them, in social reunions. Field sports of boys will be mentioned, and such games as, during the approach toward maturity, both sexes played in company. The chapter will end with an account of the very early ages at which marriage engagements in

[1] By Richard Malcolm Johnston.

general were contracted, and some of the incidents usually occurring before, during, and after their solemnization, followed by an account of the founding of academies, manual labor schools, and of the State University.

In this region, as doubtless was the case in all other rural communities at that period, youth of both sexes, whatever might be their pecuniary circumstances, were required to spend a greater or less portion of the time at work. In families with narrow means this was necessary. Children when not at school worked habitually with the same regularity as negroes or hired laborers. Indeed, the two or three years' schooling gotten by them generally was spread through twice or thrice as many on account of times and seasons when their services at home were indispensable to sufficient cultivation of crops and work within doors. Seldom one of this sort attended more than three or four months in the year. It was often as surprising as gratifying to note the amount of learning acquired by boys and girls in circumstances so narrow. Difficulties enhanced in their eyes the value of what they had few and limited opportunities of pursuing. Many a lad with no more than these rose to much respectability for intelligence and some to high positions in professional life. So, too, even children of the better sort were required to work during the period of vacation from school. Few boys of any sort did not learn to handle the plow, the hoe, and the ax. While engaged on plantation work they labored never apart, but alongside of negroes, going to fields and returning at the same hours, their dinners being sent to them as to the rest. True, they were indulged in more frequent holidays, yet in many of these their friends among the poorer classes, particularly on Saturdays, were allowed to join them in sportings with hounds, gun, and rod. A people among whom were few who dearly loved mere money getting were none the less stringent of rule that their children should grow up with just notions of the importance of work and becoming respect for it. As sons of the more prosperous grew older, instead of manual labor they were gradually inducted into the knowledge of supervising and in the disposition of crops when gathered.

It was the same with girls, perhaps to a degree more stringent because of their closer confinement at home and in continual presence of work which industrious mothers of families saw needed to be looked after. Vestments of every sort, for whites as well as blacks, were cut and made at home. These, except the few for special occasions, as hereinbefore mentioned, were made of the produce of the plantation—flax, wool, and cotton. This work, the whole of it, was done in the mansion under the supervision of the mistress, and mainly by herself and her daughters. When portions were assigned to negro women or girls, it was of a kind needing less of special painstaking, yet requiring the mistress' continual direction, for deftness with the needle and shears always seemed difficult for them to acquire.

EVENINGS AT HOME.

The interval between supper and bedtime was spent by the whole family together. If lessons were not already conned, children studied by a table, rendering and receiving assistance when needed. This seldom occupied all the space, as the lessons were not unreasonable. Afterwards, if it was in summer, they sat together on the piazza, which hardly any house was without, until the hour of evening family prayer, that was seldom omitted if the father was a church member. A Bible chapter was read, a hymn sung, and then the prayer on bended knees, sometimes the latter seeming rather long to children and such of the servants as accepted invitation to be present; this was evinced when at its close they were yet on the floor, being overcome by sleep. In winter girls assisted their mothers in sewing and knitting for the family, white and black, and the boys helped the father in rolling into balls from brooches the thread spun during the day and reeling the balls into hanks. In times before the cotton gin, all picked apart the seed and the lint. So long used to this habit some became, that even after the gin was introduced some planters, when satisfied with reading, kept it up during the evening, unwilling to be entirely idle during any

portion of their working time. During the hours of sleep doors oftener than otherwise were left unlocked and windows unbarred. A man's own negroes were trusted as his children. Domestic police, as in patriarchal times, was in the family, and it was not very far from perfect. Children when at home were often allowed to play with much freedom with their coevals among the negroes; but only boys with boys, and girls with girls, and the latter only in daylight. In such plays the humbler indulged as much freedom as the higher, and the admission of defeat was as honest in the one case as in the other, although upon disputed points there was the same sort of wrangling or what was common to either race while contending apart. Elderly negroes who happened to be passing by took the same liberty as parents used in warning against extravagances of any sort, and a white child's heedlessness to such interference, especially if attended with disrespectful words, were reported in the "white house" whither the giver was called and made render account. These persons were usually addressed as "Uncle" or "Aunt," titles destined to last throughout life.

This freedom of intercourse between children of both races, within limitations known to be prudent regarding the best welfare of all, led to benign consequences. Many of the most affectionate, long-enduring friendships existing in the South were between white men and their slaves, which began in childhood under supervision of the parents of both. It was quite common for two children, a white and a black, to become so attached, that the humbler grew up with hope of becoming that young master's or that young miss' slave when the time should come for the former to marry and go away with allotted portions of the estate. Not only they, but their families wished them to follow the fortunes of those who had been so long and so well beloved. To the world outside such separations seemed hard. Far more often than not they were in accordance with long-cherished hopes, and they served to enhance yet more the happiness of that naturally thankful and affectionate race.

BOYS' FIELD SPORTS.

Out of school, children whose parents were of whatever degree of property holding were indulged with holidays of reasonable frequency. Almost any Saturday a boy with his fishing rod, or with his gun and two or three hounds, would meet his likes similarly attended and spend the day along the margin of a creek or within fields and woods. Lesser game for a long time continued plentiful, such as squirrels, rabbits, opossums, raccoons, partridges, field larks, and particularly doves by the thousands. Any family, however humble, would have been ashamed to be regarded so poor as not to afford to keep several hounds.

Boys who were too young to handle guns or follow hounds afar used to resort to devices for taking birds.

Traps.—Perhaps never a Georgia boy, when come to 7 or 8 years, failed to have his one or more traps for catching birds. If he was lame or an invalid, a trap must be built for him and set somewhere in a meadow or near the woodside. It was constructed of laths about 3 feet in length for the four at bottom, 2 inches wide, and a quarter of an inch thick, decreasing in length for about 10 inches. It was set by three sticks called triggers, a long and two short, forming, when joined, the figure 4, placed horizontally with the stem at the bottom. Around this stem and beneath was strewn the bait—grains of corn, oats, and wheat. A very light touch sprang the trigger and the trap came down. The captive was taken out at the top by removal of the short laths in sufficient numbers to allow insertion of the hand and arm. Results from such huntings were very far from compensating for the work done in their behalf, but they were ever hoped and expected to be better the next time. They were far more satisfactory in the case of one bird in particular, the quail, called there "partridge." Going in flocks, ingenuity was called upon to frame a trap so as to get all, which would certainly follow the getting of the first. The trap for this purpose was called a "coop." It was similarly constructed, possibly somewhat heavier.

Instead of triggers its delusion was compassed by a tunnel, wide and horizontal at the opening, about a foot or 15 inches from the coop, and after reaching it ascending and narrowing until it opened rather abruptly within by an aperture of size to easily admit one bird and no more. Grain was scattered in profusion about the coop, more so in the opening, and extending through the tunnel. The leader of the flock passed along the wide, gentle slope, feeding as he went, the rest eagerly following. Some grains were scattered upon the ground within in order to hinder apprehension from arising until all were inside. In this condition it never occurred to them to attempt egress through the same route by which they had entered. The tunnel's opening inside being abrupt and darkened, the captive vainly strove to pass through the spaces in the sides and roof of the coop.

Day hunting with hounds and gun.—The hunting of squirrels and rabbits, doubtless, was about the same as in all other regions where these animals abound. It was pursued by half-grown lads regarded not yet old enough to overcome the awkward difficulties in chasing such as could be taken only in the night; or, as in the case of the fox, at early dawn and on horseback. Many a vain petition to venture, at least upon the former, was presented to mothers, and many a boy was made happy at the coming of the time when it was deemed not too imprudent to grant it.

Hunting the opossum.—A sport which boys greatly delighted in was accompanying the negroes while hunting the opossum. Its relish was the dearer because of the infrequency with which parents, especially mothers, consented to it. Of all delights to the palate of a Southern negro, and indeed of many a Southern white man, the flesh of the opossum, when baked to the proper degree of brown, is the dearest. Abounding in fat perhaps beyond any other animal, its flesh resembles much that of a sucking pig, only being more soft. It is so easily fattened that on being taken out of the woods it generally is in condition fit for the oven. Southerners regard it of all meats the least indigestible, and but for its superabundant fat it would appear more frequently on tables of the whites. In some houses this superfluity was disposed of by placing a layer or more of oak or hickory sticks to the height of 3 or 4 inches at the bottom of the oven, and upon the latticework thus made laying the opossum. By such mode much of the oil was deposited on the bottom. The negro, when cooking for himself, never resorts to these measures, but takes his favorite as he is, indeed preferring him with all his imperfections on his head.

At every home, whatever might be lacking for making up the full of home comforts, it was never an opossum dog; seldom was it without two or three. These were not of the pack of hounds—from four to eight and more—kept by the owner for the fox and the rabbit. They belonged to the negroes, and were usually well trained. The hunter, providing himself with an ax, a torch of lightwood sticks of suitable length (about 2 feet), accompanied by at least one other, bearing another ax and an armful of other sticks, sallied forth to the woods. Both he and his dog well knew the most-frequented haunts of the quarry, along skirts of wood and meadow wherein grew the persimmon, the muscadine, and the wild grape. A rabbit starting up attracted little notice from the dog, that understood well enough that that sort of game was for the day, never for the night. After the trail was found the pursuit was usually brief, as this beast is not swift of foot, and travels over an inconsiderable space. The dog barks little or none while pursuing, and so the opossum, when about to be overtaken by surprise, makes with what speed is possible to a tree. In his emergency he sometimes has to take to a small sapling, up which he can mount no higher than 6 or 8 feet without bending the top. If he is not too hotly pressed he will take to a large one, although he is not as particular in that matter as the raccoon, who, being more swift of foot and more capable in general of taking care of himself, invariably seeks the largest he can find in his flight. There was one exception, however, and that in the case of an opossum of smaller size, more slender of make, much more fleet of foot, and with preponderance of black hairs in his skin. Whenever it was a very large tree to which the hunter was called by his dog, he

was apt to suspect that it was either a raccoon or a "Blue Dick," as this variety was called. Whether it was of a distinct species was not known. Individuals were not often met with, and a black hunter was always disappointed when one of them took the place of its betters, as, though small and thin, it cost more to take him and to fatten him afterwards.

The "treeing" was announced by a bark peculiar to that office, and entirely different from others. There was no sound of eagerness, as in those of pursuit. It was one brief utterance of mere announcement, as if the dog had finished the task assigned to him and would now lie down and rest till his owners came up. If his bark was harkened to, he gave no more. If not, he repeated it at intervals until it was. Then he sat or lay while the tree was being felled. Just before this crisis, unless the tree was very small, one of the axmen, quitting that work, repaired a short distance on the side opposite to that in which the tree was to fall and held him by the collar during the descent. This was done to secure him from being crushed by rushing too speedily among the branches. Instant upon the fall he was loosed, and, rushing forward, seized his game, nearly always before it could get to another tree. At that instant all excitement ended. A moment before the seizure, if he had it to spare, the opossum, offering no resistance, laid itself down and to all appearances died. This was regarded as an instinctive artifice to attempt escape from death by seeming to be dead already. It will fight with neither man nor dog, and at last seems to implore for pity and sparing of life to one so entirely submissive. This gave rise to the phrase "playing 'possum," applied to persons suspected of making insincere ado about their own ailments or other suffering, or pretending to be asleep.

The way in which the captive was secured, if not novel, was curious, and singularly hard. A hickory stick of, say, 2 inches in thickness and 5 or 6 feet long was split at a small distance from one end, and before the wedge was withdrawn the long, hairless, thick-skinned tail was drawn about half its length through the slit, after which the wedge was withdrawn. The captor slung the stick across his shoulders, trimmed his torch, and, if not ready to return home, hied his dog to another search. Occasionally a negro would return home, not too late for rest enough for the morrow's work, with three or four hanging from his pole.

The killing was usually postponed to a Sunday. During the interval it was kept in a box set with its open side upon the ground and made firm by heavy stones laid upon the top, ventilated by auger holes. It was fed upon persimmons mainly, but with addition of bread, collards, potatoes, and other vegetables gotten from the negro's small garden that lay behind his cabin. It was really surprising what degrees of fatness it would take on in a very short time.

The killing was after a way peculiar to that animal. In all probability never since Georgia was first occupied by white people with slaves did an opossum, when killed by a negro, meet death in any other. For this time-honored custom he felt respect that would have been sorely hurt even by suggestion of substitution of another. The affection he cherished for this dear object made him scrupulous that when his end was to come, as it must come inevitably according to the destiny of all beings, sentient and not, it should be decently in accord with usage handed down from the ancestors of both. And so on a fair Sunday morning, taking him tenderly, yet with sufficient firmness of grasp by the tail, he drew him from his box into the light of day, let him "go dead" for a while, after his harmlessly deceptive way, and, it may be, addressed to him some words of praise for the manner in which he had made himself ready for the winding up of this his last job. Then, laying down his ax with the helve across the victim's neck and placing his foot upon it near the space of contact, while he kept it pressed, with his two hands he pulled his tail until his neck was broken. Already a pot of water hard by had been made hot for scalding the hair from his precious "carcass," by this time become, as some expressed it, "as round as a butter ball." After he was baked and set upon a tray, flanked satisfactorily with

attendant good things, it was interesting to see the rapidity with which, using a favored simile among negroes, it would "go down de red lane."

Raccoon hunting.—Seldom was a young boy allowed to go upon hunt of the raccoon. It is a beast of considerable fleetness, extremely wily, and combative to the last degree. Probably of all animals, if not the most cunning in devices to evade its pursuers, it is the most adroit and pertinacious in fight. Not one hound in a hundred could cope with it in single combat on land, and it required three and four to do so in water. A coon hunt of several dogs (and it required a pack) gave chase often a mile or more before the quarry was compelled to tree, and this, back and forth, winding right and left through the densest thickets that the fugitive knows best on the margin of the creek. The tearing and soiling of clothes, inevitable to close following of hounds, made parents put a ban upon sons until they were well on toward manhood. Even grown persons, on account of the expense, seldom hunted them except for the purpose of lessening their ravages upon the young corn ears in adjoining fields, and never with intent to eat them. Occasionally a negro, for lack of opossum, would cook them and try to get as much compensation as possible for such lack. Generally, however, after taking the skin the rest was thrown away. Yet occasionally a hunt was indulged in for the sake of the excitement throughout, particularly at the close. Very often several trees, seldom not more than the first, had to be felled. One of the animal's devices was to take one tree in a thicket and, after ascending among the higher limbs that intermingle with those of other trees, pass stealthily from one to another. In such movements it was interesting to note the competition of the lower animal's instincts with the ingenuity of man. Occasionally, by no means frequently, the quick ear of a hound detected the trick when a slender limb was bent by a passage; but what was more to the purpose, the hunter might be able once in a while to discover the object of his pursuit by placing himself in the fairest position and then, having the torch put behind and lowered, peer up among the branches. The raccoon was in constant watch of its pursuers, and the glittering eyes reflecting the torchlight, betrayed its covert. When the tree fell, foreseeing it must be overtaken, it made haste for the nearest water, where a fight took place which really thrilled one to witness. Nothing could equal the celerity with which one and another of its enemies were bitten and clawed, amidst growlings of intensest desperation. The hounds howled aloud with corresponding pain and anger from repeated inflictions. On fit opportunity the raccoon, seizing one by the nose, dived beneath the stream, where it could remain considerably longer than the former. When it became necessary to rise, it loosed its hold and reappeared as far away as possible from the point of descent, and its latest adversary had to repair to the bank for a moment's rest. From sheer exhaustion of defending against its numerous enemies it perished at last, yet often with its teeth and claws quivering in their flesh.

Yet, it seems singularly noteworthy, as used to be solemnly declared by negroes, whose observations of habits among animals of the woods had extended through long periods and whose statements in that regard were in general entirely reliable, that in a combat between a raccoon and an opossum the latter, if of corresponding age and growth, invariably prevails. And it is thus: The opossum, shrinking himself into as small and round a ball as possible, makes his one bite; it may be the jaw, and it may be the shoulder, or a hind leg. Whatever it be it is a mouthful on which after fastening his teeth, jaw and all, he deliberately and with apparent entire resignation "goes dead," and the assaults of his enemy of whatever numbers and varieties seem to have no sort of influence upon his corpse. It is as if a choice morsel had been locked within a strong box whose owner had gone away with the key in his pocket. When the raccoon becomes abjectly demoralized and by unmistakable signs shows that he is more than fully satisfied the dead comes back to life, opens his jaws, and the other makes off without unnecessary delay.

This exigency is far worse when the raccoon is caught in part by a trap. If it be in a portion of his body not vital and to which he can apply his teeth, with these he cuts the rest of himself loose and leaves the other part to tell its own tale alone.

Plantation Fourth of July.—Among the yearly holidays anticipated most eagerly by children was the plantation Fourth of July.

Independence Day, as many used to style it, always had its several commemorations. The principal one was held on the day itself in the villages, or, in districts too remote from those, in the meeting-house grove or near a cross-roads store. In the latter case an orator and a reader came from town, all surviving Revolutionary soldiers were carried and sat in chairs in front of the audience and with women divided the eloquent praises of the peroration. Afterwards came the barbecue, for whose enjoyment juicy exhalations from pits wherein the "carcasses" were nearing a proper finish for some time before made all mouths ready.

The other came on later, usually on the third or fourth Saturday of the month. This was the negroes' "Fourth of July." By this time the small grain had been harvested, cotton and corn received their third and last plowing, and the crop was pronounced to be "laid by" during the four weeks before the ripening.

On this occasion things were put on early and kept on late. Pigs and lambs, according to the number in the family, were barbecued, supplemented by fowls and vegetables, cakes, conserves, and other good things. Yet the scene most interesting to children was the cider beating. Apples brought in carts from the orchard were emptied into a long trough made of a poplar log, where they were beaten by men with pestles. A rude press was built and fastened to one of the trees in the grove, and on a layer of oat straw the pulp gathered in buckets was emptied, the long beam attached to the screw that pressed being drawn around by a horse or mule. The fun to children was in being allowed with long oat straws to suck the new cider from the trough. The dinner table was set in the grove. After the whites were served, the negroes sat down on their chairs and benches, when all, men, women, and children, did the best they knew how with the viands before them. When all could do no more on that line, the old foreman, called upon for a speech and unanimously denied being excused, said his say, and was followed by others among the men, who talked their talks, and by the half-grown boys and girls, who sang their songs. After dinner the aged and other adults sat around under the trees and looked on as the young, white and black, disported over the grove. Except Christmas and Christmas week, this was the whitest of all days in the year. It mattered not what had been the favorableness of the seasons and the general prospect of crops, on this day conditions, whether promising or otherwise, were put out of mind. Everybody was conscious that he had done his part faithfully, and knew that the same was felt by everybody else, so all gave themselves to enjoyment, willing to leave the future to the disposal of the Creator. With apparent reluctance the sun went down at last too soon. Yet often the moon at or not far from its full, or the heavens lit by starlight allowed the children to continue their sports till near the hour of 9, at which all must retire to their beds.

SWIMMING.

No school was very far from some sort of swimming hole. At a proper distance from the spring the boys made a dam in the spring branch, whither they very often resorted. On Saturdays in time of summer they went to the nearest mill pond. By the time one was 10 or 11 he swam as easily as the best. It is probable that not one in a thousand grew to manhood without learning this delightful art. Anyone felt ashamed when another said of him about this: "He can't do anything; he can't even swim." It was remarkable what often could be done in diving, by long practice. Occasionally a boy remained under water so long that a stranger looking on might begin to apprehend that a serious accident had occurred, when, rising far beyond the place of immersion, his hearty exhalation gave assurance that all was right with him. Contests of endurance were very frequent. If the bathing hole was small the divers, one at a time, standing each with his back to the water, waited till a stone suitable in size was thrown in, and the bubbling that might tend to betray the spot at which it had entered subsided. Then, plunging in headforemost, they

made search for it. If it was rather easily found a smaller was substituted. Not very many habitually engaged in a contest that necessarily imparted such discomfort. Besides, many carried oft-repeated orders from home against a practice so hazardous, on pain, in case of violation, of losing permission to go into the water at all.

Another thing of a very decidedly unpleasant character, often resulting from too long indulgence in the sport when the swimming pool was not entirely within the shade of trees, was burning the skin of arms and shoulders by the double action of the sun's heat directly and through reflection of the water. The luxury of the sport was so delightful, especially in a mill pond which could not very often be reached, that sometimes boys lingered too long in braving this danger. As long as they were in the water no sort of indication of what was insidiously coming was given. Only a partial foretaste was given when they were drying themselves on the bank. But by the time they had reached home never a boy so beset who did not sorely repent that he had gone away from home on that day, or that he had not gone in a direction leading farther and farther from that mill pond. As soon as such an one got within 50 yards of the house, his mother, if happening to look that way, discovered in his red-red face what was the matter, and at once began to make ready for prompt dealing with the case. Sometimes, if it had been possible, he would have liked to conceal his predicament, enduring the pain, whose stinging severity none but the experienced can understand. Yet he would have sorely preferred this to the medical treatment. This was always as follows:

On a bed, more frequently for greater convenience on a pallet spread upon the floor, the sufferer, after removal of his shirt, was laid flat on his front, his arms extended. Then at brief intervals during several hours the burnt surface was mopped with a goose feather dipped in a bowl of cream. The position, the silent, relentless sting, and, neither last nor least, the descent, along with feather and cream, of words of a kind most remote from such as soothes an invalid to hear, made his condition seem of all most uncomfortable. If not audibly, at least inwardly, he made, if for the third or fourth time, the resolve that never, no never while memory remained, would he be caught again in precisely that style.

GAMES.

When children had arrived at the age approximating maturity, games conducted with animation often becoming rather noisy and boisterous were dropped, and others more quiet and subdued were substituted. In these both sexes joined, and behavior was of a kind to be expected of those who began to look forward to marriage. That period in the times now being considered came forward earlier than afterwards when travel increased, bringing larger numbers into acquaintance with one another. Country girls then often were fully grown at 15, sometimes at 14; matured by the latitude, good health, and abundant exercise. Boys were men in size generally at 18. At this stage few parents were opposed to marriages when other things seemed suited. Among the young, choice of life partners was limited mainly to the immediate neighborhood, and this was seldom protracted beyond the twentieth or twenty-first year, as often as otherwise not beyond the nineteenth. When a girl at 13 or 14 left off her pantelets and let her gown reach to her feet, the understanding among boys was that she would be apt to understand what he was hinting about when the theme was married life as compared with single blessedness. In such discussions the softer of course declared preference for the latter. Yet it was not uninteresting to listen to argument from her opponent, which being more persistent, strenuous, eager, and in time appearing more sensible, she suffered herself to become convinced by it. Marriage engagements were always brief, brought within as near limits as the suitor by prayers and tears could obtain. If the alliance was satisfactory to both families, they generally seconded his pleas. For there was no need to inquire about antecedents personal or social, nor about existing conditions. These were

already known. Perhaps never was a rural community in which were fewer secrets. Whatever occurred in neighborhood or domestic existence became known to everybody—beginnings of courtships, their progress, rivalries, probable results, dates of maids suffering themselves to be overtaken, engagements when to be consummated. Even rejections, although sometimes (not always) endeavoring, could not hide themselves; it was too good an item for other enamored youths to let lie in silence. Whenever a prospective marriage was kept secret it was because the parties to it knew of or apprehended family hostility, which, if it could not be overcome, would compel to elopement.

Mention has been made hereinbefore of the appreciation of leisure among the rural population of this region, adults as well as youths, married persons and single. Hospitality was regarded even a religious duty, and few were so poor as not to practice it within, often much over the limit of their capacity. A few parties of pleasure among the young were frequent at all seasons. When dancing fell under interdict of the churches, resort was had to plays, of which there was quite a number, for mere conversation could not easily be substituted when none had read more than a very few books, which, however interesting, could not support oft-repeated discussion. Well-grown boys, well learned in the history of brave heroes described in the half dozen romances in vogue, essayed, with various degrees of success and occasions of fitness, to imitate their language, and were laughed at by girls and rivals for apparent blunders, and so it was that very soon after meeting and exchange of usual inquiries and compliments, suggestion of plays met with favor. Descriptions of a few of the most leading of these are hereto subjoined.

Criticism.—In this play one of the company, male or female, was assigned to a chair apart from the rest to be criticised. In the beginning, unless one volunteered or assented to suggestions to become the first subject, it was decided by lots. This however, was seldom resorted to, as more than one of the youngest boys showed willingness to be made thus conspicuous. Then one of the company went around asking everyone what the subject looked like, at the same time kneeling for the answer, which was whispered in the ear. After the round was made, the interrogator stopped and, looking toward one and another, reflected several moments while fixing in recollection the various criticisms. If he could not clearly recall every one, a partial round was made again. After that he announced them to the subject, who had to guess at the names of his critics. If he failed of all, he had to remain where he was for another ordeal. If not, the one first properly guessed took his place. Announcement of failure or success, when occurring early, was not made until a full report was rendered, for in this the fun consisted. As a rule the critics liked to be known, particularly when the declared similitude was complimentary. Between boys this was never the case; a boy subject never thought of attributing to one of his sort any except ridiculous comparisons with his inferiors. There were several that might be called stock phrases which were seldom omitted, because younger boys were particularly fond of them, such as "he looks like a ram goat tied to a shavin," a "sore-eyed kitten peepin' out of a pan of buttermilk," or "he would if he could, and if he couldn't how would he?" Occasionally a lover hinted his feelings to his sweetheart by comparing her to the "Queen of Sheby," when the comparison was announced exhibiting such consciousness as would remove doubts of the author; and it vexed him when she, dishonestly enough, guessed a small boy or a rival whom he hoped she did not care for. Girls' comparisons, except in cases of little boys, were not usually very complimentary, nor did they aim so much at being funny, usually employing some phrase taken from a book. If a large boy got a high compliment in that way, he would be sure that it was not sent by the one he liked best, provided she had been made aware of his feeling.

Thimble.—In this game, when all except one were seated about the room, she (in case of a girl) holding a thimble in her closed hands, went around, and the rest, with theirs opened only enough to receive it if dropped within them, hoped each to get the compliment. Their hands, whether successful or not, were kept closed so

that no intimation could be made of the one who held it. The carrier said to each: "Hold fast what I give you." When the round was made, the giver demanded of the rest successively to guess who was the holder. All who missed had to forfeit something, as a fan, a pocketknife, a handkerchief, or something else. When these forfeits had accumulated to a considerable number they were redeemed in this wise: By a table on which they had been laid, one who was more often than otherwise a boy, was seated in a chair by its side. Then a girl standing behind held above his head so that he could not perceive it, one forfeit at a time, beginning with the words: "Heavy, heavy hangs over your head: What shall the owner do to redeem it?" The boy inquired: "Is it fine or superfine?" meaning is the property that of a boy or of a girl. The cost of redemption depended upon the humor of the seller and the character of the owner. Many a ridiculous thing was enjoined to boys, as to "cut the pigeon wing"—that is, jump up and crack his heels together three times before returning to the floor; "to put his face in such a shape as would hide as much of its ugliness as possible;" to "go to Miss Betty Perkins and ask her forgiveness for telling a lie on her;" to apologize to Miss Nancy Crother for saying she wasn't nigh as pretty as she thought she was;" or "to bow to the prettiest, kneel to the wittiest, and kiss the one he loves best." The last was sometimes a little embarrassing, as the debtor might not like to make public his sentiments, and if he chose, managed to conceal them by approaching indifferently the two who sat nearest for the honors. Then it was tantalizing, and so meant to be when imposed, as being sure that neither his sweetheart nor any other near her age would allow him to make payment in that wise, and so he took his kiss from one of the little girls. Yet, not always, unless he was near grown and was somewhat of a favorite among the younger sort. A half-grown boy's advances were not seldom met with the turning her lips away or covering them with her hands by the child he thus proposed to assault; or she might be, if only 10 or 11, big enough to wish it understood that her kisses, considering it time to dispense with mere make-believes, had decided to reserve themselves for more becoming bestowal. Hearty laughs followed such discomfiture. It was also very funny and very nice, when a little girl, after suffering herself kissed by one she liked well, ran to the one whom she knew or suspected he loved best, and turned over to her what she had received, or she might bestow it mischieviously upon one who was not so known or suspected. There might be blushes of more than one sort, but the fun was cordial and loud enough to overcome all. When such a sequence of punishment was imposed upon a girl, the only hope of a boy to get a kiss was on his smallness and generally known good behavior, particularly his deportment toward girls in general.

This was one of the favorites among both sexes, especially those approaching maturity. It became so because of its freedom from boisterousness, and the opportunities it afforded for wit and humor, not counting out those for delicate hintings of serious intents and hopes on the part of individuals who indulged ideas of turning from childish things, and passing to housekeeping.

King and Queen.—This was not often played and never in its entirety by both sexes together. Two chairs were placed near one of the walls at a distance of the breadth of another between them. The whole was covered with a sheet or counterpane, and the king and the queen occupied the chairs, arranging the covering so as to make believe there was a seat between them. Attendants were on hand to introduce strangers and subjects expressing a wish to be made known to their majesties, who, on a holiday occasion, graciously condescended to give temporary occupancy of the seat between them. Upon introduction and invitation, the one presented, with humble thankfulness, turned and seated himself. At that instant the sovereigns rose simultaneously and the guest fell to the floor. The play was indulged only when a boy present had not been made acquainted with the trick, or so pretended in order that he might be the principal figure in the denouement.

It is probable that the play thus rendered was of recent origin, differing widely

from another of the same name recorded in English books, which was as follows, taken from Mrs. Valentine's work:

"The company sit in two rows facing each other. There must be an even number, as 6, 8, 10, or 12. One row personates a range of gentlemen with a king sitting at the end. The opposite row is to consist of ladies, she at the end being queen. The king numbers all the gentlemen 1, 2, 3, 4, and they remember their number. The queen numbers the ladies, but all their numbers must be different from those of the gentlemen; for instance, if the gentlemen are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, the ladies must be 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. When all is arranged, the king and queen each call out a number. If the king calls No. 2, he who bears that title must start up and run all around the company. The queen must at the same time call out one of her ladies, for instance, No. 8, and the lady must pursue the gentleman all around. If she catches him before he gets to the king he pays a forfeit. They then resume their seats, and it is the queen's turn to call first. She may call No. 10 and the king No. 4. The gentleman now pursues the lady, and if he catches her before she gets to the queen she pays a forfeit. Sometimes in this play all the odd numbers, 1, 3, 5, 7, are allotted to the gentlemen and the even numbers, 2, 4, 6, 8, are given to the ladies."

Consequences.—Not often others than grown or nearly grown persons, male and female, together played at this.

A leaf of foolscap paper was cut lengthwise about 5 or 6 inches in width so as to be easily folded. The first one to whom it was handed wrote, so as not to be seen by any other, the name of a gentleman. Carefully folding underneath, it was then passed to the second, who wrote the name of a lady. After like disposal, the others, one by one, wrote brief sentences concerning relative situations and talks between the parties. The first, usually, was telling where they first met, followed by what he said to her, what she said to him, what the world said about them, and so on to the last, who told the consequences. This was quite a popular play. Incongruities, mostly absurd as possible, running through the history were often very humorous. Say the page ran thus:

James Reeder.
Susan Reynolds.
They met in a brier patch.
He said "Did you all have waffles for breakfast?"
"I'll think of your proposal, and answer definitely later."
"It's some cooler than it was yesterday."
"You are very much mistaken."
"You are handsomer than I was told."
"How this world is given to lying!"
"The world said, 'She might do well, and then again she mightn't.'"
Consequences: "A great deal of talk, but no cider."

Fishing.—In this play one, say a girl, stood in the floor holding a handkerchief by a corner, and bobbed it up and down as a fisherman does with hook and line. The others, fishes for the time being, went up and timidly touched the lower corner between thumb and finger. If he were not the one for whom she was specially angling, she jerked it away, and his disappointment, real or feigned, always begat merriment. When the favored boy bit she let the handkerchief fall into his hands and, if he were not too big, gave him a kiss. Then he whispered in her ear the name of the fish he would select. This afforded much fun for the girls and little boys, the latter especially, because of the kisses they got from the grown girls, whom they would have preferred to girls of their own age, even if these had consented. What fun to the large boys was the witness of others' disappointment at denials. In this all the girls, big and little, heartily participated, as well as the teasing of the big by the little boys with words pretendingly compassionate, as that if they only knew or even dreamed of what they had missed they would look even more sorrowful than they looked already. A play so near being one-sided the large

boys ere long urged to be changed to another that was more general in dispensing enjoyment.

The foregoing constitute the principal games or, as they were almost always called, "plays" that obtained among the youth of the simple people. Those of higher-sounding names, such as "The bells of London," "The Prussian exercise," "Dressing the lady," "The throne of compliments," and their likes in the old country were unknown to them; nor were such as dominoes, games with historical cards, educational toys, croquet, calisthenics, charades, enigmas, rebuses. The pleasure gotten from those in their circle was abundantly sufficient. Set evening parties were not very frequent, because of the inconvenience of carrying and fetching the guests at night and the necessary lateness of the hours of retirement of these and the families at home. Yet when come to marriageable age they were frequent enough. The hour of assembling was "candle light," and they seldom lasted as long as 10 o'clock, an hour later than usual bedtime. In the frequent dinings, or rather "spending-the-days," children had other lesser reunions. Added to this they were sometimes allowed to "go home" with one another for a night during the period of school time.

Singing schools.—A much-favored occasion for the meeting of youths of both sexes was at singing schools.

Instrumental music during this period may as well be said to have been none or thereabout. It was before the time of the piano. Both the ruling religious denominations, in their proscription of the dance, virtually included the fiddle, its chief inspirer and indispensable concomitant. Now and then one got him a flute, but the emotion produced by the flute played by itself without other accompaniment, even when at its best, is rather negative, of a kind that suggests, even appears to yearn for something better. Of course it did never come to its best in such a society, or anywhere within the neighborhood of it. The face of a flutist and the attitude of his upper limbs at first view seem rather pathetic, from the sad drooping of the former and the apparent beseeching of the latter. These, when the sounds produced by them are common and less than common, might excite compassion except from the fact that sense of the ridiculous gets in before it and keeps it out. Many a man and many a woman, good and pious as any, regretted that their church discipline imposed silence upon the fiddle, yet they honorably held to observance of the precept to abstain from anything likely or decided to be likely to cause others to offend. And so that rural people could not but content themselves with such music as was poured from their own and other singers' throats, and a heartier and more spirit comforting has seldom been heard in castle or palace than in country meetinghouse and cottage. In earliest years children learned from their mothers hymns and ballad songs, which were sung often with marvelous melodiousness.

Singing schools became notable institutions, being greater favorites in inverse ratio to the amount of culture in the community. Often, however, young persons, male and female, of the better sort, attended but mainly for the sake of a morning or afternoon's recreation and willingness to help the teacher in eking out his precarious livelihood. The singing-school teacher, like the old-field schoolmaster, was unique, unpractical, and generally unfit for other employment. He made up his classes in communities extending over perhaps two or three counties, giving weekly or semiweekly lessons, twenty-four in number, at a dollar for each pupil. These were usually at the church or the schoolhouse. The pupils, of whatever ages and numbers, were all put into one class and drilled in what most of them already knew, the hymns contained in the hymn books. It was of some advantage, of course, to get the rudiments of singing by the four notes then used—mi, fa, sol, la, and to have the voice strengthened by singing in chorus; and these were about all. Trifling as the tuition fee was, it paid reasonably well for the average education gotten by it.

It was amusing to note the exalted ideas held by the teacher of the greatness of his art, evinced by the solemn circumstantiality of his announcements and directions as, with both hands high lifted, working up and down, he walked or rather

marched alternately before his three sections, treble, tenor, and bass. In the intervals, after mopping his face with his handkerchief, with ever-smiling countenance, he commented upon the last performance, expressing delight at the rapidity with which everybody was improving. There were always one or two who had no more of voice or ear for music than a calf or a handsaw. It might be a boy of 14 with what they called his "goslin squeal" on him, or one born without an atom of music in his soul. Yet it would not have suited in any sort of wise to scold or severely criticise. He might get a friendly request to try to "pearten up" a little on his A's or his D's, so he could be "unanimous" with the rest on the last note. Ludicrous to the last degree were the efforts of such a singer, mostly serious yet occasionally out of pure desperate fun, to make satisfactory compliance with this request. At such times, of those who understood their business some would frown and stick their fingers in their ears, or pause for a few shakes of irrepressible silent laughter with handkerchiefs stuffed into their throats, but afterwards, intent upon decorum, make up by yet higher and more gushing strains.

Not every teacher was himself possessed of voice suited to good singing. Educated musicians recognize of course that this is not at all essential to competent teaching. Yet on one occasion it served the purpose of a plea to an action in one of the courts of the State. This case used to be rehearsed with much humor many years ago in a company of gentlemen by Joseph Henry Lumpkin, late chief justice of the supreme court.

It was thus: An old gentleman, close, yet meaning to be honest in all his ways of saving and increasing his very moderate estate, was persuaded, much against his will and judgment, by three of his children, to let them enter a singing school. They were supported by their mother, a faithful church member, who took it much to heart that not even a simple hymn could be decently sung by a single member of the family. The father maintained that singing was not in the family at the start, and in his opinion if it wasn't in them then it could never get there afterwards. But he was prevailed upon, and the children punctually attended every lesson, from beginning to end of the term, when, as the father contended, and the poor mother had to admit, that, if anything, singing was farther off from that family than ever before, and he flatly refused to pay the teacher's bill of $3. To the latter's threats to sue, he answered that he might sue and welcome, just as soon as it suited him. Action was speedily brought in the court of the district justice of the peace. It seems almost a pity that not more of the rulings of those old-time judicial magistrates were handed down. Their jurisdiction on money claims extended to $30, and issues of fact were decided by a jury of five. The office, somewhat like that of the schoolmaster, was sought by none except from that sort who were unfit for any other calling, and whose love of notoriety was quite above their learning and capacity. It was often amusing to see what turn the judicial mind sometimes felt itself called on to take. In this particular case the defendant was aided by a young man who at odd times was reading Blackstone's Commentaries with some hope of being a lawyer. Such men, or any others, could practice in justices' courts without license. This one put in a plea of "failure of consideration," in that the services rendered by the plaintiff were wholly without value to the defendant, and because the said plaintiff did not do and was not competent to do himself what he undertook and promised to teach others to do; that he did not teach defendant's children to sing, and could not do so because he knew not how to sing himself.

The plaintiff proved his case by several witnesses and submitted to the court. Defendant's counsel, in his opening speech, announced that maxim in the law requiring that in all issues of fact the very best evidence possible to be obtained should be adduced. His honor was assured that that long-established dictum was well known to all courts, including the honorable court before which he now stood. Then in proof, in best proof, of the justice of the defendant's plea, counsel would respectfully claim that the plaintiff be required by the honorable court to sing, if

he could, any song that he might choose to undertake. The plaintiff seemed appalled and disgusted, and the bystanders looked at one another, silently asking if such as that was so or not so. After revolving the subject for a few minutes with solemnest, severest scrutiny, plaintiff was ordered to rise and do his best. In vain he pleaded to be excused, on one and another ground—absence of all expectation, incipience of cold, matter of his singing having nothing to do in the case, etc. Yet not daring to disobey the order, he lifted up what voice he had and began. Before he had gotten through the first stanza the court, putting one hand upon his ear, and with the other taking up his pen for the entry on his docket, said mournfully yet firmly:

"That'll do. For the good Lord's sake, that'll do! The plaintiff has proved the case against his own self, and he is onsuited."

SUNDAY MEETING DAYS.

The longer a man reflects upon it the more just and reasonable seems the remark of a great divine (Dr. Chalmers, if rightly remembered), that the vices springing out of a single campaign of a great army are more numerous than those from all other sources during a whole generation. In the beginning of war prayerful persons, including many who are not so, become more instant and earnest in invocations to the Deity to forefend or to shorten and mitigate apprehended disasters. As the struggle goes on and becomes intensified with suffering of various sorts, those least steadfast begin to suspect that Heaven either hears not or regards not their beseechings; and so the temptation is either to doubt the existence of any Almighty Power that takes cognizance of human affairs, or to regard it as hostile or at least indifferent. And so in time, growing desperate, they become prone to indulgence of natural evil proclivities. Such is the case after long-continued devouring pestilences. Witness the plague in Florence in the period from 1328 out of whose desolation Boccaccio picked materials for the Decamerone. The war of Independence ended in the attainment of that for which it was waged, but it led to much license in moral conduct and indifference to religious obligations throughout the whole country. The duello for a time was frequent, as well on Boston Common as at Bladensburg and grounds farther South. Trust in an Almighty Being and Its merciful heed to continued humble supplication yet remained among women, but men in general in this region, so distant from enlightened centers, were sadly indifferent in the matter of religious opinions and practices. In this state of things rose a set of young men, sons of devout women, whose mission, despite some extravagances natural to existing conditions, wrought speedy salutary changes.

One thing that made the endeavors of those uncultured clergymen more efficacious was the partisan zeal with which they combated in support of their several forms of religious faith and dogma. In the absence of those of the Church of England,[1]

[1] Hostility to the British Government naturally involved the like to the Established Church. Of the few clergymen within the Province, supported as they had been by the Society for Propagating the Gospel in Forign Parts, some withdrew. In the convention of February, 1777, wherein the first constitution of the State of Georgia was ratified, one of the articles made clergymen ineligible to the legislature, another changed the names of the old parishes. The following is taken from Stevens's History of Georgia, Vol. II, p. 299: "The old parish of Christ Church, in which was Savannah, and a part of the parish of St. Philip were set off as a new county and called Chatham, in honor of the elder Pitt, the venerable Earl of Chatham. The parishes of St. David and St. Patrick were created into one county and called Glynn, after the eminent counselor of that name. The parishes of St. Matthew and the upper part of St. Philip were to be known by the name of Effingham, after Lord Effingham, who had refused to employ his sword against the Americans, and resigned the colonelcy of the Twenty-second Regiment rather than serve with it in the war of the Revolution. To the parish of St. Paul, in which Augusta was situated, was given the name of Richmond, in honor of the Duke of Richmond, who had boldly advocated the cause of America in the House of Lords. The parish of St. George was named Burke, after that great commoner and wise statesman. The parishes of St. John, St. Andrew, and St. James were to form one county, under the name of Liberty, a distinction awarded to the parish of St. John for its early and steady devotion to the cause of freedom. The parishes of St. Thomas and St. Mary were to constitute another county, by the name of Camden, after the distinguished lord chancellor of England and firm friend of America.

Baptists and Methodists strenuously sought to establish each their own, the former wholly independent of the mother church, the other at first claiming to be a society within its fold instituted for the purpose of developing a more fervent devoutness than that which had seemed to become habitual not only among the laity but the priesthood. The Methodists at that time, following the example and the words of Wesley, claimed to be not a church, but a society in the old church. The disputations between the two denominations were often quite acrimonious; occasionally, when conducted by men of unusually limited education and understanding, quite ridiculous. Yet among the leaders were a few men of large abilities, as Lovick Pierce, Hope Hull, and Bishop Andrew of the Methodists, and Jesse Mercer and the Marshalls among the Baptists. In these disputations, wherein examples of pious living were necessary to the most earnest and eloquent argumentation each must so ordinate its discipline as to advance its claim to be fashioned by that set up by the disciples of our Lord. They thus became, as it were, rivals in denunciating certain habits and customs which of old time were regarded, if not entirely innocent, at least venial. But now such as dancing, card playing, horse racing, even moderate use of what they called "cuss words" were branded as moral sins, whose last end was subjection to endless fire and brimstone.

In none of this warfare was a spirit of cant. Clergymen of both parties were men who, of whatever degree of fitness for public preaching, led upright lives, earnestly desiring the weal of others and honestly believing their teachings to be in accord with the will and the instructions of the Master whom they strove to serve with all their heart. From such endeavors, helped on by such examples, blessing must always come. They served at least to moderate excesses, and, what was more, to crush out the infidelity which, among other misfortunes, the war had produced. In that later generation, if any at all, might be counted on one's fingers the number of those who did not believe in God and the incarnation of Christ.

Public religious services were held only once a month, on a stated Sunday, prefatory to which, on the day previous, church members were expected to meet their pastor at the church. After a sermon he descended from the pulpit, took a chair at its base, and, not as pastor but as presiding officer (styled moderator) of the monthly conference, called the members to order for the transaction of business. This consisted mainly in the hearing and settling of misunderstandings between individuals of the congregation, reception of new members, examination of charges against delinquents, expulsions when found guilty of conduct unchristian or otherwise violative of denominational rules. These were Baptists, who in rural districts far outnumbered the Methodists, although the latter had corresponding advantage in villages.

It was curious the variety of issues that were discussed in this Saturday conference. The denomination believed literally in the injunction against Christians going to law with one another for the settlement of business disputes, and while they did not inquire officially or interfere in those in families, yet they did not hesitate to act upon them when brought to their notice by an individual party. Even a husband or a wife was liable to be summoned, provided (otherwise not) they were both church members. Every separate congregation was an entirely independent body, and democratic in its constitution. The pastor had no power except as presiding officer. Questions were decided by vote of the male members, which in some cases, particularly in the admission of new members, must be unanimous. In cases more than ordinarily difficult of settlement, invitations were extended to other congregations to send delegates to assist in the discussion, but these were advisory only and not allowed to vote. In one of the old counties was a case of this kind, where the preliminary issue was whether a witness who was not a church member, however credible and otherwise competent, should be allowed to testify for or against one who was. After repeated meetings of conference, some of which were extended to four or five hours, and assisted by delegates from sister churches, it was decided

in the negative. The main issue was between a mother-in-law and a daughter-in-law. Another was of an old husband, for many years a leading member, who instituted a charge of disobedience against his old wife because, contrary to the express injunctions of the Apostle Paul upon all wives, she had flatly refused at his orders to break away from the home whereat they had lived in reasonable contentment for fifty years and follow after him, who had lately taken up the resolve to move into another county. The issue, through management of the most thoughtful among the members, was not allowed to come to trial, the complainant being dissuaded from his unreasonable demands.

Singular as this court was, sometimes rather laughable for the eccentricities in both trials and judgments, it settled many disputes that otherwise might have been prolonged and ended in unhappy results. It served to make parties to business transactions more fair and circumspect, and it further served to render less wide open (occasionally to shut) the mouths of the gossip and the busybody. Young members, who were in attendance because, rather than for better reasons, they were obliged to be at roll call or render a satisfactory excuse a month hence, used to have their patience sorely tried at what to them seemed useless discussions, which their elders thought well often to prolong until the fast-descending sun gave warning that dusk was near at hand. Some of the women, young and old, although without vote or speech unless when called upon to defend themselves or testify for others, rather liked them, as it was the only opportunity extended to them of listening to speechifying of other sort than a sermon.

But Sundays! Few scenes were more interesting than gatherings on Sunday meeting days. Persons dwelling within a circle of 6 and 7 miles' radius were sure to attend unless prevented by providential or other insurmountable hindrances—men, women, children, nursing babies, all. The few who owned family carriages put their wives and youngest children in them; the same with gigs and other humble vehicles drawn by one horse. Fathers and grown-up sons and daughters traveled on horseback. Those without any of these went on foot. But this was almost never. Carriage horses, gig horses, saddle horses, plow horses, mares with young colts, and mules bore the throngs along the highways, whose clouds of red dust in summer time busied fans all the day and brushes for many minutes after the return home. Almost none would have been content to be left out of these monthly processions. Even the colts and mules exhibited much interest, the former in dashing along in all conjunctions with the grown-up horses, while their dams kept up unremitting whickerings in apprehension of harm to their reckless coursings, and in occasional answering to the call, giving signs of wishing to take brief luncheons, and then, finding things not ready, dashing off again, never with idea as to whither their legs would take them; and the mules, eternally braying, their sorrowful complainings sounding as if they were inquiring what was the purpose of all this ado, and what, if anything, was to come of it. It was a sight to move a good man's heart to see the shifts that the humblest had to make to avoid being cut out of enjoyment of the sweets of this, which, no matter of what color the others, was a white day in the month. Good women, of whatever degree of property, would have felt keenly the hardship of compulsory detention at home by young children or other hindrances. Often a family of several made the trip in this wise: On the back of a mare, followed by her colt, rode the head of the family; on the pommel of the saddle, his hands holding to the mane, rode the youngest but one; behind, on the saddle blanket, rode the next older. On another mare, accompanied by her offspring, sat the wife; alternately on her knee and her arm was the latest born, and behind was the oldest of the four, boy or girl, as (in the language of the law) the case might be. Bound to get to meeting somehow, they were thankful for this in absence of more convenient and showy conveyance. No housewife was without one nice gown and fit accompaniments for the occasion. Perhaps a majority owned at least one black silk, whose service was extended through many seasons. This "Sunday

frock," no sooner had the wearer returned home, was removed, carefully dusted, scrupulously folded, and tenderly laid in a chest, wherein, from time to time, were sprinkled fresh layers of rose petals, leaves of apple, thyme, and lavender. Its companions were a glistening pair of prunellas, wrapped in soft paper, the long white embroidered cape, a tortoise-shell comb, elaborately hemstitched handkerchiefs, starched petticoats, "bought" stockings, gloves, and ribbons. On a shelf, high above, a bandbox held the leghorn bonnet or green calash, resting upon which was a fan made from a turkey tail or two wings of the white heron. There these dwelt in silence until the next meeting day in course.

Arrived at the meetinghouse, with its oak grove of several acres spotted with horse blocks for convenience of feminine equestrians, all alighted, fastened their beasts, and then in twos or more made for the spring at the foot of the hill. By the time of returning, the preacher entered the house followed by the others. On one side of the long, broad middle aisle, to which two others somewhat narrower ran parallel, sat the women, the men on the other. Very young boy children were allowed to sit with their mothers for the sake of more efficient care of them when overtaken by somnolence during the invariably long sermon. Nursing children were usually kept by their nurses outside in the shadow of the trees, but were brought in without hesitation to their mothers when in need of nourishment. The cry of one of them in church occasioned no surprise and little discomfort, as it was only a brief while till the mother rose, or the listening nurse came in and took it away.

The congregation diminished in devotional feeling with the increase of distance from the pulpit. If the younger and more volatile was a boy, the more he was apt to make for a back seat, unless forewarned against it by parents. There they could ogle their sweethearts, take naps in less notice, and in waking moments seek immortality, at least for the initials of their names, by cutting them on the benches. Singing was always by the congregation, the clergyman lining the hymns. Indistinctness of hearing the words made little impediment to the heartiness with which they were sung. Of singing that inspired the heart, it is not often that one was sounded more genuinely sweet and musical than this. Enjoyment was so heartfelt that more often than otherwise the two concluding lines of the last stanza were repeated. One who has long survived such scenes recalls them with much fondness; sights and sounds, gentle waving of fans and handkerchiefs, humble, fervent prayers, sermons long, yet burning with unction, songs in multitudinous chorus of spirit and understanding, among smells wafted from simply perfumed vestments all whose exquisite sweetness, seemingly a part of the worship of the Almighty, passed with his youth to return no more.

It is no less than wonder to recall the benign results of these meetings conducted by unlettered men, most of them planters. Some of these, although not scholarly, were of excellent understanding. Because of this, and their good reputation and influence, they were chosen by their denominations, and the choice was ratified, inasmuch that almost always without exception the leaders fully trusted that the "calls" which they claimed to have gotten from divine sources were sent. Yet occasionally was a curious specimen, so much so as left many to suspect that those calls to which they responded so promptly were intended for somebody else. Those men could manage to string along scripture texts and common platitudes through an hour, and an hour and a quarter, and then backdown with apparent regret that their voices and physical strength and the attention of their hearers forbade further elaboration of the heavenly delightful theme. Some of such men, to the last degree upright in character and blameless in deportment, wholly unconscious of their unfitness for expounding the Holy Scriptures, held on through periods of thirty, forty, fifty years, delivering about the same sermon on texts extending from the beginning of Genesis to the end of Revelations. In those periods thousands on thousands were brought into the Church, to live thereafter lives as free from reproach as could be found anywhere. Every congregation of course had its own pastor, who

generally served as many as four, giving to each one Sunday and the foregoing Saturday. The pecuniary compensation paid for such service was surprisingly small. Sometimes the clergymen were possessed of more means, as they were more intelligent than their flocks. Such men expected little if any compensation, and no assessment was had in any case; members when contributing at all doing so according to their several degrees of liberality and sense of proper obligation. The lesser lights who had no stated engagements, at intervals, when the work on their little farms did not overpress, took their jades from the plow, and, sending to the denominational weekly paper lists of appointments, were wont to sally forth on a fortnight's missionary tour, taking in besides meetinghouses a few of those of prominent brethren along the way. During this journey, in which they never would have been allowed to pay out a cent if they had had one in their pockets on leaving home, small sums at each meeting were silently made up, garments newly made of domestic produce and manufacture, amounting to full suits, were bestowed by good women, their beasts got shoeing and were well fed and cared for generally, and both were happy and thankful when, with their several accretions of fat and sleek, they got back home again.

Yet, however interesting these public exercises were to most of the congregation, with the younger sort they did not equal the scenes to take place when they were over and the congregation dismissed. It was many minutes before began dispersion. Men, more especially women, who dwelt so far apart as to meet only on these occasions, lingered to shake hands, ask and answer questions about family and neighborhood happenings, exchange congratulations of babies' looks, commendations of their behavior during the services, or excuses and apologies when it had not been of the best. Yet beyond these were the opportunities, the very best of all, for courtships. Rapid and animated were the rivalries among young men and boys to become escorts of girls on the return. Permission if not granted before was quickly begged at the door. Seldom a girl rode back with her father or mother or brother. Another, a declared beau, or not, went for her and his own nags, with which, meeting her at one of the horse blocks, seating her, and mounting his own, together they started on the ride to her home, he always on the left, she on the right. The gait at which travel was made depended in some measure on the interest she felt in his society. They looked their best and had on their best things. It would have been gross neglect of hospitable duty on reaching her home not to invite the escort to alight and remain for dinner. It is probable that a majority of marriage engagements in rural regions three-quarters of a century ago dated from those horseback rides in couples on Sunday meeting days. In such courtships, ardent as brief, brief as ardent, lovers had the advantage which some critics ascribe to Romeo in his suit to Juliet in that the latter was not his first love. The argument is that the conquest of Juliet so quickly after first sight and approach might have subtracted from our respect for her delicacy in being too easily won. To prevent this Shakespeare gave to Romeo an experience which was of infinite service in his present suit; this was to make him in love first with Rosaline, in pursuit of whom he had learned what of courtly words and manners do not suit, and striven to acquire those that do. After Rosaline was lost he knew better, than without her help he would have known, how to woo the daughter of Capulet.

Whatever was of importance in such preliminaries, an old-time Georgia boy not more than one in a hundred times was without them. At 13 or 14, sometimes less, he imagined himself in love, and it was nearly always with a female already marriagable. As he grew older, and at a rate whose slowness was disgusting to himself, his aspirations became more reasonable, and he studied carefully how to talk and behave, when in fit season he became a lover in earnest. Along highways leading between those country meetinghouses and the homes of marriagable girls, lovers through several generations of long ago told their passion and pleaded their pleas. Their language was not gotten from Shakespeare and Spenser, with whom they had

not made acquaintance, but many a tender morsel from the Mysteries of Udolpho and Children of the Abbey was rolled under and from the tongue. Those to whom they were addressed listened with smiles, never with chiding, and not often with answer in kindred phrase. If this did not win in one case it was sure, unless too oddly and inaptly mixed, to win somewhere else. Ludicrous to the last degree as some of these courtships were, they abounded not less in heartiness; and whatever the results were to be, prompt were the announcements. Such things as unnecessary delays suited no occasion, either in business engrossments or in romance.

Among a people whose educational opportunities and the periods of using them were within such narrow limitations early marriages must prevail. Two or three years' schooling, strung along as it usually was in several installments through five and six, was, in general, the limit. After this boys of 17 and 18 and girls of 14 and 15 went to steady work on their several lines. By the time the former reached legal majority they were either married or, as was generally decided, they ought to be before very long. By this time, often two or three years before, that matter, provided parents assented, had been settled. Indeed, silent understandings to mate were often had during school time between lads of 15 and lasses a little younger. Every boy and girl within a narrow circle knew every girl and boy therein and none besides, and so their mating, like birds in the wood, began with attainment of puberty; and all, of whatever property condition, must have public solemnization. None other than runaway matches took place at other hour than candlelight. Cards of invitation were never or rarely ever issued. When the date was agreed upon (almost always a Tuesday or a Thursday), it became known to everybody in the neighborhood in a day or two, and the bride's father or mother, on occasions of meeting such of their acquaintances as they wished to attend, gave verbal invitations that often included the whole family. From the date of the engagement to this the interval was brief. The universal sentiment of the community favored this. "If you are going to marry, marry," were the words of friends and relations, even parents, with additions such as these: "Don't be dangling along until people get tired of talking about you, and you get tired of talking about yourselves and each other." The bridegroom was always for an early day. To the bride it often seemed more delicate to have to be persuaded. With all of the romance, all, old and young, recognized the seriousness of the business part, for the couple, no matter in what condition born and reared, were expected after thirty-six hours to go to work like other people.

The wedding.—Before sunset guests commenced to assemble. Ladies after alighting went into the house, and some busied themselves with assisting the bride to robe and the mother in preparing the supper table. The men, after tying their horses to horseshoes, swinging limbs of trees, and fence corners, assembled in the front yard and discussed neighborhood topics and the prospects of the couple. Lighting of candles was the signal that the great eventful moment was approaching. Outsiders hurried in without delay, each with aim to get as nigh the couple as possible, with special intent to see how the bride was standing the "racket." Of course they were sure the bridegroom was all right, and, as they often expressed it, "bold as a sheep." The first to enter were two little girls bearing candles in candlesticks burnished to all possible brightness. These were for the preacher to read clearly the license authorizing his part of the business. As they approached they separated, turned, and he rose and stood between them. The ceremony was brief in the midst of solemnity as profound as that at a funeral. At the close the preacher bestowed a few words of counsel, generally, if he were not wholly without humor, ending about thus: "There are two times when a married woman ought to stay at home; one is when her husband is away from home." Waiting a moment or so for her to take this all in, he added: "The other is when her husband is at home." Then rose laughter from all mouths, for the jeu d'esprit, although old as the oldest, was ever new for the many things it was meant to let go. All, oldest and youngest, highest and humblest, shook hands

and spoke hearty congratulations. When these, over and over again repeated, were passed, then the supper. From houses miles and miles around had been borrowed knives and forks, glasses and crockery, chairs, and syllabub stands. If tables could groan, as some poet imagined, the grief of those beneath old-time wedding suppers must have been wholly disconsolate what time they were made to stand and endure. The strongest (indeed, if it could be called strong) drink was syllabub, a froth made of sweet wine and whipped white of eggs. With those experienced in grog and sweetened dram, it required tumblers on tumblers to help down the quantities on quantities of good eatables. At furthest, by 10 o'clock guests were departed, and in a few minutes longer the family, with its new addition, retired.

Yet, in all this gay assemblage of country folk usually, at least quite often, there was one whose feeling it was touching to note, one who not always, indeed who rather seldom, appeared elsewhere than in the dining room, and not always there, unless there were not another on whom with entire trust she could devolve superintendence. To her the loud, merry chattings and laughter imparted sadness whose relief was silent prayer and tears. Consent to the match, however unreserved, hopes for the bride, however abounding, her prospects however bright in the seeming, the addition of the bridegroom, however welcome, were not enough for the mother in the beginning of that period of change and separation. It was inevitable, yet upon the goer and her new guide it was a benediction.

Infare.—Next day came the infare, dining (if not at convenient distance apart) of both families together at the house of the bridegroom's parents. It was pleasant to note the ideas of the complete coalescence of the two young persons united in one according to the laws of the Creator and the State. That the union was to continue throughout their joint life none ever had a doubt, for this was regarded as one life, ever inseparable except by the hand of Him who had ratified and consecrated it. There is yet, here and there, living a man or woman who remembers the first libel (as the suit was named in the laws) for divorce in the State, and the sentiment of awe and repugnance with which its publication was met by all classes. It was brought in another portion of the State, and even to this date has had few successors in middle Georgia.

After the infare the newly married were expected to repair to the home provided for them. Henceforth the wife wore upon her head a white cap, both abroad and at home. Almost without variation her domestic work was inaugurated by cutting and making, without assistance from any other, a shirt for her husband. Any bride, however young, would have felt ashamed of incompetence for this task, preliminary to the others to come in married existence.

In this and the foregoing chapter the writer has endeavored to give sketches, as faithful as possible, from his own and his elders' reminiscences of the early school and vacation life of boyhood and girlhood in middle Georgia, and of their passing into manhood and womanhood, to be speedily followed by marriage. Brief and simple as were the preliminaries to this last consummation, it was done with sense of all its responsibility and the vicissitudes to be strewn along the unseen way before those who, with joined hands, were starting upon it, yet in cheerful hope of obtaining the goods allowed to be expected by the upright and industrious.

II.—Academies.

The period from the old to the new was not long. The peculiar conditions of that early society, described in the first of this series of papers, soon made apparent to the common sort—what had been all along in the minds of the upper—that education of a higher grade than that gotten from the old-field schools must be provided for youth. The one to give embodiment to the sentiments of the people of this and all regions of the State in that behalf was a young man newly come from Connecticut, of which he was a native—Abram Baldwin. But consideration of him and his

work must be postponed to a subsequent part of this chapter, in which some account will be given of the founding of the State University. In this will be noticed the earliest academies, the rise of which was hastened by the efforts exerted by him upon a more extended field. It will appear hereafter how wise and benign were his endeavors, and that they fell short of fulfillment because of his premature death and the lack of other equally competent leadership.

At the very beginning of legislative movements toward education, movements which, as will be noted hereafter, were on the wisest, most liberal scale, the country beyond the Oconee River, the western boundary of middle Georgia, was occupied by Indians. The State was without available resources, yet, foreseeing that in time these would become vast, it began to lay foundations on which to build as these should materialize. Those movements began in 1785. The following year, at a place called Shoulderbone, in Hancock County, on the hither side of the river, a treaty was made with the Creek Indians. This did not prevent an occasional murderous irruption into that and Greene, the adjoining county. Yet, thirty years later, in 1815, an academy was incorporated in the village of Powelton, about 25 miles, and not long after another at Mount Zion, in the same county, 15 miles, east of that river. Within a short while these two academies rose to a degree of success and efficiency that in some respects have not been surpassed by any others since risen in the State. A number of planters, of well-descended ancestry in the older States, cordially joined by others who had become developed in thoughtfulness and intelligence by contact with them, having accumulated property to justify the proceeding, contributed to erect in these villages large and commodious buildings, and then, through advertising in Northern journals and by correspondence, succeeded in securing teachers of the highest degree of competence. Several of these planters, leaving their plantations to the management of supervisors, moved their residences into the villages for the greater convenience of schooling and for supplying board to the youth who, as they foresaw, would be sent from other communities.

The teachers, without exception, came from New England. More conspicuous in that regard than all others was Vermont, to which, three-quarters of a century ago, middle Georgia became bound in a debt of gratitude which it has always gratefully admitted. A series of men, all of whom, with one exception, were natives of Vermont and alumni of Middlebury College, came to these two villages wherein they put and conducted academical instruction on a scale equal to any at that period in the whole North. The one exception was Salem Town, a native of Belchertown, Mass., where he was born in 1779. For several years he was master of the Powelton Academy, which in time rose to have near 150 pupils, more in number than the inhabitants, white and black. Boys and girls in the neighborhood as far as 3 and 4 miles outward, on foot, on horseback, some in vehicles called Jersey wagons, came from home; others from distant communities in that and other counties near and remote attended as boarders. A very large number of those who afterwards rose to distinguished positions were educated by him. He was destined to become far more famous as an author. In answer to a work appearing in 1822 entitled System of Speculative Masonry, he published in 1828 Reviewed in Freemasonry, Its Pretensions Exposed, etc. During the time he remained in Powelton, he taught orally the principles which afterwards (in 1836) were published in that well-known volume, Town's Analysis of the Derivative Words in the English Language. Admission of this fact appears in the preface to the book, which has run through many, very many editions, and which is still used by many teachers. Before the publication, he returned to the North, and for forty years longer taught in the State of New York. Here he wrote and published other school books, as Grammar School Reader, a series of readers, Speller and Definer, Chart of Elementary Sounds, Speaker and Reader, and several more besides. Allibone, in his Dictionary of Authors, says: "Of the readers, more than 1,500,000, and of the Speller and Definer, nearly 150,000 copies were issued (in Boston) in three years, 1857–1860. The series is recommended

by more than 1,000 authorities." Below this occurs the following note: "Over 1,000,000 copies of Town and Holbrook's Progressive Series, published by Oliver Ellsworth, of Boston, are printed yearly." (Amer. Lit. Gaz., Sept. 15, 1864.)

In this, the first academy of much note in that region, it was remarkable the interest taken by the people without distinction of class. A society democratic from the beginning, in which the humblest were made to indulge aspirations equal to the best, came forward in support of what became soon the object of its chief pride. Treated as equals in the old-field schools, and to a degree of equality in social life, youth of both sexes changed to the academy with assurance of like enjoyment of freedom in the larger opportunities put within their reach. Even those of straitened means dwelling at a distance were able by some straining to meet the small expenses of board and tuition. The former, abundant and excellent, including lodging and laundering, was gotten for $8 and $10 a month. Tuition was $8, $12, and $16 for a term of twenty-two weeks, which was as sure to run through its whole length as the sun to continue to give his light by day. A little more than $100 would carry a pupil, even in classes most advanced, through the entire scholastic year of forty-four weeks.

It has always seemed strange, and no less unfair, that teachers in schools among modern peoples, even those most accomplished and competent, have been paid for their services fees so little when compared with those received in other professions. Certainly, the work of a capable master of a school who has been made entirely qualified for it, who well understands all of its many duties and responsibilities, and who honorably devotes himself to the performance of them, the greatest and the least, is of very highest importance, and perhaps is of all, when thus considered, the one most exhausting to health of body, mind, and spirit. A dollar a month in the old-field schools was in most cases as much as the service therein rendered was worth, and the laborer escaped such exhaustion by never overworking himself, either in the preparation or cultivation of the one little field rented to him, and by his frequent outings, when his portion of the gathered crop was unsatisfactory to the owner, and he went away in search of another. What exhaustion was in him other than that in a natural way wrought by time coexisted with the beginning of his professional career. It was not possible for him to dwindle into a smaller compass than that in which, at his start, he was inclosed. Like some insects, he was as big at his birth as he ever became afterwards.

That compensation for the services of such a man as Salem Town would seem more strangely inadequate to the work done if it had not been general throughout the whole country, and if it had not received so little increase down to this date. Workers in other professions are paid according to the comparative worth of their professional services, and the comparative importance of the ends for which they are employed, little to the untried and the ordinary, larger to the experienced and the distinguished; but teachers for the most part must be content with graded pay, beginning low, and never rising high.[1] Yet, with a community in a most fertile

[1] In ancient Athens difference between the lowest and highest grades was much. Masters of elementary schools, besides being usually regarded with little respect, were paid next to nothing, while the rhetoricians and sophists demanded large sums. In Professor Becker's Charicles occurs the following: "Advanced instruction was imparted by teachers of a higher order, the rhetoricians and sophists, whose charges only the rich could defray. Thus Aristippus demanded 1,000 drachmas (about $150 of our money) and, according to Plutarch, Isocrates required a like sum; and when Demosthenes offered him 200, with the understanding to take only a fifth part of the course, he answered: "O Demosthenes, we do not important work in pieces; as the finest fish are purchased whole, so I, if you wish to learn, must give you my full course."

That was a scene to be pictured by an artist, the poor, wheezing, stammering young Demosthenes applying for entrance into the school of the great Isocrates, whom Cicero compared to the Trojan wooden horse, because of the number of eminent Greeks it had educated and poured out upon their country, and offering a fifth part of the fees for a fifth portion of the instruction. It was, however, a pardonable departure from the usual modesty of the illustrious rhetorician in reminding the boy by answering that the best fish in the market were not cut into slices for purchasers, but sold entire.

Regarding the higher class of schools among the Romans, the same author, in Gallus, writes, "We

region, whose simple wants made comfortable living easy to be gotten, those fees were accepted by the best teachers without complaint or attempt to have them increased.

Town's successors for several years were without exception Vermonters—Baptists, and graduates of Middlebury College, Otis Smith, Lucius Whittle, and others. Of these the one to become most distinguished was the former, who was as prominent in the pulpit as at the head of the academy. Accorded the degree of doctor of divinity, he was for several years president of Mercer University, founded by the Baptists at Penfield, to which, with others of its kind, reference will be made hereafter. Lucius Whittle, perhaps as a scholar more erudite than his predecessor, unfortunately, as was believed from disappointment of his hope to marry a young lady, his countrywoman and teacher of the classes in music, partially lost his understanding, left the school and the village, wandered to the West, and was never again heard from. Then, in 1835, came in a native Georgian, Simpson Fouché, long celebrated as a teacher and disciplinarian. For, by this time, the profession under the conduct of those New Englanders had been lifted above the repugnance created by their predecessors, the old-fielders.

During all these years this school was coeducational. Boys and girls from 8 to 18 lived in the same families and recited in the same classes. In forenoons and afternoons they had their quarter of an hour's recess alternately and their separate playgrounds. Besides occasional small gatherings at private houses, not seldom one was had for all in the long music hall of the academy, sometimes given by boys and girls alternately, and sometimes by both jointly, the former contributing bonbons purchased at the stores, and girls substantials from their mothers and hostesses. Two or three Saturdays in the spring fishing excursions made up of both sexes, with one of the townswomen for matron, were made to the Ogeechee River, a mile or so distant, or they went nutting in the uncut woods or gathered berries in the fallowed fields. Despite the decay of the old village, lads and lasses yet repair to the same ground under the red oaks and hickories. The school has never had a blot upon the name it obtained and carried during the seasons of its greatest prosperity. From its foundation four score years ago, until now, when it is conducted by that excellent scholar and gentlemen, Prof. Samuel N. Chapman, it was never stained by a single scandal. Salutary have seemed always competitions among and between the two sexes. Associations permitted under guidance of a discipline which, both in school and in families, was no less prudent than generous, stimulated to emulation for highest possible development of understanding, and for practice of best deportment among gentlemen and ladies. In the State of Georgia, and in the two States, its daughters, beyond the Chattahoochee, are to-day great numbers of descendants from happy unions, first thought of which, although not often yet put in words of solemn avowal, had their beginnings in class and other reunions at this time-honored school.

About the same time, in the village of Mount Zion, 10 miles to the southwest, was begun another academy destined to become equally famous with that at Powelton, one of whose masters came to be more widely known than any other that ever taught in the State. He was Carlisle P., younger of the brothers Beman, who came to

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are not aware what the pay for tuition amounted to; at all events, it varied a good deal, and in the elementary schools was very trifling." (Juv., vii, 238.)

It appears from this satire that Quintilian, the most illustrious rhetorician of his time, received what would be about $50 or $60 of our money.

> Quintilian gets and hardly gets ten pounds,
> On education all is grudged as lost,
> And sons are still a father's lightest cost.

Of the school of the poorer Palæmon, the poet ends his compassionate words thus:

> Where ropy vapours Virgil's pages soil,
> And Horace looks one blot, all soot and oil,
> Even then, the stipend thus reduced, thus small,
> Without a lawsuit rarely comes at all.
> (Gifford's Translation.)

Mount Zion, the leading citizens of which were Presbyterians. In their native State, Vermont, they were of the denomination of Congregationalists. As there were no congregations of these anywhere near by—perhaps nowhere in the State—they became affiliated with Presbyterians, from whom they differed in nowise except in the matter of church government. The elder, Nathan, a man of highly brilliant parts, established his famous academy, but after some years returned to the North and resided for the remainder of his life in the upper portion of New York State. His second marriage was with the mother of the distinguished William L. Yancey, one of the principal leaders of the secession movement in the Southern States. The younger remained, like his brother, became a doctor of divinity, and although inferior to him as a divine, as a teacher, during more than forty years, became well known throughout the whole South. As large a number of distinguished men went out from this academy as from that in Powelton, nearly all of whom were taught by these two brothers. Carlisle for a few years was president of Oglethorpe University, founded at Midway by the Presbyterians, but, preferring to teach without superintendence of trustees, he gave up this position, for some years conducted one at Lagrange, then returned to Mount Zion, where he continued to teach until he became an old man. Wherever he went pupils followed him. His school was large when he went into retirement. Like the rest of his countrymen who remained in the State, he became entirely devoted to its interests. Their descendants fought and some of them fell in the Confederate war.

Within a few years afterwards Putnam County, immediately west from Hancock, with the Oconee River between, having been relieved of the Indians, another Vermonter and Middlebury graduate came from Brattleboro and raised to high repute an academy just founded at Eatonton, the county seat. This was Alonzo Church. He had not been there long when he was made professor of mathematics and astronomy in the State University, afterwards its president, and so continued for thirty-five years, at the end of which advanced age and infirm health led him to resign. He was a man of commanding presence and courtly manners. He and his family were perhaps most efficacious of all in that beautiful town of Athens in imparting to its society a tone which was not surpassed by that of any village in the whole South. Its influence extended far and wide, particularly throughout the adjacent counties of middle Georgia.

Yet later, about the year 1833, two academies for girls were founded and became justly famous, that of Sereno Taylor, another Vermonter, at Sparta, the county seat of Hancock, and that of Miss Brackett, a lady from Massachusetts, at Washington, the county seat of Wilkes. To these noted schools large numbers of girls came, not only from that and many other counties in the State, but from Alabama and Mississippi. Unfortunately, both of these institutions when at their highest suffered sorely from the departure of their principals—Mr. Taylor, from the pressure of debts contracted by too large expenditures in behalf of his academy, and Miss Brackett by marriage with Dr. Adams, a well-known Presbyterian divine, of Massachusetts. Neither of these schools were ever able to maintain afterwards the reputation and patronage before held by them.

A rather curious circumstance served to weaken the hold of Mr. Taylor, particularly among the patrons near by, and it is another illustration of the hostility felt by both of the leading religious denominations for one musical instrument in particular. The organ, the piano, the harp, and the seraphine had reasonably cordial welcome in the schools, and the piano in families. But the violin continued to be feared as before when the Baptist and Methodist divines first began to cry out against dancing, a sin which this instrument was suspected to have been devised by the evil spirit to encourage. Mr. Taylor, whose appointments in music, judging from the number of excellent pianists who were educated therein, were perhaps more complete than those of any other school in the State, then and afterwards set high importance upon the violin, which, although a Baptist clergyman, he himself played at his concerts, occasionally taking it with him even to the Baptist Church on Sunday

mornings when he was to preach. The members, few in numbers, while all of them did not approve, made little complaint, for the music was wholly of a devotional kind and of high excellence. Yet several rural denominations expressed serious objections, and one day a committee from some of them called at the academy and respectfully, yet seriously, remonstrated with the principal. He listened to their admonitions with his well-known amiability, made no promises, and when they were gone continued to do as he had done before. A rather unpractical person in matters of business, the houses he built, the high salaries he paid to his assistants, and the numbers of musical instruments he purchased involved him in financial trouble, and the property holders of his own religious faith declining to come to his aid, he was obliged to suspend.

Discipline in the academies of Powelton and Mount Zion in the case of girls, although firm and exacting, was regulated by moderation. The spirit of good ladyhood, with constant prudent oversight both of parent and teacher, aided by instinctive delicacy in shrinking from merited public exposure and censure, served to restrain the willful and excite even the indolent to emulation. The same can not be said in the case of boys. Rigor in the old fields, hard as it was sometimes, yet had intervals of respite, partly from caprice, partly from general senselessness and lack of earnestness in its inflictions, and partly from weariness in punishing, with seldom a pulsation of passion or principle, or recognition of need of its unresting continuance. But in those academies, notably at Mount Zion, Discipline (it merits a capital letter) in full armor strode along, never resting, never hasting, as Goethe says, "like a star." To boys from 8 years to any number under legal majority, rules, and they were not very unreasonable, were put, punishment for violations of which when detected were as sure as from the unalterable laws of the Medes and Persians. The ferule disappeared except for an accidental mild application upon the palms of little girls. But the hickory, long, sinewy, solid, keen, and wiry, was plied with vigor, understood to mean that this operation was one of pure, dutiful, solemn, indispensable business, omission or abatement of which was never to be thought of. It was meant to hurt the outside primarily, but also to push its way inside through thick and thin to whatever was or could be made sensitive to pain in the interior. Resistance was seldom offered, even by the biggest and most daring. Those masters were as intrepid as they were resolute in discharge of every tittle of what they regarded a duty which no brave, honorable man could shrink from. Besides, as in the older schools, they were sustained by parents, guardians, and the whole public. Many a youth of 17 and 18 was sent there mainly for the discipline, which was reputed to be stricter and stronger than that which he had been able to resist or parry elsewhere. Expulsions and withdrawals were almost none. The hickory was trusted to be better and more benign than the former, and when a boy betook himself away without leave and was brought back by his father its application was doubled, for the first offense and for the last. In a village with fewer inhabitants than students, this discipline was deemed necessary to extend itself outside the academy. The system tended doubtless to produce, by provoking it, unlicensed behavior, especially under cover of night. It was always surprising how little of this escaped detection, sometimes even in the midst of its perpetration. Those New Englanders seemed to have made a study of schoolboys, and found them out through and through. It was said that hardly ever a student was found able to withstand Dr. Beman's searching examinations. Not that the mischief done was of a kind base or malevolent. It might be a game of playing cards, moderate circulating of a flask of whisky, lifting a vehicle from its running gear, a gate from its hinges, or a brace of fowls from the roost. Of these the one first named seemed to be regarded most atrocious. It seems now almost incredible how condignly this game was condemned by many, even intelligent and thoughtful persons. Struggling for leadership between the religious denominations led to anathemas of this with dancing, fiddling, chicken fighting, horse racing, and the like, that were common throughout that region thirty years before. Yet card playing, comparatively noiseless, held on to some sort of existence

in secret. Few children whose parents were church members or regular church-goers had ever seen a pack, and then only when wrested from the hands of an offender, white or black, for some negroes had learned the game of old sledge and were fond of indulging it on opportunities. Most of the merchants, from deference to general sentiment, did not keep them for sale; the others compromised by warning purchasers of their danger when used beyond moderation. Persons yet living can recall the awe yet also the fascination with which for the first, perhaps the only time during childhood they looked upon that long-haired, weighty-crowned, outlandish-vestured, bloody-eyed despot, the king, and that brazen-faced, loosely-clad female, the queen, possibly a portrait of the Scarlet Woman foretold by the holy prophets, and yet more, that flat-headed, red hatbanded, short-breeched, striped-stockinged, high-heeled-slippered monster, the jack. Surely, surely, this must be a picture of the bad man, although they could not remember ever to have been told that his name was Jack. Among crimes less than felonies, so to speak, yet punished with more or less severity according to frequency of recurrence and detection were the chewing and smoking of tobacco. Consequently few boys by the time they got into their teens had not learned to practice one or the other.

It may seem curious that this system of espionage and unreasonable punishment obtained so long. It was practiced even in the State University, at least for a time, during the presidency of Dr. Moses P. Waddel, who had been for many years head master of the academy at Williston, S. C. In the Sketches of Athens, Ga., by Dr. Henry Hull, occurs the following: "His administration of the university was singularly successful. From the handful of students he found, the attendance increased to 100 or more, and for ten years, with wise counsel and inflexible discipline, he kept the institution ever advancing. He thought the students of the university not too good for correction, and used to whip them without compunction when he deemed the punishment needed. An entry in his diary, still extant, says: 'Caught—chewing tobacco. Whipped him for it.'"

Gen. Robert Toombs often told of his last day's experience at the university when under Dr. Waddel. His guardian, Thomas W. Cobb, who was then a Senator of the United States, sent him to the university when he was about 14 years old. One night while he and another student were engaged in a game of cards in his room, the tutor, whose office it was to keep watch upon the occupants of the buildings, came upon them in the act. It so happened that Mr. Cobb, who lived in the adjoining county, was in Athens. Toombs knowing well that the tutor would report his finding the next day, and that at the afternoon meeting of the faculty he would be punished, repaired to Mr. Cobb's room at the tavern near by, and reporting the circumstances, prevailed upon him to send a letter to Dr. Waddel asking a dismissal. Next morning early he took the letter to the doctor's residence and got the desired paper. Later in the day, going forth and back during the removal of his goods, quite unexpectedly he met the doctor, who at once began to berate him for what he called "taking the advantage of him." The boy cut him off in this wise: "Dr. Waddel, perhaps you do not know whom you are addressing in such language. I am not, as you seem to suppose, a student of this university, but a citizen of the State of Georgia." Once, when Toombs had rehearsed the story at a village tavern in court week, one of the lawyers asked what reply was given?

"I didn't hear it," answered Toombs, "for I immediately turned away and made for the tavern and Mr. Cobb."

Many scenes, some of them desperate and well nigh tragic, used to be told of school and of college times in which teachers, although occasionally in great peril of life, yet infused with intrepid resolution and supported by public opinion, prevailed. Truth is, that during that period occasionally was a youth who seemed to feel, like Achilles, that laws were not made for such as him. Such sentiments were exasperated by the existing policy. In time it passed away, and its results made people wonder that it could have continued so long.

As for the courses of studies in those academies, they were as near being perfect as in any others in the whole country, South and North. Each pupil who was advanced beyond the first elements had three regular studies, never less, seldom more. Forenoon recitations in spelling, reading, and in grammar—English, Latin, and Greek—were not counted among these; history, natural philosophy, and chemistry were. Among the last mentioned chemistry was the favorite, and because of the peculiar way in which the text-book was constructed. There yet survive a few who recall with ease and even with fondness Mrs. Marcet's Conversations on Chemistry, of which, although an English production, more than 150,000 copies were sold in the United States. Many of the most eminent scholars gave high praise to it. Added to the accurate instruction imparted by it, much piquancy is in the conversations themselves between the instructress, Mrs. B., and her two pupils, Emily and Caroline.[1]

Comstock's Philosophy was studied by quite a number; but of the two Mrs. Marcet's work was far above it in favor.

The abundant excellence of these Vermont masters showed particularly in mathematics and Latin and Greek. It was simply impossible, and no pupil more than once or twice attempted to escape detection of want of diligence in preparing recitations. With those naturally dull, who were satisfactorily industrious, they were patient and sympathetic. For the idle and negligent they had no mercy, and it was wonderful the quickness with which they were able to discern. None were allowed to advance without thorough acquaintance with whatever was to be left behind. Classes were frequently changing in numbers, because whoever could not keep up with the average was reduced to a lower, and whoever could get ahead was required to do so. Of everyone was exacted work according to capacity to perform it by faithful application. In classical studies, Valpy's Greek Grammar and Adams's Latin Grammar, lessons in which were recited every morning, were required to be learned from cover to cover. Fifty years after that period old gentlemen together recalling the latter especially, sometimes merrily contended who could recite from it word for word the greatest number of rules, observations, exceptions, notes, etc., and tell the sides of the pages right or left wherever they occurred. Boys were prepared for the freshman, sophomore, occasionally the junior class in the university. Whenever one from either of these academies was presented by letter from the master, faculties, taking their fitness for granted, sometimes dispensed with other than partial examination, not seldom, when some not very important things could be made up in private, admitting to a class above the one applied for.

Not all, perhaps not a majority, of those educated at these academies went to the university or the colleges; many had not taken classical studies. Yet the years spent in such as were preparatory for business purposes only, contact with those pursuing the higher, and then the experience of a lofty, exacting, yet just discipline and continued serious work of master and pupil, developed both vigor and thoughtfulness in understandings that otherwise might have gone to waste. Many a wild, willful youth, his habits being conquered, rose to be a faithful student and afterwards a steady useful man. These masters did not expel. Their settled belief was that it was better to keep and continue efforts to reform the evil-minded than to drive them out to be a curse upon society. Many such a one in after life admitted his obligations to discipline that saved him from ruin.

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[1] Sydney Smith was a dear friend of Mrs. Marcet. Lady Holland tells an anecdote of a conversation between the two while at a dining party. They were discussing in a semiserious way the existence of purgatory. Mrs. Marcet appeared to be rather in favor of the dogma, when Smith playfully said to her:

"Well, Mrs. Marcet, if indeed there is a purgatory, let me tell you what in my opionion will be the punishment assigned for your greater purification. You will be everlastingly putting questions to Emily and Caroline, and they will everlastingly be giving wrong answers."

Such things as holidays might be said to be not so much as thought about, much less hoped for. Festivals like Easter, Whitsuntide, Ascension, Michaelmas ceased from people's mouths, and not only their recurrence became unnoticed but their meaning unknown. Once in a series of years a day of solemn fasting was set apart, in hope, by this and congregated supplication for divine deliverance, to be saved from the consequences of long-continued dry weather, but the denial of food and drink, except such as boys and girls could furtively get from cupboards, for fourteen working hours from sun to sun, made it seem to many a wretched sham of holiday, and they were glad when it was over. The school opened on the second Monday in January, and closed with two days' public examination at the end of the twenty-second week. After four weeks' vacation it reopened for a like other term. Pupils regarded it a hardship that the Fourth of July came in one and Christmas in the other. The average of daily sessions was seldom less than eight hours.

Such is a running account of those academies. The blessings imparted by them were incalculably numerous and benign. If there was an exception, it was not avowed, and hardly known, to the rule, to be set down as universal, that the men who conducted them were remembered with gratitude and pride.

III.—A Manual-Labor School.

Noteworthy seems the fact that of those eminent New Englanders who led the earliest movements toward higher education in middle Georgia, nearly all were Middlebury College men. Some of them have been mentioned previously by this writer. There remains yet another who, although graduated from Union, spent the first three years of his college course there. This was Rev. Adiel Sherwood, born at Fort Edward, N. Y., of a family several of whom were distinguished for services rendered in colonial and Revolutionary times. In 1818 he removed to the State of Georgia, where, with the exception of a few years while holding a professorship in Columbian College, Washington, and the presidency of Shurtleff College, he remained until after the Confederate war. In 1865 he removed to the State of Missouri, dying in St. Louis in the year 1879. He became a learned, eminent divine among the Baptists, and was much admired and honored by people of all religious demominations. As soon as he had become settled within the State he began to devise schemes for the better education of the Baptists, particularly their clergy. He was the moving spirit in the formation in 1820 of the General Association, which afterwards became that powerful organization, the Georgia Baptist Convention. It now seems singular that such a movement was not received with promptest cordiality. This was on account of the prejudice among many of that simple country folk against high education of the clergy. The argument was that the Apostles, who were the greatest preachers the Church ever produced, had little, almost no education, but became what they were by sole dependence upon the sustaining grace of their Divine Master.[1] What sufficed then ought to suffice now. Indeed, it had seemed to

[1]Although an uncommonly grave person, he put down in his diary some rather ludicrous instances of the dense ignorance of a few of the clergy in districts where education was next to none. One of them announced from the pulpit that our Lord had been beheaded by the Pope of Rome, and another, mistaking the word *meet*, asked him what his opinion was about the sort of *meat* for repentance spoken of by St. Paul.

In the history of the Baptist denomination compiled for the Christian Index, Atlanta, 1881, occurs the following:

"The necessity of education among many of the early Baptist ministers of Georgia was most apparent, and this partly explains the persistency of our fathers in their determination to establish a seat of learning. * * * One of their strange arguments was, 'If learning is to help the preacher, why not pray to learning instead of to the Lord.' Some of them claimed to be inspired to preach, averring that as they rose in the pulpit they had given their text no consideration until that moment when they opened the Bible, and that they intended to preach just as the Lord *handed* out the message to them. * * * Humphrey Posy, being invited to preach for Joel Colley, who was for twenty years moderator of the Yellow River Association, took for his text St. Paul's assertion 'I am not ashamed of the Gospel of Christ,' and observed 'If Paul, a learned man, was not ashamed of the Gospel, I ought

be so, for in the denomination were a few preachers with very high oratorical powers who had had no schooling beyond two or three years' attendance at old-field schools and had educated themselves at home. Therefore men of education were forced to move slowly and cautiously in the formation of larger bodies wherein it was foreseen that they must necessarily act the leading parts. The resolution of Dr. Sherwood was offered through another. In a letter written in 1870 in answer to one lately received from a relative in which was the question why he had so acted, he answered, "In the resolution for forming the Georgia Baptist Convention I do not remember any desire or end than the advancement of the cause of truth and the salvation of sinners. The resolution was handed to C. J. Jenkins,[1] as he was popular and I was regarded an *educated man*, which you know was considered an impediment in the opinion of some in those early times."

The original plan of Dr. Sherwood was to found a school for the education of young men for the ministry, and have manual labor connected with it. Brought up on a farm in New York State and working upon it in the vacations from college, he had become thoroughly acquainted with farm operations and was eagerly anxious for manual labor, at least in agriculture, to be mingled with general and professional education among candidates for the Gospel ministry. In his diary for the year 1829, published in the Memoir by his daughter,[2] is the following:

"In that year (1829) I presented to the executive committee of the convention a plan for a manual-labor school for young ministers, but nearly to a man were they opposed to it. Perhaps Judge Stocks[3] was my only fellow helper."

Not discouraged by this first failure, after waiting two years he brought forth his scheme again. Quoting from his diary again we have the following:

"In 1831, at the regular session of the State convention, held at Buckhead, Burke County, I brought up my motion, deferred on the advice of the executive committee for 1829, for a manual-labor school for young ministers. Brethren Mercer, Armstrong, and Sanders, some of the most influential in the State convention, opposed the measure, but Thomas Stocks, John Davis, and Absalom Janes,[4] and others, supported me in the matter, and we carried it through."

The resolution was in the following words:

"*Resolved*, That as soon as the funds will justify it, this convention will establish in some central part of the State a classical and theological school which shall unite agricultural labor with study, and be opened only for those preparing for the ministry."

In the following year this last clause was altered and made to read, "admitting others besides students in divinity."

The lack of promptness in carrying out the resolution led Dr. Sherwood to begin an institution of his own, as will be seen from this extract:

"A school was to have been opened in January of the following year (1832), but

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not to be.' In closing the services, Joel Colley corrected a supposed error of Mr. Posy, asserting that *his* Bible was not like Mr. Posy's Bible, for his Bible, instead of being 'brought up at the feet of Gamaliel,' read 'brought up at the foot of Gamel Hill,' a hill so poor it would not sprout a pea, and thereby Paul was a poor man, unable to get an education and had to learn tent making to gain a living. * * * Another preacher, preaching from the parable of the pounds in Luke xix, claimed that an 'austere man,' in verse 21 proved John to be an 'oyster man,' who employed his time fishing for oysters. As Dr. Sherwood says, 'If such ignorance was ever called to preach, it brings to mind the importunity of a good Methodist brother in Milledgeville by the name of Pierson, who avowed that the Lord called to him almost every night, "Pierson, Pierson, go preach my Gospel." But his brethren refused to license him because of his destitution of qualifications. He importuned, and they at last informed him that he mistook the name, and it was *Pierce* whom he heard the Lord call, alluding to Dr. Lovick Pierce.'" (Pp. 139–140.)

[1] Father of the late governor, Charles J. Jenkins.

[2] Memoir of Adiel Sherwood, D. D., written by his daughter, assisted by Rev. S. Boykin, Philadelphia, Girard and Fares, 1884.

[3] Thomas Stocks, a wealthy planter of Greene County, for many years judge of the county court and president of the State senate, was perhaps the most distinguished among the Baptist laity of those times.

[4] Another wealthy layman in the same county of Greene.

in the fall no farm had been purchased, and I discovered that the committee were afraid of putting the plan into practice. I therefore purchased 160 acres of land, 1½ miles northwest of Eatonton, from Thomas Cooper,[1] for $600, and advertised for 8 or 10 pupils, on the manual-labor plan. This experiment succeeded so well that the committee of the convention began to look out for a locality, and the result was the purchase of a farm from Mr. James Redd in Greene County. The committee requested me to relinquish my school in the latter part of 1832, stating that they were about to establish one of the same kind, to which I readily assented, as my undertaking had cost me some $500 out of pocket."

This experience seemed sufficient to keep him from the desire to have further personal communion with the enterprise, for in an autobiographical sketch he wrote thus:

"In 1833 the manual-labor school of the Georgia Baptist Convention was begun on the spot now known as Penfield, a few miles from Greensboro, and which with the exception of one single log cabin was then in the woods. Mr. B. M. Sanders was chosen principal. Although requested by Jesse Mercer, James Armstrong, and Judge Stocks, I declined being a candidate for the office."

It is not easy to understand why an institution begun as this was did not come to a quicker end. To this double log cabin resorted 39 students at the opening of 1833. In the History of the Baptist Denomination is an extended account of the several matters leading to the establishment of Mercer Institute, so named from Jesse Mercer, the most eminent among the clergy in the State. The executive committee, who acted as an agent of the convention in affairs relating to the management, were expressly enjoined against making any debts. "No debts shall be contracted by the committee or trustees on the credit of the institution without funds in hand to pay, otherwise in every case it shall be on their own individual responsibility."

The following are some of the initial regulations:

"The scholastic year shall be divided into two terms, first, of six months, from the second Monday in January to the second Monday in July, and the second, of five months, from the third Monday in July to the third Monday in December. The rates of tuition shall be $1.50 per month for all students in English grammar, geography, history, and common arithmetic; $2.50 per month for all in the learned languages, criticism, philosophy, mathematics, and other higher English branches of science. All over 16 years of age shall have board, room rent, and firewood for $4 a month, exclusive of their labor, and those under 16 shall pay $6 per month and have the value of their labor deducted as may be estimated by the steward and trustees; washing shall be furnished for $8 a year—all of which shall be required each term in advance. Each student shall furnish his own bedding and candles."

Despite the indisputable fact that this movement was begun with ideas not only humane but beneficent, one can not but be reminded here of the advertisement of Mr. Waxford Squeers of his famous school at Dotheboys Hall, which goes thus:

"Education: At Mr. Waxford Squeers' Academy, Dotheboys Hall, at the delightful village of Dotheboys, near Greta Bridge, in Yorkshire, youth are boarded, clothed, booked, furnished with pocket money, provided with all necessaries, instructed in all languages, living and dead, mathematics, orthography, geometry, astronomy, trigonometry, the use of the globes, algebra, single stick (if required), writing, arithmetic, fortification, and every other branch of classical literature. Terms, 20 guineas per annum. No extras, no vacations; a diet unparalleled. * * *

"N. B.—An able assistant wanted. Annual salary, 5 pounds. A master of arts would be preferred."

Of each one of the pupils to be sent there one, without great stretch of imagination, might recall Dickens' "Supposititious little boy who had been left with a

[1] A leading layman of the county of Putnam, father of Hon. Mark A. Cooper, long a member of Congress, and uncle of Hon. Eugenius A. Nesbit, for some years one of the justices of the State supreme court.

widowed mother who didn't know what to do with him; the poor lady had thought, as a means of thawing the tardy compassion of his relatives in his behalf, of sending him to a Yorkshire school."

Rev. Billington M. Sanders undertook the management of this institution. In his farewell address, delivered at his retirement in December, 1839, are the following words:

"The arrangements consisted of two double cabins with a garret to each for dwelling, for dining, and for study for both teachers and students. With these limited accommodations and with one assistant I opened the institution in January, 1833, with 39 students, having 36 of them to board in my own family. Among these were 7 young men preparing for the ministry."

Yet, surprising as it seems now, the language immediately following indicates a success which was most encouraging to the hopes of its friends in the denomination.

"I shall ever remember with lively emotions of pleasure the patience and cheerfulness with which the students of this year sustained the privations and trials to which they were subjected by their cramped circumstances. They may be truly said to have borne hardships like good soldiers. While living as in a camp in their midst and burdened with the charge and responsibility of the literary, theological, laboring, and boarding departments, I found no little support in all my cares and labors from witnessing that while they lived upon the cheapest fare, had no place for study but the common schoolroom, no place to retire to for rest but a garret without fire in the coldest weather, and labored diligently three hours a day, no complaint was heard, but that the most entire cheerfulness ran through all their words and actions.

"In a word, those favorable indications of the success of the enterprise soon began to inspire its friends with confidence and to animate their efforts for the extension of its advantages. An amount was soon raised to erect another large school building with eight comfortable rooms for dormitories and a brick basement for chapel and schoolrooms.

"The second year operations were commenced with increased accommodations, with an additional teacher, and 80 students, 70 of whom boarded in common."

Such extraordinary success in circumstances extremely limited and otherwise unpromising was due, perhaps, mainly to the character of the man chosen as leader. Billington Sanders, as was seen hereinbefore, was opposed to the scheme of Dr. Sherwood to connect manual labor with education. It was with reluctance, therefore, that he consented to become the principal, with the understanding that he was to be relieved whenever a suitable person could be gotten to succeed him. It had appeared that the Baptists in general desired such an institution, and he bravely made the sacrifices inseparable from the chief responsibility of its conduct. Besides being one of the most popular clergymen in the denomination, he was possessed of considerable property, upon which he lived with the liberality common to well-to-do planters. He had the entire confidence of everybody in his capacity, integrity, energy, will, resolution, and courage. His face was much like that of Gen. Andrew Jackson, and he was his equal in intrepid pursuit of aims and performance of action believed to be just and proper. Fathers who were in the habit of receiving unquestioning obedience from their children at home knew that they would be required to render it as entirely to this their chosen representative. Boys well understood that they must endure, perform, and obey, and that if they came back home without leave they would be at once returned, and, after punishment for such audacity, be put to work again. The simple, plain, hard fare on which they lived was believed to be of the sort best suited to teach habits of economy such as few, perhaps none, had learned at home, where their mothers, nobody objecting, were used to set before them three excellent square meals every day. Thoreau, a leader in the noted Brook Farm, demonstrated that a man could live on $14 a year, and we have seen how far 20 guineas went at Dotheboys Hall. The experiment here was to put the education

of youth on as economical scale as possible and combine it with labor, for the purpose, among others, of hindering book learning from puffing up to the degree of bringing on repugnance to work.

Fortunately this man had a wife who was perhaps as competent and loyal a helpmeet as ever stood by husband and children in exigent conditions, known by thousands of Baptists even down to this day as "Old Mistress." The assiduous motherly care and tenderness with which she watched and tended the youth under her keeping had the blessing of Heaven and the ever-enduring, affectionate gratitude of its recipients. Her husband whipped with the unction that was universal among his predecessors and contemporaries high and low in the profession. It was said of him that sometimes he wept sorely at the necessity of inflicting punishment, for he was a man abounding in charity as in unselfish devotion to all conceived duties. Yet this weakness, as proved by oft-repeated experience, meant everything but sparing to the culprit. Instead, it seemed to exasperate its condignness. This writer has often heard an old boy shout and make his hearers shout with laughter while telling of scenes in which this peculiarity was exhibited. "Truth is," one of those used to say, "when a boy was called up to be whipped, he hoped that Old Master (as we called him) would not get to crying with his admonitions (sometimes as affectionate as possible in the beginning), knowing that if he did it would be so much the worse for his back. He'd begin very mildly, almost beseechingly, pointing out our errors and counseling for all sakes to quit them; but when he got warmed up his under lip began to drop and the tears to pour down his cheeks. Then he'd suddenly rise from his chair and cry out, 'And the fact is, in the way you are going on you are to ruin yourself and bring down the gray hairs of your parents to the gra-v-ve!' Then he'd light on the offender just as a man, holding by his hind leg, beats with a stick a sheep-killing hound. That was a time for a fellow to run away if there was anywhere except home to go. But afterwards the mistress came along with words and tendering of blessed soothing. Many and many a prank of mischief was forefended by her admonitions, and many another's punishment healed by her precious balm."

As for insubordination, there was next to none, since for that sufficient audacity was impossible in the face of the discipline without and within. But tricks, practical jokes, and the like were as natural and as inevitable as physical growth in such uncommonly healthy daily exercises, amid living that, although of the plainest, was abundant and entirely sustaining. These were the more numerous and the bolder because of that wretched system of espionage then obtaining in almost all schools, especially boarding. Occasionally one of those young men who were preparing for the ministry, called "beneficiaries," conceived it his duty to be informant as well as divinity student, and such action as that is always attended with increase instead of diminution of wrongdoing. Orchards, chicken roosts, and fruit patches never dwelt in entire security, the less because the zest of enjoyment of their yield was enhanced by the risk in obtaining. Many a boy who never thought of such pranks when at home too easily fell into them when he found that a sycophant was sneaking after his footsteps.

Perhaps it was hoped that the plan would pay expenses. If so, its friends were disappointed, yet above this was the notion that at least it would serve to promote health, economy, industry, and sense of the dignity of labor. In the matter of the first, it was eminently successful. On a farm of near 400 acres, with gentle undulations of hill and lowland in an extremely healthy region, at daily exercise which was not, and could not have been pushed beyond moderation, and which did not rise even to that degree, this work was much like that undergone in daily sports and athletics in boarding schools generally. As for the acquisition of skill, at least any considerable degree of it, few, if any, had indulged expectation. Truth is, such a thing was little among the parents of those boys. Of scientific agriculture there was next to none. The pioneers of that happy region, as was noted in a former paper in this series, cut and slashed that fecund soil which in spite of such reckless-

ness gave forth in abundance its first fruits. If profound interest could have been felt by these lads in such work, it would have effected little good, perhaps some harm by leading them when come to adult age to continue the havoc then in general practice by which not very many planters, although with abundant support for all, man and beast, made little above the natural accretions from increase in the number of their negroes. The thought that agriculture was a thing to be taught was in very few, if any men's minds. Mr. Sanders was an excellent preacher and a good manager of money accounts, but as a planter he had much to learn himself. He preached, taught arithmetic, algebra, geography, grammar, theology, some Latin, a little Greek, and supervised the work of forty hands save one on the plantation. These students and these hands he lodged and fed just as himself and his family were lodged and fed, and the little sickness that occurred, he and his wife doctored and tended, as if the patients had been their own dear children. Strictly adhering to the maxims of St. Paul adopted at the beginning to "owe no man anything," he did all that was possible to the energy and the high mindedness which he had perhaps more than any other man in the denomination, at least more than any other who was or could have been made available for the multifold responsibilities of the position. The school grew satisfactorily, new subscriptions of funds came in, other and really excellent buildings were erected, additional professors were called, and a steward with a salary was engaged to superintend the farm, and assume charge of the boarding department.

This writer lately received a letter in answer to one of inquiry from a friend who had been a student at this school, and was graduated in the university, which it became afterwards. He is a gentleman of excellent attainments and for more than fifty years an eminent minister of the gospel. Some extracts are here given.

"The labor system was started to give exercise and health to the boys. It was in the place of the baseball and other athletic exercises connected with most colleges now. * * * I don't know exactly, but I do not think it ever did pay expenses. These were light, for we ate corn bread and slept on our own beds, * * * there was great rejoicing even in anticipation over Thursday night, which was biscuit night.[1] We worked two hours each day except Saturday—two long hours. The pay was a mere pittance, about bought the goose quills we used. The work was on the farm. There was a sort of mechanical department. You remember ——, preacher, 30 years old, parrot-toed, a carpenter; he bossed it. For a long time I worked at the whip saw. * * * We fared hard. 'Old Mistress' herself drank the stuff that old Pete made, called coffee, and lived as hard as the rest of us. She practiced self denial, and perhaps did as much as anyone to build up Mercer. * * * All the leading denominations in Georgia, you remember, tried the system. The Baptists, believing in perseverance, were the last to quit."

Although some of this gentleman's recollections were not "very pleasant," yet the system, to his view, served reasonably its purposes. It was abandoned not very long after its rise into Mercer University, for, among other reasons, because so large a number of youth refused (with their parents' consent) to go there, and instead resorted to the State University.

This particular experiment, the most extensive and long continued on that line of educational endeavor in middle Georgia, has been selected by this writer, because of his better acquaintance with it, he having been during two of its last years a student

[1] The old boys used to tell things about these biscuits which might not be wholly uninteresting to some of the numerous students of financial topics nowadays. The wide-hearted Old Mistress, if she were not allowed to give to her charge this delightful Southern plate but once a week, was resolute in her determination that they should have a plenty, and she generously turned her eyes far, far away when the large surplusage above what they could consume went into their pockets. Now, in the absence of pocket money, these became an accredited medium of exchange in what merchandising was carried on among themselves. Tops. sets of marbles, buckskin-covered balls, half-spent pocket-knives, slices of watermelon that cost nothing to the seller, and other such luxuries were bought and sold by lads of 12 and 14 in this quasi fiat money, whose commercial value varied according to its nearness to foregone or coming Thursday nights.

of the university. The most thoughtful, even among the students, foresaw that the system must come to an end. As the school rose in numbers and, when raised to a college, was supplied with a full corps of professors competent to impart not only higher learning but love of it, that sort of outdoor exercise grew to be regarded, both by students and teachers, as becoming constantly less and less adequate to realize the hopes of its founders, at least as they witnessed and partook of its practice. In time the founders themselves became so convinced those most intelligent among them deciding that union of study and work under those particular circumstances was impracticable; that education must concern itself with principles and causes before it came to things. Quotation is made here of a few brief paragraphs from a pamphlet, Psychology of Manual Training, by Hon. William T. Harris, Commissioner of Education. The first is:

"Man goes back from the fact to the producing cause. But he goes back of its producing cause to a deeper cause that unites two or more series of producing causes; back of the oak and pine to tree in general; back of tree, and grass, and lichen to plant in general; back of plant and animal life to life in general. Man's powers of thought rise from things to cause, and from cause to cause, leaving a smaller and smaller residuum of mere sense data, and yet getting nearer the underlying reality which causes all these sense data * * *

"This is the great point for educators to observe. We do not get at the true reality by sense perception but by thought. * * *

"School studies are for the most part given to a knowledge of human nature and human combination, rather than to a knowledge of material things. * * * If the child will learn how to read and write, he may learn the experience of the race through the countless ages of its existence. He may by scientific books and periodicals see the world through the sense of myriads of trained specialists devoting whole lives to the inventory of nature. What is immensely more than this, he may think with their brains, and assist his feeble powers of observation and reflection by the gigantic aggregate of the mental labor of the race. This is the great meaning of school education, to give to the pupil the use of the means for availing himself of the mental products of the race. Compared with what he receives from the race, the productions of the most original of men are a mere speck in a wide field of view. Everyone may add something to the aggregate of the world's knowledge, but he must, if he is educated and rises above the brute, receive infinitely more than he gives. Hence, in comparing the educative effect of learning to read with the educative effect of learning the carpenter's trade, we must consider the difference of scope." * * *

Speaking of the school proper he says: "Its education is followed by its greatest educative effects afterwards through life. For the person is destined to use this knowledge of reading daily as a key by which to unlock the treasures of all human learning. The school has given him the possession of the means of permanent and continuous self-education. It is the difference between a piece of baked bread which nourishes for the day and the seed corn which is the possibility of countless harvests. Education that educates the child in the art of self-education is that which the aggregate experience of mankind has chosen for the school."

In this pamphlet, suggested by the intemperate zeal of some who have before their eyes scientific physical training so closely set that they can not see the greater things beyond it, are many other unanswerable arguments.

The people of middle Georgia, few of whom at that period (sixty years ago) were liberally educated, were earnestly intent that their children should become so, yet were not entirely without apprehension that much learning might tend to seduce them from a just estimate of frugality, industry, economy, and the performance or the superintendence of manual work. He was very far from being an exception, that excellent and well-to-do old farmer who, when asked if he intended to send his boys to college, answered: "No, that I aint; seem to me the mainest things them

college boys learn, is to chaw and smoke seegars, talk dictionary words, git above work, and be imp'dent to old people." To guard against dreaded results they made them take along and use things of home life—the hoe, the plow, and the trace chain; to mingle in their thoughts of Greek and Roman those of corn and cotton; to work, to feed, and to curry horses, mules, and oxen. The experiment was made by men of several denominations, sensible and to the last degree resolute. Their sons in contact with this double existence, after a year or two of half-hearted endeavorings, saw before their fathers the incongruity; necessarily they were economical, for their pocket moneys were extremely limited, and they knew better than to make debts in the stores, which were not long in appearing in the village that rapidly formed around them. As they advanced in knowledge under the excellent teachers provided for them, while they took on no disgust for manual work in itself, their performance of it was languid and less than indifferent. Circulars following home the best students with a disgracefully low figure in labor were excused for the sake of the exalted figures obtained in their studies. These many of them pursued with great diligence, and almost all to satisfaction. What punishments were received (and they came in frequent, relentless showers[1]) were mainly for other things than neglect of text-books. With these they made haste. What haste there was, when laying them aside they repaired to the field, was made while homeward bound; never when outward. If ever a laborer was unworthy of his hire, pitiful as was the wage, it was here. There was little or no complaining ever; during the last years there was none. Workers went forth loitering, yet cheerful, feeling no sort of dread of hurting themselves in the smallest particular by overwork. Often, but entirely leisurely, they looked at the descending sun, and sometimes when he seemed to be making no more haste than they were, deciding that his not being quite down was no reason why he ought not to be, they—but not too far—anticipated that interesting occasion and made for home. A good bath and a shifting of clothing made them more than ready for the good supper they knew to be preparing; for by this time a dozen or so of well-to-do planters had settled in the village, and for a sum which now would seem absurdly little gave board of the very best.

The system itself, when the college was opened, foresaw its own decline; but, apparently in tenderness toward the older brethren, so many of whose hopes had been with it from the start, it lingered to its twelfth year, when, with resignation, approximating unanimity of students, faculty, trustees, and people, it went the way of all the earth. Its very last article was preceded by the following resolution, passed by the trustees in December, 1844:

"Whereas the manual-labor department of Mercer University has been sustained at a heavy expense—an expense which the present state of our fund will not justify—and has, in our judgment, materially retarded the growth of our institution after as favorable experience as we have been able to make of the scheme; and

"Whereas the contributors of the university fund, so far as they have been called upon, expressed themselves with almost entire unanimity, ready to concur in any measure in reference to the system which the board of trustees may deem essential to the prosperity of the institution; and

"Whereas the board of trustees have found themselves under all circumstances unable to accomplish to any desired extent the important and benevolent designs for which it was originally organized: Be it therefore

"*Resolved*, That this department be, and is hereby, indefinitely suspended."

Thus the Baptists, latest of all, noted for their perseverance, had to admit at last that even to this favorite virtue were limitations.

[1] From these, however, college students and those in preparatory classes who were over 16 years old were exempt.

IV.—The University.

The situation of the State of Georgia at the several periods during the war of Independence was peculiarly exigent. Youngest and most remote of all the provinces, sparsely occupied by whites, exposed along a border of several hundred miles to Indian maraudings, its hardships, real and apprehended, were among the most trying. Discouraged by these hardships, a considerable number defected from the cause of liberty, and between these, known as Tories, and the rest many tragic scenes occurred. During the latter part of the year 1776 affairs became so embarrassing that the leaders of public opinion in South Carolina conceived the idea of annexation, and in the general assembly of that State the following resolution was introduced and passed unanimously:

"That a union between the two States of South Carolina and Georgia would tend effectually to promote their strength, wealth, and dignity, and to secure their liberty, independence, and safety."

Commissioners were sent to Georgia, but the proposal met with no favor. One of these, William Henry Drayton, after its rejection, became so persistent in private efforts toward the end for which he had been sent that Governor Treutlen, acting on the advice of the executive council, published offer of rewards for the apprehension of him and his associates. Yet in the convention called by Archibald Bulloch, governor and president of the council of safety, the first constitution was adopted, February 5, 1777, one of the articles of which required the erection of a school at the public expense in each county. From this period the State was constantly harassed by disasters and dangers. Savannah was taken, the government transferred to Augusta, and at one time such was the exigency of conditions that the governor, John Houstoun, was invested with dictatorial powers. Relief came not until the evacuation of the province by Sir James Wright, the royal governor, June 14, 1782. Yet it was not until the close of the war that measures could be taken in the cause of education, and these were recommended by Governor Lyman Hall during the three months' session of the general assembly in the summer of 1783. In his opening message were the following:

"From a view of the profligate and wicked lives of many in the community, it appears that some laws to restrain vice and encourage virtue are of the highest importance to the welfare of the State, it being certain that almost all the evils of government originate from men of corrupt principles and abandoned manners. In addition, therefore, to wholesome laws restraining vice, every encouragement ought to be given to introduce religion, and learned clergy to perform divine worship in honor to God, and to cultivate principles of religion and virtue among our citizens. For this purpose it will be your wisdom to lay an early foundation for endowing seminaries of learning; nor can you, I conceive, lay a better than by a grant of a sufficient tract of land that may, as in other governments, hereafter, by lease or otherwise, raise a revenue sufficient to support such valuable institutions."[1]

There is something pathetic in the patriotic and wise endeavors of a small number of men, one of whom was the full equal of any in his generation, to found a university in the State, and their failure because of the early death of the chief among their great leaders. Lyman Hall, born in Connecticut, removed to Georgia in 1752, and became one of the bravest and most influential patriots. He was a signer of the Declaration of Independence, a Representative in Congress, was made governor of Georgia, and while thus acting, supported and guided mainly by another from the same State, originated those endeavors.

In Stevens's History of Georgia (p. 353) occurs the following:

"In the midst, however, of the troubles incident to the unsettled state of a frontier province in that transition period, when military law had ceased and civil law was but imperfectly established, the legislature, with a forecast which reflects the

[1] Stevens's History of Georgia, Vol. II, p. 344.

highest character upon their wisdom, took measures for the establishment of a State institution of learning. On the 25th of February, 1784, a committee of the legislature was sent to the executive council bearing a resolution requesting his honor the governor to grant land warrants for 5,000 acres each in the name of John Houstoun, James Habersham, William Few, Joseph Clay, Abram Baldwin, William Houstoun, and Nathan Brownson, esqrs., or their successors in office, in trust for the college that is to be established in this State, that one or more of the said trustees be requested to proceed immediately, with a surveyor or surveyors, and superintend the surveying of the said land in each county agreeable to the act for that purpose made," etc.

In the next section the land thus provided was to be exempted from taxation.

The act to which reference was made by appointment of the committee was an act for laying out the two counties of Franklin and Washington, the eleventh section of which is given as follows:

"And whereas the encouragement of religion and learning is an object of great importance to any community and must tend to the prosperity, happiness, and advantage of the same:

"*Be it enacted by the authority aforesaid,* That the county surveyors, immediately after the passing of this act, shall proceed to lay out in each county 20,000 acres of land of the first quality, in separate tracts of 5,000 acres each, for the endowment of a college or seminary of learning, and which said lands shall be vested in and granted to his honor the governor for the time being."[1]

Thence followed appointment of the trustees hereinbefore named, who were "empowered to do all such things as to them shall appear requisite and necessary, to forward the establishment and progress of the same; and all vacancies shall be filled up by the said trustees. And the said county surveyors shall in six months after the passing of this act make returns to the trustees, hereinbefore mentioned, of all regular plats of all such tracts as they shall have laid out and surveyed by virtue of this act."

On the 27th of January, 1785, an act in pursuance of the plans thus started was passed, being entitled "An act for the more full and complete establishment of a public seat of learning in this State." The preamble to this act is so excellent of its kind that it is given in full herein:

"As it is the distinguishing happiness of free governments that civil order should be the result of choice, and not necessity, and the common wishes of the people become the laws of the land, their public prosperity, and even existence, very much depends upon suitably forming the minds and morals of their citizens. When the minds of the people in general are viciously disposed and unprincipled, and their conduct disorderly, a free government will be attended with greater confusions and evils more horrid than the wild, uncultivated state of nature. It can only be happy where the public principles and opinions are properly directed and their manners regulated. This is an influence beyond the reach of laws and punishments and can be claimed only by religion and education. It should therefore be among the first objects of those who wish well to the national prosperity to encourage and support the principles of religion and morality and early to place the youth under the forming hand of society that, by instruction, they may be molded to the love of virtue and good order. Sending them abroad to other countries for their education will not answer these purposes; it is too humiliating an acknowledgment of the ignorance or infirmity of our own, and will always be the cause of so great foreign attachments that upon principles of policy it is inadmissible.

"This country, in the times of our danger and distress, found security in the principle and abilities which wise regulations had before established in the minds of our countrymen, that our present happiness, joined to the pleasing prospects, should conspire to make us feel ourselves under the strongest obligations to form

[1] Stevens's History of Georgia, Vol. II, p. 353.

the youth, the rising hope of our land, to render the like glorious and essential services to our country."[1]

A noble beginning for higher education was made in this session of the general assembly, led by one whose name and memory from the people of Georgia merit more gratitude than those of any other in its history; one who but for having been overtaken of death in his prime would have placed education upon a level with that in the State of which he was native, with whose polity he had become thoroughly acquainted, and had eager desire to extend it. Abram Baldwin, born in Guilford, Conn., in the year 1754, was graduated at Yale College in 1772, and for four years—from 1775 to 1778—was a tutor there. Having studied divinity with view to become a clergyman, he was invited, in the year 1781, to become professor of divinity and college pastor, but declined the offer and served as chaplain in one of the regiments of his native State. Here he made acquaintance with Gen. Nathanael Greene. At the close of the war Gen. Greene removed to Georgia, and persuaded Baldwin to do the same, which he did in the year 1784. Withdrawing from the ministry, he began studying for the bar, was admitted to practice, and rapidly rose into a large business. Within a few months after his admission, having already a commanding figure among leaders of public opinion, he was elected to the legislature at the session next ensuing after his arrival and in the same year. Seldom, if ever, had a man, coming into a strange community far remote from his native, with antecedents so little known, risen with such rapidity. From the very first his presence and demeanor, his walk and conversation impressed all minds with the notion that he was one born to be a leader of men. This he easily became in the first public body to which he was so speedily sent.

Baldwin was a lawgiver. It so appeared in the general assembly of January, 1785, less than a year after his coming into the State, unknown of all except the distinguished soldier at whose instance he had come, and who died in the following year. It is not apposite to the subject of this article to allude otherwise than briefly to the work done by him for purposes besides educational. Preeminently gifted as he was, the impress of his hands must necessarily be upon whatever enterprise came within the compass of the plane wherever he traveled and wrought. It seems a pity, not only for his adopted State but for the whole country, that little memorial was left of such a man beyond the records of his public actions and the traditions of his acknowledged greatness. In the exigencies of a new, inchoate society, with a vast, unpeopled territory, extending far westward, it was remarkable how quickly all thoughtful, patriotic minds put themselves under the lead of this young stranger of 30 years. Almost universal tradition assigned to him well-nigh sole authorship of the judiciary system of the State, which great lawyers in this country and which such as Lord Tenterden and Lord Brougham declared to be a marvel of its kind. Such a man seemed to be more needed in the councils of the young confederate government than in those of his own State, and so, two years afterwards he was sent to the Federal convention, and played a conspicuous part in the formation of the Federal Constitution. No member of the convention more thoughtfully revolved the subjects of investigation. In the notes taken down by Madison the speeches and general movements made by him exhibit great carefulness and conservation, yet boldness wherever it seemed to him needed to be put forth. He was a leader among those who foresaw and dreaded the policy of intrusting to the General Government any greater powers beyond what were essential to the discharge of federative functions. One noted sentence of his has been often referred to: "Political power is like the screw in mathematics; it holds all it has, and every turn gives it more." With the instinct of genius he recognized at a glance, as it were, the peculiar needs of the society into which he had come to dwell, and in what time was left for the purpose he labored to supply them. It was well known, and it became a matter of frequent speech, that in all the public assemblies in which he

[1] Stevens's History of Georgia, Vol. II, p. 361.

had parts to enact, in those framing the constitution of Georgia, in the general assembly of the State, in Congess as Member of the House, to which he was elected in 1790, and in the Senate, he was never absent from his post for a single day until his last sickness, just one week before his death, in Washington, in 1807, at the age of 52 years.

The principal item of the loss to the civil government of the State by the transfer of Baldwin to Congress and particularly by his early death was a long postponement of the establishment of the supreme court of appeals for the correction of errors of superior court judges. Foresight of the indispensable need of such a tribunal provided for its early foundation; but the withdrawal of the great leader delayed it for half a century. If he had lived, what took place in 1845 would have done so long, long before, and been put upon a far more satisfactory foundation. It is remarkable that many of the very greatest lawyers in the State opposed it to the last, an example of the willingness of prominent citizens to be content with systems wherein they have obtained positions of controlling influence.

Yet the most serious loss inflicted upon the State by the absence of Baldwin was felt by its educational interests. It was his aim that general superintendence of education should be assumed by the State under the leading influence of one great university. He was one of those wise men who maintain that education within any State properly begins at the summit instead of the bottom. The decision of the multitudes, after he passed away, like that of multitudes everywhere when not adequately guided, that it should begin at the bottom and ascend delayed for a hundred years, and it yet delays, the accomplishment of that aim of a man who was the full equal of Thomas Jefferson in lawgiving wisdom, and possibly his superior in cultivation.

On January 25, 1785, an act was passed by the general assembly, some sections of which are as follows:

"Whereas for the great purposes of internal education, divers allotments of land have at different times been made, particularly by the legislature at their sessions in July, 1783, and February, 1784, all of which may be comprehended and made the basis of one general and complete establishment; therefore, enacted,

"SEC. I. That the general superintendence and regulation of the literature of the State, and in particular of the public seat of learning, shall be committed and intrusted to one board, denominated 'the board of visitors,' hereby vested with all powers of visitation, to see that the intent of this institution is carried into effect; and [13 persons named] who shall compose another board, denominated 'the board of trustees.' These two boards united, or a majority of each of them, shall compose the 'Senatus Academicus of the University of Georgia.'

"SEC. II. All statutes, laws, and ordinances for the government of the university shall be made and enacted by the two boards united, or a majority of each of them, subject always to be laid before the general assembly as often as required, and to be repealed or disallowed as the general assembly shall think proper."[1]

(As before seen, 40,000 acres of land had been set apart in lots of 5,000 acres each, for the university in the new counties of Washington and Franklin.)

"SEC. IV. As the appointment of a person to be the president and head of the university is one of the first and most important concerns on which its respect and usefulness greatly depend, the board of trustees shall first examine and nominate; but the appointment of the president shall be by the two boards jointly, who shall also have the power of removing him from office for misdemeanors, unfaithfulness, or incapacity."

Several sections follow containing details regarding management, then comes

"SEC. XIII. The Senatus Academicus at their stated annual meetings shall consult and advise, not only upon the affairs of the university, but also to remedy the defects, and advance the interests of literature through the State in general. For

[1] Prince's Digest of the Laws of the State of Georgia, 1837, p. 866, etc.

this purpose it shall be the business of the members, previous to their meeting, to obtain an acquaintance with the state and regulations of the schools and places of education in their respective counties, that they may thus be possessed of the whole, and have it before them for their mutual assistance and deliberation. Upon this information they shall recommend what kind of schools and academies shall be instituted, agreeably to the constitution, in the several parts of the State, and prescribe what branches of education shall be taught and inculcated in each. They shall also examine and recommend the instructors to be employed in them, or appoint persons for that purpose. The president of the university, as often as the duties of his station shall permit, and some of the members, at least once in a year, shall visit them and examine into their order and performances.

"SEC. XIV. All public schools, instituted or to be supported by funds or public moneys in this State, shall be considered as parts or members of the university, and shall be under the foregoing directions and regulations.

"SEC. XV. Whatsoever public measures are necessary to be adopted for accomplishing these great and important designs, the trustees shall, from time to time represent and lay before the general assembly."

Such is an outline of the plan projected by this young man for education in the State. It was to begin where in every new State it should begin, with a great university, a primum mobile, destined to organize and preside over and regulate all inferior institutions receiving in time those who had passed through their courses to itself in order to qualify them for the coming duties of manhood and citizenship. A fair site was selected on the Oconee River, around which the town of Athens grew up, and another native of Connecticut, Josiah Meigs, was elected president.

In the same year, 1790, when Baldwin was elected to Congress, died his chief collaborator, Lyman Hall. He was one of the Georgia signers of the Declaration of Independence, governor of the State, and before the advent of Baldwin the most cultured among its political leaders. He died childless at the age of 66 years.[1] His death was a sore loss to the State, and was felt to be so. But he died in cheerful hope that the provisions thus made for its welfare would accomplish the ends for which they had been devised. Such was also the hope of his young survivor, when he left for the more extended field where the people desired his talents to be employed. Yet as president of the board of visitors he continued to be the main director in putting the institution on a foundation. With nothing but land to appropriate for this purpose, although land was in abundance for the support of a hundred fold greater population, and therefore had merely nominal market value, yet the beginning was made in 1801 under President Meigs, who in time was assisted by Prof. Addin Lewis, who had come from Connecticut at the same time with the president. These two with a tutor in French for some years constituted the faculty. Moneys accruing from rent of the university lands being wholly inadequate, the general assembly the following year passed an act for the loan of $5,000 "in aid of the funds of the said institution for erecting the college buildings," conditioned to be repaid with interest. In 1803 a further act was passed, authorizing the trustees to "sell and dispose of, in such manner as they may deem most for the benefit of the institution, the tract of land belonging to the university in the county of Hancock, and to appropriate the moneys arising from the sale in such manner as in their judgment will most advance the beneficial purposes of the said university, and that they also have full power and authority to sell and dispose of in like manner, and for the same purposes, all such lots and land situate in and adjoining the site of the university as they think proper, reserving, nevertheless, the quantity of 37 acres

[1] The inscription upon his tomb, written by his widow, concludes with these touching words:

"To him so mourn'd in death, so loved in life,
The childless parent and the widowed wife,
With tears inscribed this monumental stone,
That holds his ashes and expects her own."

of land for the college yard."[1] This last tract bought and presented to the State by John Milledge consisted of over 600 acres, but the amount of sales was small, the village, so far from the center of existing population, being necessarily slow in settlement. Thus the institution struggled during infancy. In the year 1807 he who had been its founder and mainly its soul, died. He alone among its supporters fully comprehended what a great university is, what it means, what is its full scope, and what it needs and can not do without for the compass of its ends. The history of this institution henceforth is one of continuously recurring disappointments. The following extract, taken from a pamphlet written by the late Dr. Henry Hull, one of its first graduates and afterwards for several years one of the faculty, well sums up the accidents of twenty-five years whose likes were continued until 1884, when the pamphlet was written. It has for its title, Sketches from the Early History of Athens, Georgia, 1801–1825.

"For a quarter of a century, at least, the interests of Athens and of the university went hand in hand—they rose and fell together; indeed, one was nothing without the other. The income of the university was derived from the rents of land deeded it by the State, and as land was very cheap none but the poorest as a rule rented it; consequently, the income was small and very uncertain. From its organization, in 1801, to 1811, the faculty consisted of a president, Mr. Meigs; one professor of French, M. Petit de Clairville, and one tutor, Addin Lewis, whose place in 1808 was filled by James Merriwether for a year, after which M. Petit held on for two years and resigned in 1810, leaving President Meigs alone in his glory to instruct all the classes in every department of science. So the college came very near to the gates of death, and the town had but little more vitality. In 1811 the faculty reorganized by the election of Dr. John Brown, president, and Dr. Henry Jackson and Mr. John R. Golding, professors. This galvanized the college into spasmodic breathing, and the town sympathized in the shock. A few houses, before vacant, were occupied, and some whitewashing and maybe a little painting done, and the place looked for brighter days. I don't remember that anyone was so sanguine as to build a new house or improve a vacant lot; but the hoped-for improvement did not come, and the college and town languished, notwithstanding the election, in 1813, of an educational professor, Dr. William Green. But this strengthening of the faculty did not have the expected effect of strengthening the institution. The rents did not come in, and the professors' salaries, ridiculously small though they were, were not paid; no apparatus could be bought, no library was within reach. So the college languished and the town sickened, and if the legislature had not authorized the board of trustees to sell the lands and invest the proceeds, both would soon have died together. But that important measure was adopted, and in 1816 the lands were sold and notes and bonds taken in payment. The State took them to the amount of $120,000, and transferred to the university 1,000 shares of the stock of the Bank of the State of Georgia, guaranteeing 8 per cent dividend annually, and this it has paid, and only this, to the present day."

There is humor, yet some pathos, in the succeeding paragraph, in which Dr. Hull gave account of the disposal of the last, perhaps most valuable, tract owned by the university.

"The line between Georgia and South Carolina was the northern bank of the Savannah River at high water, from its mouth to its intersection with the thirty-fifth parallel of north latitude, and where it forked the larger of the two should be considered a continuation of the Savannah. Now, the Tugaloo and Seneca formed the first fork from its mouth, and it became a question which was the larger. It was generally conceded that the Seneca was the principal stream, and was therefore considered the boundary between the States. The lands between the rivers belonged then to Georgia, a part of which, 5,000 acres, lying near the junction and very valuable, was deeded by the State, with other tracts, to the university. This district

[1] Prince's Digest, p. 869.

was represented in the Georgia legislature by a Mr. Lane. Subsequent surveys, pretending to be more carefully made, determined that the Tugaloo was the larger river, and it became the boundary line, thereby losing to the University of Georgia her 5,000 valuable acres. But our board of trustees resolved to make an effort to retain it. Supposing that such a tract, away in the backwoods, remote from any settlement, where public lands were worth but little more than the cost of surveying them, could be of small consideration to a State, they appointed one of their own body, a lawyer of distinction, to wait on the legislature of South Carolina, then in session, and ask the grant of the land should be confirmed to the university, not doubting that so small a favor would be granted. Colonel C. was a man of exquisite taste in wines and brandies, or at least he thought so, and kept that gift in active exercise on all proper occasions, and sometimes when the occasion was not proper. The South Carolinians knew exactly how to entertain such a man with becoming hospitality. There were some members of the legislature who, learning the object of the colonel's visit and desiring to own themselves the land in question, determined to prevent the confirmation of the grant, and succeeded in keeping our delegate in such a blissful state of tasting and tasting certain old and costly liquors that he did not have an opportunity to present the claims of the university until the legislature adjourned. Before its next meeting the lands were sold."

Yet for many years considerable interest in the university continued to be felt, and if thoroughly competent leadership had existed, it might have been put in time upon firm satisfactory foundation. A resolution of remarkable thoughtfulness and ability was adopted by the legislature in December, 1831. A brief extract is as follows:

"In our country every man ought to prepare himself for taking part in her public business. Should he never aspire to a seat in her State or national councils, he yet owes it as a duty to himself and his posterity, to let any talent he may possess appear at best in her primary assemblies.

"If this view of our duty be correct, and it is believed it cannot be controverted, the committee feel warranted in considering the subject of education, the noblest and most important that can engage the attention of the lawgiver; it lies, in truth, at the basis of the whole social system. It affects not only the individual happiness, the character and the usefulness of those who are its objects, but it exerts a most powerful and irresistible influence upon the government, the laws, and the liberties of communities. No nation where the majority of the people are well educated can be enslaved; no nation where the great mass is ignorant can retain its freedom. In proportion to the general intelligence will be the force, the wealth, and the influence of a State, and it will be respected in the exact ratio of the instructed talent it can bring into its negotiations."[1]

Such utterances as this indicated the earnest interest felt by instructed minds for the bettering of an institution begun with purposes so patriotic and benign. Yet at that same session of the general assembly, Edward J. Black, representative from Richmond County, and afterwards member of Congress, one of the most distinguished politicians of the State, in a speech of notable eloquence, attacked the university, particularly regarding the manner in which it was conducted, and introduced a resolution for the appointment of a committee "to prepare and report a bill to remove the site of Franklin College" (the name by which the university was generally called) "from Athens to Milledgeville, and to appropriate money for the erection of suitable buildings for that purpose, and to appoint fit and proper persons for designating the spot upon which said buildings shall be erected, and for superintending the erection of the same."[2]

The journal from which this was taken does not contain any report of the committee. The majority earnestly opposed it and doubtless it was deemed prudent to

[1] Prince's Digest, p. 882.

[2] Journal of the (Ga.) House, November 6, 1830; quoted in The Bench and Bar of Georgia, by Stephen F. Miller. J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1858.

let it sleep. This action of Mr. Black was a startling indication of prejudices against the university which for certain reasons had been rising for some time past, particularly in the middle and upper portions of the State which were to become strong enough to hinder for good further public intervention in its behalf. A committee was appointed by the general assembly of 1833 to examine into the account of receipts and disbursements of the university from the 1st of November, 1831, to the 1st of November, 1833. Some suspicion had been cast upon the management of the funds and complaints made that it was needlessly backward in repaying the comparatively small advances that had been made to it when in particularly exigent circumstances. Investigation showed that the account had been kept with entire fairness and accuracy, and the committee so found. Yet they felt themselves called upon to append a significant insinuation after premising assertion of what they styled "the generous patronage of the State." They reported:

"The committee to whom was referred an account of the receipts and disbursements of the University of Georgia, from the 1st of November, 1831, to the 1st of November, 1833, inclusive, have had the same under consideration, and beg leave to report that on a careful perusal of said report they find the respective debts and credits in said account appear fair and explicit, and furnish a distinct detail of the fiscal concerns of that institution. This seminary of learning has long enjoyed the generous patronage of the legislature of this State and has evidently, within a short period, made rapid advances in public estimation.

"It is an institution that requires ample supplies, because the disbursements necessary to keep it in successful operation are great; but so long as the funds provided are both judiciously and economically applied it will receive the approbation of the people of Georgia."

Then follows an admonition which plainly evinced the hostility that for several years had been growing into virulence that foreboded unhappy consequences. It is put in these words:

"But, to insure the future countenance of the State, the strongest evidence should be given, by those employed in carrying it forward, that the interest of the whole people, and not of a part, is strictly attended to. The pursuit of literature alone can secure the confidence of the public, and both teacher and student will find it to be to their interest to devote their attention exclusively to this great object. Let it be run by action, not profession, that a generous emulation prevails among all those directly or indirectly connected with the university, to raise its character to a pitch of elevation that may make it an ornament and honor to the State. This is the only remuneration that she requires, and in fact imperiously demands.

"Your committee deem these cursory remarks necessary to satisfy public expectation, and admonitory to the university of the true course it ought to pursue."[1]

The university had been started when the settlements of middle Georgia were sparse and were struggling with many hardships to gain a substantial foothold. If not satisfied with the old field schools they were not in condition to obtain higher. In the first years after the opening, therefore, comparatively few from this region were sent to it. A majority of students came from Savannah and the counties near by, which were older, more prosperous, and far more advanced in culture. For several years all the country west of the Oconee River and south of Clark wherein the University was located continued to be Indian territory. Complaints began to be made that the low country students were more favored than the others. It was remarked that the long vacation instead of being set in the summer was in the winter. The cause of this, as was charged by middle Georgia people, was that such arrangement was suited to the peculiar habits of the low countrymen of property who used to spend the greater part of the summer at Madison Springs, a watering place near by the seat of the university, or in the villages among the mountains not far beyond. These it suited to have vacation mainly in winter, when families would be at home.

[1] Digest of the Laws of the State of Georgia, by Oliver H. Prince, 1837, p. 883.

Another cause of complaint was that the university soon fell under the control of one political party. It seemed an oversight in the act organizing the institution in making the board of trustees a close corporation, vacancies in which were to be filled by the remaining members, a provision which, it was argued, enabled the majority party to exercise and perpetuate domination. The late Mr. Justice John A. Campbell was often heard to say that during his attendance at the university the college was dominated by the party that was opposed to that of which his father, Duncan G. Campbell, was a prominent leader. Indeed it is an interesting fact that during many years Athens was the place and commencement the occasion of the meeting of both political parties for consultation and caucus nomination of candidates for governor and other high State and Federal officials. Old citizens yet point to the places where stood the two taverns at which the leaders severally sojourned during commencement week.

Both these complaints, whether just or not, were greatly injurious. Belief or suspicion that the tone of the community was in favor of those whom middle Georgia people assumed to be, or at least to feel, aristocratic because of their wealth and better culture, served not only to diminish interest in the university, but to originate a jealousy between the two sections which it took several decades of years to subdue. Then such belief or suspicion regarding political partisanism necessarily wrought harm in all sections.

But that which served to block effectually such support from the State as would secure the ends which the founders intended for the university was the denominational spirit of the two prevailing bodies of Christians—the Baptists and the Methodists—who far outnumbered all the rest in the rural districts of the State. To the faculty of the institution these denominations during the forming years made almost no contributions. This was owing to the fact that they at first had almost none to present who were qualified to be professors. Hardly a single one among their clergy had received a college education. Some of the most eloquent and otherwise great preachers, whose superiors in some important respects the State has never since produced, had gotten what education they possessed in elementary schools and in intervals of work on their plantations and other places of business, and were entirely uninstructed in classical and scientific studies. On the other hand, the Presbyterians, few in numbers outside of cities, had only an educated clergy, and proportionately a far greater number of educated persons among the laity. Some of the latter had been engaged in teaching, particularly in towns, while few, if any, in the two other denominations had ever pursued that vocation. From the old fields to academies of high grade the leap was, as it were, instantaneous, as as has been seen, and these were kept by teachers from New England. Yet it was not so much because professorships were filled by Presbyterians as because of the rivalry between themselves that sentiment rose and rapidly took shape with each of the others to have its own university that tended to withdraw their support from the State institution. Unfortunately most persons, having little knowledge of the chief ends of a great university, believed honestly that the one already established was as high as there was any need for. Their aim, therefore, was to leave Savannah, the Presbyterians, and the politicians to run it on their own lines, while they would start each its own, intended to foster, besides literature and science, denominational religious faith and to aspire to denominational supremacy. A few thoughtful persons in each denomination opposed movements foreseen to be fatal to highest university education; but their counsels were rejected, and Mercer University and Emory College almost simultaneously rose into being, their founders and supporters being at least four-fifths of the State. About the same time the Presbyterians, with like denominational intent, started their own separate institution, Oglethorpe University, at the village of Midway. This last, however, in a few years, for lack of adequate support from a community comparatively few in numbers, was suspended. The two others, supported liberally from the beginning by their denominations, rose speedily into successful rivalry with the State University, averaging during fifty

years at least as many pupils and imparting about as good college education. Curricula of studies have been substantially the same in all, and alumni from all have risen to highest professional positions and made distinguished careers. Eminent specialists in any branch have not been sent forth because of lack of the means of specialization possessed by such as Harvard, Yale, and Johns Hopkins. If these six hundred and upward of youth had been at the university instead of divided among three colleges, and the sentiment of all parties had been in its support, it would have been before now equal to any in the country. The existence of continued rivalry and the apparent need of continual struggle in each to be equal if not foremost, tended to lower the standard of scholarship in bestowal of degrees. Bachelors of arts and masters of arts by hundreds have been so dubbed with insufficient consideration of what are imported by those high distinctions. Whoever aimed at special education in any department went out of the State to obtain it; and they do so yet.

Looking back to Abram Baldwin and those who acted under his leadership, one is continually reminded of the misfortune of his death, to be succeeded by none in influence and authority to perpetuate and extend his ideas. Like Lycurgus, he estimated that highest education among other things was necessary to the founding of a new State. From Crete, Lycurgus brought Thales to Lacedæmon, whom, professing to be only a lyric poet, he saw to be a wise lawgiver besides. "The very songs which he composed," said Plutarch, "were exhortations to obedience and concord, and the very measure and cadence of the verse, conveying impressions of order and tranquillity, had so great influence on the minds of the listeners that they were insensibly softened and civilized, insomuch that they renounced their feuds and animosities and were united in a common admiration of virtue. So that it may be said that Thales prepared the way for the discipline introduced by Lycurgus." Further on are these words touching Homer's poem: "Here" (in Crete) "he had the first sight of Homer's works in the hands, we may suppose, of the posterity of Creophylos;[1] and, having observed that the few loose expressions and actions of ill example which are to be found in his poems were much outweighed by serious lessons of State and rules of morality, he set himself eagerly to transcribe and digest them into order, as thinking they would be of good use in his own country. They had, indeed, obtained some slight repute amongst the Greeks, and scattered portions, as chance conveyed them, were in the hands of individuals; but Lycurgus first made them really known."

Baldwin, brought up at time-honored Yale, and devoting four other years to participation in its discipline, sought and hoped to found its like in the young State of his adoption. A foundation was laid broad, benign, and wise. The following four sections in the act of 1785 show how wide was the scope of his intentions:

"SEC. IX. All officers appointed to the instruction and government of the university shall be of the Christian religion, and within three months after they enter upon the execution of their trust shall publicly take the oath of allegiance and fidelity and the oaths of office prescribed in the statutes of the university—the president, before the governor or president of the council, and all other officers before the president of the university.

"SEC. X. The president, professors, tutors, students, and all officers and servants of the university, whose office requires their constant attendance, shall be, and they are hereby, excused from military duty, and from all such like duties and services; and all lands and other property of the university is hereby exempted from taxation.

"SEC. XI. The trustees shall not exclude any person of any religious denomination whatever from free and equal liberty and advantages of education, or from any of the liberties, privileges, and immunities of the university in his education, on account of his, her, or their speculative sentiments in religion, or being of a different religious profession."[2]

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[1] A contemporary epic poet and friend of Homer.

[2] Prince's Digest, pp. 868, 869.

"SEC. XIV. All public schools, instituted or to be supported by funds or public moneys in this State, shall be considered as parts or members of the university, and shall be under the foregoing directions and regulations.

"SEC. XV. Whatsoever public measures are necessary to be adopted for accomplishing these great and important designs the trustees shall from time to time represent and lay before the general assembly."

Baldwin's aim, as in the judiciary, to have one supreme appellate court for regulating all other judicial tribunals already and to be hereafter established, was to have one great university which should guide all lesser institutions, private and public, of every grade, and become the center whither aspirants in all branches in time should resort for complete special requisitions.

That the people of Georgia, despite this one unhappy mistake, have always been disposed toward education of its youth of both sexes, indeed fully as much so as those of any other State in the Union, has been over and often evinced. To mention only the Wesleyan Female College, at Macon (claimed to be the oldest of its kind in the world), and its nearly or quite twenty followers in several other towns and villages, the general assembly, from time to time, made appropriations to existing academies, and various provisions designed to give education to all, including the poor. As early as 1792, and later, in 1810, acts were passed authorizing disposition of part of the proceeds of the sales of confiscated property among the four academies then in existence. In 1817 an act was passed, as follows:

"Whereas it is universally acknowledged that in all well-regulated governments, and particularly that form of government under which we have the happiness to live, the education of youth, and the general advancement of useful knowledge, are objects of primary importance; and

"Whereas the present system of education in this State is not well calculated for the general diffusion and equal distribution of useful learning:

"SEC. I. *Be it therefore enacted, &c.*, That from and immediately after the passage of this act the sum of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars be, and the same is hereby, set apart and appropriated for the future endowment and support of free schools throughout this State: *Provided*, That nothing contained herein shall prevent any future general assembly from repealing the whole or any part of the above-recited law."

This evinces both the universal desire to promote education and the incipient lack of trustful support of the university, and want of intelligence as to the precise definite purpose to which the appropriation ought to be devoted.

An attempt at definiteness was made in the year 1820 by the following act:

"All such funds as now are or hereafter may come into the possession of this State, or may hereafter become due to the same on account of confiscated or reverted property or the sales thereof, and for forfeited land, and all such funds as may accrue to the State under the several escheat laws thereof, provided such escheated property has not been heretofore set apart to other special purposes by law, be, and the same is hereby, set apart as a fund for the promotion of literature and the advancement of the county academies in the manner heretofore pointed out.

"SEC. II. The fund herein contemplated and set apart for literature purposes shall be distributed among the county academies in this State in such proportions as appear to be still due as contemplated by the act of 1792."

In the following year, December 21, 1821, the sum of $500,000 was set apart, "the one half for the support and encouragement of free schools and the other half for the endowment of county academies."

Yet distrust was exhibited in Section VI, the last, by the words, "Nothing in this act contained shall be so construed as to prevent any future general assembly from altering or repealing this act, or any part thereof."

The action of subsequent legislatures on the subject of education shows earnest appreciation of its importance and as earnest zeal for its advancement and universal diffusion; but these generous sentiments failed of great results because of, what

became at last, settled departure from the plan considered by Baldwin and continued want of leaders who were or could be made by study and reflection competent for their direction. Instead of providing first for the highest, the idea grew that existing degrees were as high as there was any need for, and the strain was to let every youth in the State have a share in such as was to be gotten. Committees, changing in their make-up every year, made vague reports on existing conditions as they came to them by hearsay, and suggested indefinite resolutions regarding future action. Charges came from the poor that discriminations were made in the odious act creating the poor school fund between their children and the children of the rich. These with others of general mismanagement of the moneys appropriated for education had most discouraging effect. The committee of the legislature of 1828 said: "Such has been the irregular manner in which the reports of academies and free schools have been made that they find it impossible to give such a condensed view of them as can lead to any correct conclusion as to their real state and condition. They had found out but one fact, that, with some honorable exceptions, there had been great waste and misapplication of the funds."[1]

More gloomy yet was the report in the following year, 1829:

"That the present free-school system of the State of Georgia is miserably defective your committee have had but too mortifying testimony in the returns of the several counties submitted to their inspection during the present session. The fund set apart for free schools, although entirely inadequate to effect the important desideratum of furnishing the means for a plain and substantial education to every family in the State under a more regular and economical administration, has, it is feared, been dissipated with comparative little benefit."[1]

Again, in a brief report of the committee appointed by the session of 1836, occur these words:

"From all the information before your committee, there is great imperfection apparent in this system of education, and great laxity in the disbursement of this fund [the poor school], calling for a thorough reformation."

Yet it seems that the committee did not point out the errors in the system, nor to what particulars reformation should be directed. Such committees were composed of its own members, lawyers, planters, merchants, who, although some were educated persons, were without experience in such matters, and must therefore make indefinite reports upon a system which, so far as they had investigated, seemed to be in sore need of betterment, the means of which they left to the legislature in its collected wisdom to devise. If ever committees had indispensable need of experts to conduct their examinations, these did so. Yet it is to be questioned if upon any one a teacher was employed, for no teacher with a school worth the keeping could afford to go to the legislature, abandoning for two months his business, which none but himself could satisfactorily conduct. Doubtless such committees rose as briefly as possible after deciding in their own minds that changes of some sort were sadly needed to be made by somebody.

It was thus that State education languished for years and years, while all minds were honestly desirous that it should flourish if only could be entertained the proper mode of inaugurating, and cultivating, and supporting it. The one sole want was a university—a university in fact as in name. The institution so named began with fair prospects, when Josiah Meigs, a scholarly man, took his seat as its head. So had been the beginning of the old universities under one competent leader, who from time to time drew others who were his likes. So began the University of Pennsylvania, when Dr. Shippen, after completing his education abroad opened a room of his office in Philadelphia for students in medicine. So began Johns Hopkins University when Dr. Gilman came to Baltimore, and commenced the calling, at discreet intervals, of that list of distinguished teachers, who, under his thorough leadership during one score of years, have made it renowned throughout the world. The

[1] Prince's Digest.

premature death of Baldwin was a misfortune whose consequences are still felt after the passing of near a century. His wisdom and sagacity, and the honor in which he and his counsels were held, would have forestalled the accidents which served to withdraw from the institution he had founded the warm affection felt by the whole people at its inception. The complaints herein aforementioned, whether reasonable or not, those in control seemed to take little pains to regard or endeavor to reconcile. It was, therefore, that when the religious denominations took into their own hands the higher education of their youth, a sense of relief came not only to a majority of the people, but to the legislature which had been long partially handling the subject in which they seemed to have little patience because of habitual neglect of pains that would have led to sufficient acquaintance with its multifold needs and the means to supply them. This sense of relief on the part of the legislature appears in the adopted report and resolution of the year 1834, which express "a cordial approbation of the manual-labor system of education, and a willingness to foster and encourage the efforts making to that end by several religious denominations."[1] These denominations, after trial of the manual-labor system for a few years' abandoned it as impracticable.

This much, however, must be said of those institutions. Within them numbers of young men have been educated to the degree which they were able to impart far greater than would have been if they had not existed; that is, assuming that dissatisfaction with the State university was to continue. In that view they have done much good by doubling and trebling the work being done by the university better than which was not possible in the State during the continuance of existing conditions. Unfortunately the degree thus attainable in college has seemed to all, with now and then an exception, satisfactory, and so the State has been without eminent native specialists in any department. Action upon this line has been directed by the idea settled in the majority of minds everywhere, that it is better to give moderate education to the multitude than the very highest to a few, ignoring the fact that the latter policy is of all the most efficacious in effecting the former. If, through legislative enactments (a thing not very probable) or private benefactions, the State college shall become a university indeed, complete in all its appointments, then perhaps a monument, other than the small slab on the outer wall of one of the college buildings inscribed with his name and another's, will be erected to the memory of Abram Baldwin.

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[1] Prince's Digest, p. 29.

CHAPTER XVII.

HORACE MANN.[1]

The educational history of our country is divided roughly into two epochs—that of rural and that of urban education. This is also the struggle that is going on now—to eliminate rural methods and supplant them by urban methods—for it often happens that a city grows in population but is slow to avail itself of the opportunity that a large population and accumulated wealth afford for superior methods of instruction.

The number of cities within the United States containing 8,000 inhabitants and upward was in 1790 only 6; between 1800 and 1810 it increased to 11; in 1820, 13; in 1830, 26; in 1840, 44. In the fifty years between 1840 and 1890 it increased from 44 to 443, or ten times the former number. The urban population in this country in 1790 was, according to the Superintendent of the Census, only 1 in 30 of the population; in 1840 it had increased to 1 in 12; in 1890, to 1 in 3. In fact, if we count the towns on the railroads that are made urban by their close connections with large cities, and the suburban districts, it is safe to say that now one-half of the population is urban.

In sparsely settled regions a district of 4 square miles will furnish only 20, 30, or 40 children of school age, and it follows as a matter of course that the schools were small, their annual sessions very short, the funds to pay teachers scarce, the teachers themselves poorly educated and not professionally trained. For the first forty years of this nation such was the condition of nine-tenths of all the schools. By 1830 the growth of cities began to be felt.

As villages grew, and after the railroad had connected them to the large cities, bringing them into contact with urban life, graded schools began to exist and to hold an annual session of ten or eleven months. This required the services of a person whose entire vocation was teaching. One of the chief defects of the rural district school was to be found in the fact that the man who taught the winter school took up teaching as a mere makeshift, depending on his other business or trade (surveyor or clerk or farmer, etc.) for his chief support. There was small chance

[1] An address delivered by William T. Harris before the National Educational Association at Buffalo, N. Y., July 7, 1896. Reprinted from the Educational Review, New York, September, 1896.

for the acquirement of any knowledge of the true methods of teaching. Another evil, more prominent than the former, was the letting down of standards caused by the low qualifications of the average committeeman. The town as a whole could afford a school committee of high qualifications; the average district rarely. The township system, therefore, attains a far higher standard of efficiency than the district system.

When the villages began to catch the urban spirit and establish graded schools with a full annual session there came a demand for a higher order of teacher—the professional teacher, in short. This caused a comparison of ideals, and the most enlightened in the community began an agitation of the school question, and supervision was demanded. In Massachusetts, where the urban civilization had made most progress, this agitation resulted in the formation of a State board of education in 1837 and the employment of Horace Mann as its secretary (June, 1837). Boston had been connected with Providence and Worcester and Lowell by railroads before 1835, and in 1842 the first great trunk railroad had been completed through Springfield to Albany, opening to Boston a communication with the great West by the Erie Canal and the newly completed railroad from Albany to Buffalo. This was the beginning of the great urban epoch in America that has gone on increasing in potency to this day.

Horace Mann came to the head of education in Massachusetts just at the beginning of this epoch of railroads and the growth of cities. He attacked with unsparing severity the evils of the schools as he found them, these evils being chiefly the survivals of the rural-school epoch. The school-district system, introduced into Connecticut in 1701, into Rhode Island about 1750, and into Massachusetts in 1789, was pronounced by Horace Mann to be the most disastrous feature in the whole history of educational legislation in Massachusetts. Side by side with the new impulse given to education in the villages, no doubt the district system seemed very bad. Its evils were manifest in the opposition to central graded schools, which were needed in the populous villages, but which would break up the old district lines. Local power is never given up to a central power without a struggle. The stubbornness of this contest on the part of local committeemen was continued long after the adoption of the township system in Massachusetts and elsewhere. The district fought for its "rights" through its representatives on the town board, thereby postponing the feasible consolidation of districts and the formation of properly classified schools.

Let us dwell a moment on this advantage of consolidated or "union" schools, so called, in New York State and the West. In the rural school, isolated as it was, all grades of pupils from the lowest primary up to the secondary came together under one master, who had to give individual instruction to each, finding only five minutes or a little more for such lesson. Under such circumstances he could not well manage over 20 or 30 pupils. In his classes, each formed of one pupil in those

branches other than reading and spelling, he might have done better teaching had he had two pupils instead of one, for the child learns almost as much from paying attention to the efforts of his classmate to recite as from his own. A skillful teacher can make a recitation by an entire class of 20 or 30 pupils of even grade of advancement far more instructive to each pupil than a private tutor can make the same lesson to his one pupil. The other pupils of the class furnish a sort of bridge between the teacher's mind (that sees or should see the topic under discussion in its relations to all human learning) and the individual pupil's mind (that sees the topic in its barest outlines and has scarcely learned its relations to other topics), for each pupil gets some one-sided view of it for himself in preparing his lesson and sees in the class exercise (which we call "recitation" in our American school technique) many other one-sided views presented by his fellow-pupils, who are not likely to repeat his one-sided view, but to have others, equally distorted, of their own.

Suppose two ungraded schools to be united in one and divided again according to grade, the 30 pupils youngest and in lowest elementary studies taken by one teacher and the other 30 pupils taken by the other teacher. One-half of the number of classes is saved by consolidation and each teacher has twice as much time for each class exercise or recitation. He can find more time to go into the merits of the subject when he has ten minutes instead of five minutes.

In a populous village a school of 500 pupils is collected. There is a teacher for each 50 pupils, making 10 in all; for nearly twice as many pupils can be taught by each teacher in a well-graded school as in an ungraded school. Each of these 10 teachers divides his 50 pupils into two classes according to advancement, and classes average a half year's difference in their intervals of progress from the classes above or below. He has thirty minutes for each recitation. It is now possible to promote a bright pupil, who is not finding enough to do in the tasks set for his class, to the next class above, for he can soon make up what he has omitted by the leap from one class to another. So, too, a pupil who is falling behind his class can take up his work with the next class below and find it better suited to his powers.

It was an insight into this principle that led Martin Luther to insist on grading the schools. The Jesuits, who were the first to seize on the chief weapon of the Protestants—namely, education for the people—and turn it against them in the interest of the Catholic Church, formed a school system in 1590, and also took much pains with grading and classification.

Horace Mann's efforts did not at once abolish the district system in Massachusetts, but they prevailed to consolidate districts in populous sections of the State. His school reports were widely read outside of the State, and spread the agitation of the school question into Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, and elsewhere. Connecticut

succeeded in abolishing her district system in 1856, but Massachusetts clung to it until 1869, after several vain attempts to get rid of it. In this action she was followed by Maine in 1872. And this is what the State superintendent of Maine says of the evils of the district system in an able summary:

> First, the school moneys were inequably divided, some districts receiving much more than they could profitably expend, others much less than was absolutely needed; second, poor schoolhouses in remote and sparsely settled districts; third, short schools, or poor ones, if the agent attempted to lengthen them by hiring cheap teachers. Little money, poor schoolhouses, short schools are the necessary attendants of this system.

Horace Mann extended his criticisms and suggestions to the examination of teachers and their instruction in institutes; to the improvement of school buildings; the raising of school funds by taxation; the creating of a correct public opinion on school questions; the care for vicious youth in appropriate schools. He discarded the hidebound text-book method of teaching and substituted the oral discussion of the topic in place of the memorizing of the words of the book. He encouraged school libraries and school apparatus.

Horace Mann's influence aided in founding the first normal school in the United States at Lexington (afterward removed to Framingham), and a second one at Barre, both in 1839, and a third one at Bridgewater, in the fall of the next year.

Inspired by the example in Massachusetts, Connecticut was aroused by Henry Barnard, who carried through the legislature the act organizing a State board of commissioners, and became himself the first secretary of it (1849). In 1849 Connecticut established a normal school. In 1843 Mr. Barnard went to Rhode Island and assisted in drawing up the State school law, under which he became the first commissioner, and labored there for six years.

These were the chief fermenting influences in education that have worked a wide change in the management of schools in the Middle and Western States within the past fifty years. Let us consider some of those points more in detail and get a little closer to the personality of the hero whom we commemorate here.

There had been in Massachusetts from 1789 to 1839—a period of fifty years—an apparent retrogression of education. This apparent retrogression was due to the increase of local self-government and the decrease of central, especially parochial, authority. It was a necessary and on the whole a healthful movement. The central power had been largely theocratic or ecclesiastical at the beginning. But the reaction against ecclesiastical control went too far in the direction of individualism. The farthest swing of the pendulum in this direction was reached in 1828, when the districts obtained the exclusive control of the schools in all matters except in the item of examination of teachers. The public schools diminished in efficiency, and a twofold opposition began

some years before 1828, which took, on the one hand, the shape of an attempt to remedy the deficiency of public schools by the establishment of academies, and, on the other hand, that of a vigorous attack by educational reformers, such as Horace Mann and his devoted contemporary, James G. Carter. The establishment of a State board of education and the appointment of Horace Mann as its secretary, therefore, mark an era of return from the extreme of individualism to the proper union of local and central authority in the management of schools.

Horace Mann's function at this very important epoch was that of educational statesman. We must not permit our attention to be distracted from this point if we would behold the greatness and beneficence of his labors. Pestalozzi was essentially an educational missionary, a teacher of pupils in the first grade of the elementary school.

Horace Mann was equally an educational missionary, for he consecrated himself religiously to the task of promoting the school education of the people. Other people, all people, select vocations in which they are to work and earn a livelihood. But the missionary consecrates his whole life to a chosen work, not for what it will return to him in wealth or honor, but for the intrinsic worth of the object to be accomplished as a good for the human race.

The enthusiasm of Horace Mann shone out of his soul in his praise of the act of the Massachusetts legislature establishing the State board of education in 1837:

> This board I believe to be like a spring, almost imperceptible, flowing from the highest table-land, between oceans, which is destined to deepen and widen as it descends, diffusing fertility and beauty in its course, and nations shall dwell upon its banks. It is the first great movement toward an organized system of common education, which shall at once be thorough and universal.

It was he that was to succeed in making that State board of education the fertilizing spring that he describes. It was a board with limited powers. It could not found schools nor direct or manage them after they were founded. It could only collect information and diffuse it. It could persuade the people, but not command them. In a nation founded upon the idea of local self-government it was a very great achievement to show what can be accomplished by a board that can not coerce but only persuade. This is the point of view to see Horace Mann's greatness. One thinks of the potency of Peter the Hermit preaching a crusade. It was a crusade that Horace Mann preached in his twelve reports and in his hundreds of popular addresses, and in his thousands of letters, written with his own hand.

The first report of Horace Mann, as secretary, was made in 1837, and contains the best statement ever made of the duties of school committees, especially in the selection of teachers. It sets forth the apathy of the people regarding the schools and regrets the employment of incompetent teachers. (48 pp.)

There was a supplementary report on schoolhouses which discussed the matter of ventilation and warming, the proper kind of desks, the location of the building, the lighting of the room, the playgrounds, and the duties of the teacher in regard to light and ventilation. (60 pp.)

In the second report, 1838, there is much discussion of the method of teaching reading, whether by letters or by the word method. A just criticism is made upon the character of the school reading books. (60 pp.)

In the third report, 1839, he discusses the responsibility of the people for the improvement in common schools, the employment of children in manufactories, the importance of libraries, and the kind of books needed, the effect of reading on the formation of character, and recommends strongly the establishment of school-district libraries. (52 pp.)

The fourth report, 1840, points out the desirability of union schools for the sake of grading and classifying the pupils and cheapening the cost of instruction. It shows the value of regularity and punctuality in attendance. (40 pp.)

The fifth report, 1841, has a world-wide fame for its presentation of the advantages of education, the effect of it upon the fortunes of men, the production of property, the multiplication of human comforts, and all the elements of material well-being. He showed how education awakened thought, increased the resources of the individual, opening his eyes to the possibility of combinations not seen by the uneducated. The circular letter which he prepared, making inquiries of manufacturers and men of business, is the most suggestive letter of its kind. This report deserves to be published in a pamphlet and placed in the hands of the people of every generation. (37 pp.)

In his sixth report, 1842, he presents the subject of physiology and its importance as a branch to be taught in the schools. (100 pp.)

The seventh report, 1843, records his observations in European schools, and starts endless questions regarding the methods of organization and instruction, bringing into light the questions of corporal punishment and the overcultivation of the memory of words. He describes in an eloquent manner the evils of a partial system of education and treats in a judicial manner the advantages and disadvantages of the schools that he found in Scotland, Prussia, and Saxony. (190 pp.)

In the eighth report, 1844, he treats of the employment of female teachers and of the method of conducting teachers' institutes, teachers' associations, and the study of vocal music. (30 pp.)

In his ninth report, 1845, he discusses the motives to which the teacher should appeal, describes the school vices to be avoided, points out the transcendent importance of moral instruction, and shows how obedience should be secured by affection and respect and not by fear. He treats of the dangers of truancy and the prevention of whispering, and a variety of practical difficulties that meet the teacher in the

schoolroom and shows how to avoid the evils of emulation, and commends the system of instruction by induction instead of deduction and the importance of substituting investigation for memorizing. (104 pp.)

The tenth report, 1846, gives the history of the common-school system in Massachusetts and shows the relation which education holds to the future generations of the Commonwealth. (35 pp.)

The eleventh report, 1847, makes a strong presentation of the power of the common schools to redeem the State from social evils and crimes. There is a circular letter of inquiry with regard to the effect of education in the prevention of vice and crime. The letter of 1841 had inquired regarding the effect of education upon thrift and industry. Replies obtained to the letter of 1847 gave encouraging facts and opinions in regard to the moral effect of school education. The report continues to discuss the qualifications of teachers and the methods of securing regular attendance of children, and paints a picture of the effect of universal education.

> Every follower of God and friend of human kind will find the only sure means of carrying forward the particular reform to which he is devoted in universal education. In whatever department of philanthropy he may be engaged, he will find that department to be only a segment of the great circle of beneficence of which universal education is the center and circumference. (80 pp.)

The twelfth and last report of Horace Mann presents anew the capacity of the common-school system to improve the pecuniary condition and elevate the intellectual, moral, and religious character of the Commonwealth, repeating with new force the arguments brought forward in previous reports. He shows the importance of religion and the reading of the Bible in the common school; shows the importance of health and the necessity of providing for physical training in the schoolroom; sets forth the necessity of the schools for the political education of the citizens. His devices to show the use of intelligence gained in the schools to the mechanic, the merchant, and the farmer seem inexhaustible. (120 pp.)

As a consequence of the seventh report, which sets forth the advantages of the schools of Germany, there arose the famous controversy with the 31 Boston schoolmasters.

In studying the records of Massachusetts, one is impressed by the fact that every new movement in education has run the gauntlet of fierce and bitter opposition before adoption. The ability of the conservative party has always been conspicuous, and the friends of the new measure have been forced to exert all their strength, and to eliminate one after another the objectionable features discovered in advance by their enemies. To this fact is due the success of so many of the reforms and improvements that have proceeded from this State. The fire of criticism has purified the gold from the dross in a large measure already before the stage of practical experiment has begun. In reviewing this long record of bitter quarrels over new measures that have now become

old and venerable because of their good results in all parts of the nation, we are apt to become impatient and blame too severely the conservative party in Massachusetts.

We forget that the opposition helped to perfect the theory of the reform, and did much to make it a real advance instead of a mere change from one imperfect method to another. Even at best, educational changes are often only changes of fashion—the swing of the pendulum from one extreme to another—and sure to need correction by a fresh reaction. Again, it is patent in Massachusetts history that the defects of old methods were in great part remedied by the good sense and skill of many highly cultured teachers who still practiced them, and hence the wholesale denunciation of the old methods was felt to be unjust. The best teachers resented the attack on their methods. It seemed unfair, because it charged against the method all the mistakes committed by inexperience and stupidity, and because, too, it claimed more for the new device than could be realized. The old was condemned for its poor results in the hands of the most incompetent, while the new was commended as the ideal without considering what it would become in the hands of unfaithful teachers.

Take as an instance of this the use of text-books. Everyone will admit that what is called the "slavish use" of such means is a great evil. The memorizing of words and sentences, without criticism and reflection on their meaning, is a mechanical training of the mind and fit only for parrots. But on the other hand, the proper use of the printed page is the greatest of all arts taught in the school. How to get out of printed words and sentences the original thought and observation recorded there—how to verify these and critically go over the steps of the author's mind—this is the method of discovery and leads to the only real progress. For real progress comes from availing one's self of the wisdom of the race and using it as an instrument of new discovery. That other method sometimes commended, of original investigation without aid from books, forgets that mankind has toiled for long thousands of years to construct a ladder of achievement and that civilization is on the highest round of this ladder. It has invented school education in order that its youth may climb quickly to the top on the rounds which have been added one by one, slowly, in the lapse of ages. The youth shall profit vicariously by the thought and experience of those who have gone before. For the child of the savage tribe there is no such vicarious thinking and living; he begins practically at the bottom of this ladder, with no rounds on which he may climb.

Now, there was in Massachusetts and elsewhere much excellent teaching in the academies and common schools—teaching which trained the pupil to criticise and verify instead of to accept the statements of the book with blind credulity. The good teachers knew that their methods were good and felt indignant to hear them caricatured and an inferior method recommended as a substitute.

For the merely oral method does not possess in it the capability of producing the independent scholar who can be trained by holding him responsible for mastering critically the printed page and making alive again its thoughts and perceptions. It was a sense of something valuable in the old method that was not touched by the criticisms of Horace Mann that led to the reply of the Boston masters.

Here we come to the closer view of the character of Horace Mann. He was, like so many of the great men of the Puritans, modeled on the type of the Hebrew prophets. The close and continuous study of the characters portrayed in the Old Testament, the weekly sermons, most of which were studies of those characters, had educated all Puritans to see ideals of character in ancient leaders who devoted themselves to a cause and withstood popular clamor, fiercely denouncing whatever form of idol worship they saw among their countrymen.

The ideal of a strong, serious-minded, independent manhood, unswerved by personal interest, thoroughly patriotic, and devoted to the public interest, it draws its support from a sense of righteousness that gives it a backbone coterminous with the axis on which the universe revolves. So long as this character is recognized and respected, and has in the main the support of the community, small and great, it stands firm like an oak, and thrives on the hostility of the elements in society that it opposes.

But this species of character modeled on the Hebrew prophet, it should be said, is far more likely to be an inward tragedy than a genuine historical one. The average man puts on the air of a censor of his age or his community and develops an overweening egotism, or he poses as an unappreciated genius for poetry, or philosophy, or philanthropy, or statesmanship, or theology, or ethical purity of character.

The pathway of history for eighteen centuries is strewn with wrecked individualities of men who have become fanatics or cranks through the demoniac possession of a single idea and the self-delusion—a suggestion of the evil one—that they are exceptionally wise and gifted above their fellow-men; that they, in short, are right and the world all wrong.

It is saved from being a tragedy in Horace Mann, and in other great men before and after who have personified this Hebrew-prophet type of reformer, by the greatness of the cause they have espoused and by their self-sacrificing devotion to it.

The Great Teacher gave the one prescription to ward off the fatal disease that attacks this Hebrew individualism, and that prescription is humility and self-abasement. Its intellectual rule is the measure by service of one's fellows: Be their servant if you would rule over them.

But we have from this ideal the most important fruition of all human history, namely, the development of individualism and the formation of a set of institutions to nurture it.

We have characters that are so strong that they can withstand any amount of opposition from their fellow-men and still stand erect without fear. "One with God is a majority."

Thus Horace Mann was intrenched in his fundamental principle, and on all occasions returned to it to rally his strength. In his own words he describes his conviction and at the same time lays down the details of his policy and methods of winning success:

The education of the whole people in a republican government can never be attained without the consent of the whole people. Compulsion, even if it were desirable, is not an available instrument. Enlightenment, not coercion, is our resource. The nature of education must be explained. The whole mass of mind must be instructed in regard to its comprehension and enduring interests. We can not drive our people up a dark avenue, even though it be the right one; but we must hang the starry lights of knowledge about it, and show them not only the directness of its course to the goal of prosperity and honor, but the beauty of the way that leads to it.

In some districts there will be but a single man or woman, in some towns scarcely half a dozen men or women, who have espoused this noble enterprise; but whether there be half a dozen or but one, they must be like the little leaven which a woman took and hid in three measures of meal. Let the intelligent visit the ignorant day by day, as the oculist visits the blind man and detaches the scales from his eyes, until the living sense leaps in the living light.

Let the zealous seek contact and communion with those who are frozen up in indifference, and thaw off the icebergs wherein they lie embedded. Let the love of beautiful childhood, the love of country, the dictates of reason, the admonitions of conscience, the sense of religious responsibility, be plied in mingled tenderness and earnestness until the obdurate and dark mass of avarice, ignorance, and prejudice shall be dissipated by their blended light and heat.

He preached the same doctrine regarding the right of the state to educate at public expense that James G. Carter had preached. It is stated in these simple propositions:

1. The successive generations of men, taken collectively, constitute a great commonwealth.

2. The property of the commonwealth is pledged for the education of all its youth up to such a point as will save them from poverty and vice and prepare them for adequate performance of their social and civil duties.

3. The successive holders of this property are trustees bound to the faithful execution of this trust by the most sacred obligations; and the embezzlement and pillage from children and descendants have not less of criminality, but far more than the same offenses when perpetrated against contemporaries.

The net result of Mr. Mann's labors in his great career as educational statesman is put tersely by Mr. Martin in these words:

In the evolution of the Massachusetts public schools during these twelve years of Mr. Mann's labors, statistics tell us that the appropriations for public schools had doubled; that more than $2,000,000 had been spent in providing better schoolhouses; that the wages of men as teachers had increased 62 per cent, of women 51 per cent, while the whole number of women employed as teachers had increased 54 per cent; one month had been added to the average length of the schools; the ratio of private-school expenditures to those of the public schools had diminished from 75 per cent to 36 per cent; the compensation of school committees had been made compulsory, and their supervision was more general and more constant; three normal schools had been established, and had sent out several hundred teachers, who were making themselves felt in all parts of the State.[1]

[1] Martin's Education in Massachusetts, p. 174.

In conclusion, I suggest again the thought of Mr. Mann as a character inspired with missionary zeal to reform society by means of the school system. It was this missionary zeal that led him to advocate in the Massachusetts legislature the first insane asylum and secure its establishment; to favor the establishment of asylums for deaf, dumb, and blind; to secure normal schools, humane school discipline, methods of instruction that appeal to the child's interest and arouse him to self-activity, and finally to devote the evening of his life to the Antioch College experiment.

It is this missionary zeal for the school that works so widely and in so many followers to-day. What enthusiastic teacher is not proud to be called a disciple of Horace Mann?

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LETTER TO THE COMMISSIONER.

1918 SUNDERLAND PLACE,
Washington, D. C., 9 Dec., 1896.

DEAR SIR. I accede very gladly to your offer to publish in your annual report the material I have gathered for a bibliography of my father, Horace Mann. I regret that the work is not more complete.

I have in my possession many interesting and valuable fragments of publications on the subject, which cannot be included in this list because I do not know where or when they were published. I have also a large number of indefinite references to publications which I have not been able to see. Beyond these, I have reason to believe that much material exists of which I know nothing.

I avail myself of the opportunity afforded by this publication to ask all persons kindly disposed to acquaint me with the titles of all publications relating to Horace Mann, not mentioned in this list, that I may further complete the work. I would like to receive definite references, and to know where the publications can be found. I would like also to obtain copies where such can be had.

Yours respectfully,

B: PICKMAN MANN.

Hon. WM. T. HARRIS, LL. D.,
U. S. Commissioner of Education.

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Massachusetts — *Board of education.* Fourth annual report of the Board of education, together with the fourth annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston, 1841. 108 p., O.

Reprint. (Common school journal, 15 Jul.–15 Dec. 1841, v. 3, no. 14–24, p. 219–224, 238–240, 248–256, 270–272, 281–288, 302–304, 311–320, 333–336, 340–352, 359–368, 378–384.)

Mann, Horace. Importance of visible illustrations in common schools. (Connecticut common school journal, 1 Jan. 1841, v. 3, p. 61–62.)

[**Barnard**, H:] Abstract of Massachusetts school returns for 1840–41. . . . (Connecticut common school journal, 1 Feb. 1841, v. 3, p. 82–93.)

[**Barnard**, H:] Massachusetts. Fourth annual report of the Board of education, together with the fourth annual report of the secretary of the board. (Connecticut common school journal, 1841, v. 3: 1 Apr., p. 140–144; 1 May, p. 145–159.)

[**Combe**, G:] Education in America: State of Massachusetts. (Edinburgh review, Jul. 1841, v. 73, p. 486–502.)

Mann, Horace. A lecture on the best mode of preparing and using spelling-books, delivered before the American institute of instruction, August, 1841. Boston: *William D. Ticknor*. 1841. 40 p., D.

Mann, Horace. Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns, for 1840–41. Boston, 1841. 16 + 328 p., O.

Massachusetts — *Board of education.* Fifth annual report of the Board of education, together with the fifth annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston, 1842. 135 p., O.

[Another edition.] (Massachusetts — *Legislature — Senate.* Senate . . . No. 4.) Boston, 1842. 135 p., O.

Reprint. (Common school journal, 15 Oct.–15 Dec. 1842, v. 4, no. 20–24, p. 314–381.)

[**Barnard**, H:] Massachusetts. Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns for 1840–41, prepared by the secretary of the Board of education. p. 328. Fifth annual report of the Board of education, together with the fifth annual of the secretary of the board. p. 135. (Connecticut common school journal, 1 June 1842, v. 4, p. 136–139.)

Mann, Horace. An oration delivered before the authorities of the city of Boston, July 4, 1842. Boston, 1842. t.-p. cover + t.-p., 86 p., O.

Mann, Horace. An oration, delivered before the authorities of the city of Boston, July 4, 1842. By Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education. [4th ed.] [Seal.] Boston: *Wm. B. Fowle and Nahum Capen, and Tappan & Dennet.* 1842. t.-p. cover, n. t.-p., + 31 p., O.

Same. 5th ed. 31 p., O.

Oration (An) delivered before the authorities of the city of Boston, July 4, 1842. By Horace Mann. (Christian examiner, Nov. 1842, v. 33; s. 3, v. 15, p. 258–262.)

Mann, Horace. Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns, for 1841–42. Boston, 1842. 8 + 256 + 48 p., O.

[**Mann's** anniversary oration.] (Quarterly review [London], Mar. 1843, v. 71, p. 523–528.)

Mann, Horace. Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns, for 1842–43. [Boston, 1843.] ½-t.-p. cover, n. t.-p., + 48 p., O.

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* Sixth annual report of the Board of education, together with the sixth annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston, 1843. 160 p., O.

Reprint. (Common school journal, 15 June–16 Nov. 1843, v. 5, no. 12–22, p. 186–203, 216–236, 247–268, 280–299, 311–326, 347–352.)

J ———, E. Sixth annual report of the Board of education. With the sixth annual report of the secretary of the board. (Christian examiner, July 1843, v. 34; s. 3, v. 16, p. 366–381.)

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* Seventh annual report of the Board of education; together with the seventh annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston: 1844. 199 p., O.

Reprint. (Common school journal, 15 Feb.–15 June 1844, v. 6, no. 4–12, p. 62–196.) Extra of nos. 5, 5 extra, and 6–12, with old paging. [Boston, *Fowle & Capen*, 1844.] n. t.-p., p. 65–200, O.

[**Newton**, E: A.] Christian education. (Christian witness & church advocate [Boston], 23 Feb. 1844, v. 10, no. 1, p. 3, col. 3–4, 30 cm.)

[**Howe**, M: Anthony DeWolfe, *ed.*] The system of public education in Massachusetts. (Christian witness . . ., 8 Mar. 1844, v. 10, no. 3, p. 10, col. 1–2, 85 cm.)

Watchman, *pseud.* No schools without a bishop. (Boston courier, 12 Mar. 1844, v. 20, no. 6141, p. 2, col. 3, 64 cm.)

[**Howe**, M: A. D. W., *ed.*] Christian education. (Christian witness . . ., 15 Mar. 1844, v. 10, no. 4, p. 14–15, 14 cm.)

Mann, Horace. To the editor of the Christian witness and church advocate. (Christian witness . . ., 29 March 1844, v. 10, no. 6, p. 1, col. 1–5, 214 cm.)

[**Howe**, M: A. D. W., *ed.*] The bible in the schools. (Christian witness . . . , 29 Mar. 1844, v. 10, no. 6, p. 22, col. 1–3, 76 cm.)

Watchman, *pseud.* No schools without a bishop. No. 2. (Boston courier, 30 Mar. 1844, v. 20, no. 6156, p. 2, col. 3, 36 cm.)

Board of education (The). The Christian witness versus the Hon. Horace Mann. (Bay state democrat [Boston], 3 Apr. 1844, v. 4, no. 283, p. 2, col. 1–2, 81 cm.)

Foster, Alfred D., *sign.* A. D. F. The board of education—Its secretary—"The witness." (National ægis [Worcester, Mass.], 3 Apr. 1844, v. 7, no. 14, p. 2, col. 5, 27 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Horace Mann. To the editor of the Christian witness and church advocate. (Boston daily advertiser . . ., 4 Apr. 1844, v. 63, no. 82, p. 1, col. 4–6, 176 cm.)

Sectarian attack on the public schools. (Trumpet [Boston], 6 Apr. 1844, no. 1288, v. 25; n. s., v. 14, no. 42, p. 166, col. 5–6, 360 cm.)

P———, T. Mr. Mann's letter to the "Christian witness." (Boston daily advertiser . . ., 8 Apr. 1844, v. 63, no. 84, p. 2, col. 2, 54 cm.)

Hon. Horace Mann. (News letter [Westfield, Mass.], 12 Apr. 1844, v. 4, no. 7, p. 2, col. 4, 34 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Common schools and the Christian witness. (Boston courier, 11 Apr. 1844, v. 20, no. 6165, p. 2, col. 2, 13 cm.)

Board of education (The). (Salem [Mass.] observer, 13 Apr. 1844, v. 22, no. 15, p. 2, col. 1–2, 87 cm.)

Common schools (The). (Evening gazette [Boston], 13 Apr. 1844.) [Not seen.]

Watchman, *pseud.* No schools without a bishop. No. 3. (Boston courier, 16 Apr. 1844, v. 20, no. 6169, p. 1, col. 7, 46 cm.)

Seventh annual report of the Board of educaion [*sic*], together with the seventh annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston: 1844. 8vo. pp. 199. (North American review, Apr. 1844, no. 123, v. 58, p. 518.)

[Howe, M: A. D. W., *ed.*] Religion and the schools. (Christian witness . . ., 17 May 1844, v. 10, no. 13, p. 49, col. 4–5, 48 cm.)

Newton, E: A. Our common schools. (Christian witness . . ., 17 May 1844, v. 10, no. 13, p. 51, col. 1–3, 100 cm.)

X———. The renewal of the attack of the Christian witness and church advocate on the Board of education. (Boston daily advertiser, *after* 17 May 1844.) [Not seen.]

Christian witness (The) again. (Bay state democrat, 25 May 1844, v. 5, no. 24, p. 2, col. 2, 38 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Our common schools. (Boston courier, 29 May 1844, v. 20, no. 6206, p. 1, col. 5–7, 206 cm.)

Foster, A. D., *sign.* A. D. F. To "E. A. N." (National ægis, 29 May 1844, v. 7, no. 22, p. 2, col. 6, 55 cm.)

[Buckingham, Joseph T., *ed.*] Our common schools. (Boston courier, 4 June 1844, v. 20, no. 6211, p. 1, col. 5, 66 cm.)

Burnside, S: M. To Hon. Horace Mann. (National ægis, 5 June 1844, v. 7, no. 23, p. 2, col. 5–6, 60 cm.)

Civis, *pseud.* Our common school law. (New England puritan [Boston], 7 June 1844, v. 5, no. 23, p. 1, col. 5, 52 cm.)

Common school controversy (The); consisting of three letters of the secretary of the Board of education, of the state of Massachusetts, in reply to charges preferred against the board, by the editor of the Christian witness and by Edward A. Newton esq. of Pittsfield, once a member of the board; to which are added extracts from the daily press, in regard to the controversy. Boston: 1844. 55 p., O.

Notice. (Boston daily advertiser . . . . 24 July 1844, v. 64, no. 20, p. 2, col. 2, 8 cm.)

[Howe, M: A. D. W., *ed.*] Religious instruction in the common schools. (Christian witness . . ., 26 July 1844, v. 10, no. 23, p. 90, col. 4–5, 20 cm.)

Field, Barnum, *et al.* Remarks on the seventh annual report of the Hon. Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education. Boston: *Charles C. Little and James Brown.* [Sep.] 1844. 144 p., O.

[Emerson, G: B.] Observations on a pamphlet, entitled "Remarks on the seventh annual report of the Hon. Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education." [Boston, Sep. 1844.] 16 p., O.

Boston school masters. (Daily mail [Boston, Mass.], 19 Sept. 1844, v. 4, no. 333, p. 2, col. 1, 40 cm.)

Luther, *pseud.* The schoolmaster's review of Mr. Mann's report. (Boston courier, 24 Sept. 1844, v. 20, no. 6305, p. 2, col. 2–3, 40 cm.)

[Peet, H. P.] Seventh annual report of the secretary of the [Massachusetts] Board of education. Common school journal. Boston. Vol. VI. pp. 65–196. (North American review, Oct. 1844, no. 125, v. 59, p. 329–352.)

Extra, entitled, "Review of Mr. Mann's report. From the North American review." [Boston, Oct. 1844.] ½-t.-p. cover + p. 330–352, O.

Allen, G:, *pseud.* Z. The masters' book, or "Remarks on the seventh annual report of the Hon. Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education." Boston: Little & Brown, pp. 144. (Christian citizen [Worcester, Mass.], 12 Oct. 1844, v. 1, no. 41, p. 3, col. 1–4, 146 cm.)

Boston, Mass.—*Primary school board.* Report of the special committee of the Primary school board, on a portion of the remarks of the grammar masters. [Seal.] Boston: 1844. 13p., O.

Mann, Horace. Reply to the "Remarks" of thirty-one Boston schoolmasters on the seventh annual report of the secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education. By Horace Mann, secretary of the board. Boston, *Wm. B. Fowle and Nahum Capen.* [Nov.] 1844. 176p., O.

B ———. Hon. Horace Mann and the thirty-one schoolmasters. (Boston daily atlas, 21 Nov. 1844, v. 13, no. 124, p. 2, col. 1, 34 cm.)

Seventh annual report of the Board of education . . . . Remarks on the Seventh annual report . . . . Observations on a pamphlet entitled, Remarks . . . . Report of the Special committee . . . . Reply to the "Remarks" . . . . (Boston daily atlas, 26 Nov. 1844, v. 13, no. 128, p. 1-2, 204 cm.)

Review of the school controversy. Concluded. (Boston daily atlas, 3 Dec. 1844, v. 13, no. 133, p. 1-2, 287 cm.)

Justice, *pseud.* The Hon. Horace Mann and the schoolmasters. (Boston daily atlas, 5 Dec. 1844, v. 13, no. 135, p. 2, col. 4, 47 cm.)

Hillard, G: S., *sign.* G. S. H. Mr. Mann and the Boston teachers. (Boston daily atlas, 7 Dec. 1844, v. 13, no. 137, p. 2, col. 3–4, 83 cm.)

Justice, *pseud.* Mr. Mann's reply to the Boston school masters. (Boston daily atlas, 7 Dec. 1844, v. 13, no. 137, p. 2, col. 4–5, 61 cm.)

Justice, *pseud.* The Hon. Horace Mann and the school-masters. (Boston daily atlas, 14 Dec. 1844, v. 13, no. 143, p. 2, col. 3, 61 cm.)

H ———, A. School discipline. (Boston daily atlas, 21 Dec. 1844, v. 13, no. 149, p. 2, col. 6, 41 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns, for 1843–44. Boston, 1844. ½-t.-p.+8+336 p., O.

[Bowen, Francis.] Mr. Mann and the teachers of the Boston schools. (North American review, Jan. 1845, v. 60, p. 224–246.)

W. Education in Europe. 1. Seventh annual report of Horace Mann, esq., secretary of the Board of education in Massachusetts, on the state of education in Europe. Boston, 1844. 2 . . . . (Southern quarterly review, Jan. 1845, v. 7, p. 1–74, *especially* p. 1–55.)

Anti-Busby, *pseud.* School discipline. (Boston daily atlas, 7 Jan. 1845, v. 13, no. 163, p. 2, col. 6, 69 cm.) Correction. (*op. cit.*, 8 Jan., no. 164, p. 2, col. 3, 10 cm.)

Massachusetts — *Board of education.* Eighth annual report of the Board of education, together with the eighth annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston, 1845. 136 p., O.

Reprint. (Common school journal, 15 Feb.-1 May 1845, v. 7, no. 4-9, p. 49-142.) Extra, with old paging. [Boston, *Fowle & Capen*, 1845.] t.-p. cover + p. 49-144, O.

[Editor.] Board of education. (Boston daily atlas, 1845, v. 13: 9 Jan., no. 165, p. 2, col. 3, 4 cm.; 10 Jan., no. 166, p. 2, col. 3–4, 116 cm.)

[Editor.] Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns for 1843 and '44. . . . (Boston daily atlas, 10 Jan. 1845, v. 13, no. 166, p. 2, col. 2, 19 cm.)

[Editor.] "We have carefully examined the report of a committee" . . . . (Boston daily atlas, 11 Jan. 1845, v. 13, no. 167, p. 2, col. 3, 13 cm.)

Examiner, *pseud.* The North American and the school controversy. (Boston daily atlas, 10 Feb. 1845, v. 13, no. 192, p. 2, col. 6-7, 32 cm.)

Examiner, *pseud.* The North American and the school controversy. No. 2. (Boston daily atlas, 25 Feb. 1845, v. 13, no. 205, p. 2, col. 6-7, 50 cm.)

[Howe, M: A. D. W., *ed.*] The bible in common schools. (Christian witness . . . . , 28 Feb. 1845, v. 11, no. 2, p. 6, col. 2, 46 cm.)

Wigglesworth, E., *sign.* E. W. Massachusetts Board of education. (Christian examiner, Mar. 1845, v. 38; s. 4, v. 3, p. 229-242.)

[Withington, Leonard.] Penitential tears; or A cry from the dust, by "the thirty-one", prostrated and pulverized by the hand of Horace Mann, secretary, &c. *Γουνοῦμαι σ', 'Αχιλεῦ· σὺ δέ.* Boston: *C. Stimpson.* 1845. 59 p., O.

Massachusetts, *pseud.* "Penitential tears!" (Morning post,—1845, 100 cm.)

Rejoinder to the "Reply" of the Hon. Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education, to the "Remarks" of the Association of Boston masters, upon his seventh annual report. Boston: *Charles C. Little and James Brown.* 1845. 55 p., O.

[The three following pamphlets appended.]

Shepard, W: A. Rejoinder to the second section of the "Reply". [Boston], March 1845. 56 p., O.

[Greene, S: S.] Rejoinder to the third section of the "Reply." [Boston], March 1845. 40 p., O.

[Hale, Joseph.] Rejoinder to the fourth section of the "Reply." [Boston], April 1845. 64p., O.

Boston, Mass.—*Association of masters of the Boston public schools.* Report of a committee of the Association of masters of the Boston public schools, on a letter from Dr. John Odin, jr., and in relation to a report of the special committee of the Primary school board. Boston: 1845. 18 p., O.

Boston, Mass.—Continued.

Parent, *pseud.* School discipline. (Boston courier,—1845, 19 cm.)

[Howe, M: A. D. W., *ed.*] Parochial schools. (Christian witness . . . . , 4 Apr. 1845, v. 11, no. 7, p. 26, col. 4, 5 cm.)

[Howe, M: A. D. W., *ed.*] Parochial schools. (Christian witness . . . . , 16 May 1845, v. 11, no. 13, p. 50, col. 2, 23 cm.)

F———. Teachers' institutes. (Boston courier,—1845, 48 cm.)

H. 'Bloody nouns.' (Boston olive branch, 24 May 1845, 25 cm.)

School controversy (The). (Boston recorder, 26 June 1845, v. 30, no. 26, p. 102, col. 4, 18 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Answer to the "Rejoinder" of twenty-nine Boston schoolmasters, part of the "thirty-one" who published "Remarks" on the seventh annual report of the secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education. By Horace Mann, secretary of the board. Boston: *Wm. B. Fowle and Nahum Capen,* 1845. 124 p., O.

[Bumstead, J. F.] Mr. Bumstead's defence of his school-books in reply to Mr. S. S. Greene. [Boston, July 1845.] 8 p., O.

Mann, Horace. The necessity of education in a republican government. (American institute of instruction. Lectures delivered . . . at Portland, August 30 & 31, 1844. . . . Boston, *Ticknor,* 1845. p. 261-309.)

Boston, Mass.—*Annual visiting committees of the public schools, 1845.* Reports of the Annual visiting committees of the public schools of the city of Boston, 1845. (City document.—No. 26.) [Seal.] Boston: [Sep.] 1845. 168 p., O.

Proceedings of the school committee (The).— . . . (Boston daily atlas, 8 Sep. 1845, v. 14, no. 59, p. 1, col. 7-8, 82 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Address of Hon. Horace Mann. (Toledo [Ohio] blade, 7 Nov. 1845, v.—, no. 35, p. 1-2, 266 cm.)

Mann, Horace—Continued.
Notice, entitled "Mr. Mann's address." (*op. cit.*, p. 2, col. 4, 3 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns for 1844-45. Boston, 1845. t.-p. + 49 p., O.

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* Ninth annual report of the Board of education, together with the ninth annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston: 1846. 158 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Report of an educational tour in Germany, and parts of Great Britain and Ireland, being part of the seventh annual report of Horace Mann, esq., secretary of the Board of education, Mass., U. S., 1844; with preface and notes by W. B. Hodgson, principal of the Mechanics' institution, Liverpool. "Id viro bono satis esse docuisse quod scierit." Quint. lib. xii. 11. London; *Simpkin, Marshall, & Company.* Liverpool; *D. Marples.* 1846. 10 + 272 p., D.

Withington, Leonard, *pseud.* Scholiast. Review of the Reports of the Annual visiting committees, of the public schools of the city of Boston, 1845. Boston: *Charles Stimpson.* 1846. 58 p., O.

A Bostonian, *pseud.* The scholiast schooled. An examination of the Review of the Reports of the Annual visiting committees of the public schools of the city of Boston, for 1845, by "Scholiast." Cambridge: *Metcalf and Company.* 1846. 65 p., O.

Howe, S: G., *et al.* To the citizens of Boston. [Boston, Mar. 1846.] 12 p., O.

Debate in the common council. (Boston daily advertiser . . . , 23 Mar. 1846, v. 67, no. 70, p. 1, col. 4–5, 167 cm.)

Massachusetts — *Board of education.* Ninth annual report of the Board of education. (Common school journal, 1 Apr. 1846, v. 8, no. 7, p. 97–105.)

Mann, Horace. Ninth annual report of the secretary of the Board of education. (Common school journal, 1 Apr.–15 July 1846, v. 8, no. 7–14, p. 105–217.)

Primary school teachers' salaries. (Boston daily whig, 10 Apr. 1846, p. 1, 150 cm.)

Horace Mann's educational tour. (Chambers' Edinburgh journal, 23 May 1846, v. 5, p. 327–329.) (Littell's living age, 18 July 1846, v. 10, p. 105–107.)

Mann, Horace. Abstract of the Massachusetts school returns, for 1845–46. Boston, 1846. 8+381 p., O.

Boston, Mass.—*Annual visiting committees of the public schools, 1846.* Reports of the Annual visiting committees of the public schools of the city of Boston, 1846. (City document.—No. 28.) [Seal.] Boston: 1846. 166 p., O.

Smith, Matthew Hale. The ark of God on a new cart. (Boston recorder, 15 Oct. 1846, v. 31, no. 42, p. 166, col. 2–4, 122 cm.)

Fowle, W: B., *pseud.* Tremont. The Rev. Matthew Hale Smith. (Boston courier, 27 Oct. 1846, v. 23, no. 6954, p. 2, col. 1–2, 74 cm.)

Smith, M. H. [Reply to "Tremont's" criticism.] (Boston courier, 29 Oct. 1846, v. 23, no. 6956, p. 2, col. 4, 11 cm.)

Humphrey, Heman, *pseud.* Watchman. The Common school journal. (New England puritan, 29 Oct. 1846, v. 7, no. 44, p. 173, col. 4, 36 cm.)

[Smith, M. H.] The bible, the rod, and religion, in common schools. The ark of God on a new cart: a sermon, by Rev. M. Hale Smith. A review of the sermon, by Wm. B. Fowle, publisher of the Mass. Common school journal. Strictures on the sectarian character of the Common school journal, by a member of the Mass. Board of education. Correspondence between the Hon. Horace Mann, sec. of the Board of education, and Rev. Matthew Hale Smith. Boston: *Redding & Co.*, 1847. 59 p., O.

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* Tenth annual report of the Board of education, together with the tenth annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston: 1847. 255 + 51 p., O.

[Editor.] The bible, the rod, and religion in common schools. (Boston recorder, 14 Jan. 1847, v. 32, no. 2, p. 6, col. 1–2, 56 cm.)

[Mann, Horace.] Sequel to the so called Correspondence between the Rev. M. H. Smith and Horace Mann, surreptitiously published by Mr. Smith; containing a letter from Mr. Mann, suppressed by Mr. Smith, with the reply therein promised. Boston: *William B. Fowle,* 1847. 56 p., O.

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* Tenth annual report of the Board of education. (Common school journal, 15 Feb.—15 Mar. 1847, v. 9, no. 4–6, p. 49–90.)

Mann, Horace. Tenth annual report of the secretary of the Board of education. (Common school journal, 15 Mar.—1 Sep. 1847, v. 9, no. 6–17, p. 90–268.)

A Citizen, *pseud.* Mass. Board of education. (Boston recorder, 25 Feb. 1847, v. 32, no. 8, p. 30, col. 4, 16 cm.)

Smith, M. H. Reply to the Sequel of Hon. Horace Mann, being a supplement to The bible, the rod, and religion, in common schools. Boston: *J. M. Whittemore,* 1847. 36 p., O.

[2d ed.] Second Edition. Boston: *J. M. Whittemore.* [15 Mar. 1847. PM.] 1847. 36 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Letter to the Rev. Matthew Hale Smith, in answer to his "Reply," or "Supplement." Boston: *William B. Fowle,* 1847. 22 p., with "Postscript" [26 Apr. 1847], O.

[Smith, M. H.] Horace Mann and M. Hale Smith. [Boston, 30 Apr. 1847.] n. t.-p., 8 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Report of an educational tour in Germany, France, Holland, and parts of Great Britain and Ireland, being part of the seventh annual report of Horace Mann, esq., secretary of the Board of education, Mass., U. S., 1844; with preface and notes, by W. B. Hodgson, LL. D., principal of the Mechanics' institution, Liverpool. "Many shall run to and fro, and knowledge shall be increased." 2d ed. London; *Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.,* 1847. t.-p. cover + t.-p., 10 + 1 + 232 p., D.

Smith, M. H. Horace Mann and Mr. Smith. (Boston recorder, 6 May 1847, v. 32, no. 18, p. 71, col. 1–2, 100 cm.)

Pierce, Cyrus. Matthew Hale Smith and the normal school at West Newton. (Boston recorder, 27 May 1847, v. 32, no. 21, p. 83, col. 1, 36 cm.)

Pierce, Cyrus. Mr. Smith and the state normal school at West Newton. (Boston recorder, 17 June 1847, v. 32, no. 24, p. 95, col. 1–2, 84 cm.)

[Editor.] The Board of education. (Boston recorder, 18 Nov. 1847, v. 32, no. 46, p. 182, col. 1–2, 21 cm.)

Governor's address. (Boston daily advertiser, 12 Jan. 1848, v. 71, no. 10, p. 2, col. 2–4.)

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* 11th annual report of the Board of education, together with the 11th annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston: 1848. 135 + 60 p., O.

Massachusetts — *Board of education.* Eleventh annual report of the Board of education, together with the eleventh annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston, *W. B. Fowle,* 1848. 135 p., O.

Report of the Board of education. (Boston daily advertiser, 25 Jan. 1848, v. 71, no. 21, p. 2, col. 1–3, 113 cm.)

Phillips, Wendell, *sign.* W. P. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 11 Feb. 1848, no. 892; v. 18, no. 6, p. 22, col. 6, 32 cm.)

[Editor.] The Mass. Board of education and the Boston recorder. (Boston recorder, 18 Feb. 1848, v. 33, no. 7, p. 26, col. 2–3, 79 cm.)

Boston recorder (The). (News letter [Westfield, Mass.], 8 Mar. 1848, v. 8, no. 3, p. 2, col. 4, 38 cm.)

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* Eleventh annual report of the Board of education. (Common school journal, 15 Mar. 1848, v. 10, no. 6, p. 81–98.)

Eighth district (The). (Boston daily advertiser, 15 Mar. 1848, v. 71, no. 64, p. 2, col. 2, 6 cm.)

Nomination in the eighth congressional district. (Boston daily advertiser, 16 Mar. 1848, v. 71, no. 65, p. 2, col. 1, 9 lines.)

We congratulate the whigs of the 8th . . . . (Boston journal, 16 Mar. 1848, v. 16, no. 4652, p. 2, col. 1, 10 cm.)

Nomination in the eighth congressional district. . . . (Boston journal, 16 Mar. 1848, v. 16, no. 4652, p. 2, col. 3, 18 cm.)

Mr. Adams's district. . . . (Salem gazette [tri-weekly], 17 Mar. 1848, v. 2, no. 33, p. 2, col. 2, 8 cm.)

A Parent of many children, *pseud.* Report of the Board of education. (Boston recorder, 17 Mar. 1848, no. 1683; v. 33, no. 11, p. 41, col. 2-3.)

Nomination in the eighth district.— . . . (Boston recorder, 17 Mar. 1848, no. 1683; v. 33, no. 11, p. 43, col. 3, 6 lines.)

Hon. Horace Mann. (Hingham patriot, 17 Mar. 1848, v. 10, no. 38, p. 2, col. 5, 32 cm.)

Mr. Mann's nomination.— . . . (Boston daily atlas, 18 Mar. 1848, v. 16, no. 223, p. 2, col. 1, 10 cm.)

To the whigs of the eighth congressional district. (Roxbury gazette, 18 Mar. 1848, v. —, no. 12, p. 2, col. 1, 66 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Mr. Mann. (Boston journal, 22 Mar. 1848, v. 16, no. 4657, p. 1, col. 3, 79 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Hon. Horace Mann. (Boston daily advertiser, 23 Mar. 1848, v. 71, no. 71, p. 2, col. 3-4, 95 cm.)

Light vs. darkness.—Horace Mann on the Wilmot proviso. (New-York daily tribune, 24 Mar. 1848, v. 7, no. 299, p. 2, col. 1, 28 cm.)

Liberty convention. Liberty address to the electors of the eighth congressional district. Broadside, 45x20 cm.

Contest (The). . . . (Roxbury gazette, 25 Mar. 1848, v. —, no. 13, p. 2, col. 1, 66 cm.)

Acceptance of Mr. Mann.— . . . (Springfield gazette,—Mar. 1848, 31 cm.)

S ———. Eighth congressional district — Cotton and conscience. (Chronotype, 29 Mar. 1848.)

Eighth district nomination (The). (Chronotype, 29 Mar. 1848, 22 cm.)

Principle of free discussion (The) . . . (Chronotype,—Mar. 1848, 16 cm.)

S ———. Mr. Editor:—I did not expect . . . (Chronotype,—Mar. 1848, 17 cm.)

Election (The) in the eighth district takes . . . (Boston journal, 1 Apr. 1848, v. 16, no. 4666, p. 2, col. 1, 17 cm.)

Election (The) in the eighth district. (Boston journal, 1 Apr. 1848, v. 16, no. 4666, p. 2, col. 3, 25 cm.)

Election (The). . . . (Roxbury gazette, 8 Apr. 1848, no. 15, 34 cm.)

Successor of John Q. Adams (The). (Liberator, 7 Apr. 1848, v. 18, no. 14, p. 54, col. 4, 48 cm.)

We have never recorded the result of an . . . (Salem gazette [tri-weekly], 8 Apr. 1848, v. 2, no. 42, p. 2, col. 1, 10 cm.)

Hon. Horace Mann. (Boston daily advertiser, 17 Apr. 1848, v. 71, no. 91, p. 2, col. 3, 10 lines.)

Vindicator, *pseud.* To the legislature, and the public. [Boston, May 1848.] 1 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Speech of Mr. Horace Mann, of Mass., on the right of Congress to legislate for the territories of the United States, and its duty to exclude slavery therefrom. Delivered in the House of representatives, in committee of the whole, June 30, 1848. Washington, 1848. 20 p., Q.

Mann, Horace. Speech of Mr. Horace Mann, of Mass., on the right of Congress to legislate for the territories of the United States, and its right to exclude slavery therefrom. Delivered in the House of representatives in committee of the whole, June 30, 1848. Washington: 1848. 20 p., O.

[Bailey, Gamaliel.] Three hundred and thirty indictments. (National era [Washington, D. C.], 13 July 1848, v. 2, p. 111, col. 1-2, 12 cm.)

[Editor.] "Normalty." (Boston recorder, 28 July 1848, v. 33, no. 30, p. 118, col. 1, 16 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Horace Mann, on the right of Congress to legislate for the territories of the United States, and its duty to exclude slavery therefrom, delivered in the House of representatives, in committee of the whole, June 30, 1848. (Boston daily advertiser, 1 Aug. 1848, v. 72, no. 26, p. 2, col. 3-7, 335 cm.)

Notice. (*op. cit.*, p. 2, col. 1, 5 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Mr. Mann's speech on slavery. Concluded. (Boston daily advertiser, 2 Aug. 1848, v. 72, no. 27, p. 2, col. 3–5, 270 cm.)

[Bailey, G.] The prisoners of the Pearl. (National era, 3 Aug. 1848, v. 2, p. 122, col. 1, 3 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Horace Mann on the slave question. (Liberator, 4 Aug. 1848, no. 917; v. 18, no. 31, p. 121–122, 588 cm.)

Quincy, Edmund, *sign.* Q. To-day's paper. (Liberator, 4 Aug. 1848, no. 917; v. 18, no. 31, p. 122, col. 6, 27 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Mr. Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, in the House of representatives of the United States, June 30, 1848, on the right of Congress to legislate for the territories of the United States, and its duty to exclude slavery therefrom. Delivered in the House of representatives, in committee of the whole, June 30, 1848. Revised ed. Boston, *William B. Fowle*, 1848. t.-p. + 31 + p., O.

Revised and improved edition, with no title-page. 31 + 1 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann, on the right of Congress to legislate for the territories of the United States, and its duty to exclude slavery therefrom: delivered in the House of representatives, in committee of the whole, June 30, 1848. To which is added, a letter from Hon. Martin Van Buren, and Rev. Joshua Leavitt. Boston, 1848. 48 p., D.

Mann, Horace. Account of the Hamburgh redemption institute. From Horace Mann's seventh annual report. (Oberlin tracts. No. 12.) Warrington, n. d. n. t.-p., 8 p., D.

Mann, Horace. The judgment of Horace Mann on European institutions. (Oberlin tracts. No. 14.) Warrington, n. d. n. t.-p., 12 p., D.

Mann, Horace. The judgment of Horace Mann on American institutions. (Oberlin tracts. No. 15.) Warrington, n. d. n. t.-p., 12 p., D.

Trial of the prisoners of the Pearl (The). (National era, 10 Aug. 1848, v. 2, p. 128, col. 3–5, 141 cm.)

Corrections. (*op. cit.*, 17 Aug., p. 130, col. 1, 4 cm.; 24 Aug., p. 133, col. 3–4, 48 cm.)

Quincy, Edmund, *sign.* Q. The conviction of Drayton. (Liberator, 18 Aug. 1848, no. 919; v. 18, no. 33, p. 130, col. 4, 28 cm.)

Mann, Horace. To the electors of the eighth congressional district. Broadside, 2 cols.

Same. Broadside, with reverse printed from newspaper.

Same. Broadside, with reverse printed from Roxbury gazette, 2 Sep. 1848, no. 36.

Mann, Horace. Address of Hon. Horace Mann, to the electors of the eighth congressional district. (Boston daily advertiser, 2 Sep. 1848, v. 72, no. 54, p. 2, col. 5, 63 cm.)

Editorial notice. (*op. cit.*, p. 2, col. 1, 7 cm.)

Norfolk Whigs, *pseud.* Hon. Horace Mann's letter. . . . (Boston courier, 5 Sep. 1848, v. 50, no. 7600, p. 2, col. 1, 23 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Slavery and the territories. Speech of Mr. Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, in the House of representatives, June 30, 1848, on the right of Congress to legislate for the territories of the United States, and its duty to exclude slavery therefrom. (National era [Washington, D. C.], 14 Sept. 1848, v. 2, p. 145–146, 291 cm.; 21 Sept. 1848, v. 2, p. 152, 340 cm.)

[Bailey, G.] Speech of the Hon. Horace Mann. (National era, 21 Sept. 1848, v. 2, p. 150, col. 5, 24 cm.)

Free soil convention of the eighth district. (Roxbury gazette, Sep. 1848, 81 cm.)

Eighth district convention. (Boston daily advertiser, 23 Sep. 1848, v. 72, no. 72, p. 2, col. 3, 16 cm.)

[Bailey, G.] The movement. (National era, 28 Sept. 1848, v. 2, p. 155, col. 2–5.)

[Bailey, G.] Speech of Hon. Horace Mann. (National era, 5 Oct. 1848, v. 2, p. 158, col. 7, 5 cm.)

Quincy, Edmund, *sign.* Q. Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 6 Oct. 1848, no. 926; v. 18, no. 40, p. 158–159, 21 cm.)

Case of the Pearl prisoners. (National era, 21 Dec. 1848, v. 2, p. 202, col. 4–5, 32 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Lectures on education. Boston: *William B. Fowle.* 1848 [cop. 1845]. 338 p., D.

[Later edition.] Boston: *Lemuel N. Ide.* 1850. 338 p., D.

[Later edition.] Boston: *Ide & Dutton.* 1855. 338 p., D.

Horace Mann. (Common school journal, 1 Jan. 1849, v. 11, p. 3–6.)

Massachusetts—*Board of education.* Twelfth annual report of the Board of education, together with the twelfth annual report of the secretary of the board. Boston: 1849. 155 + 60 p., O.

Education in Massachusetts. . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 6 Feb. 1849, v. 73, no. 32, p. 2, col. 1, 7 cm.)

Hon. Horace Mann.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 7 Feb. 1849, v. 73, no. 33, p. 2, col. 3, 7 cm.)

Schools of the state (The).— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 13 Feb. 1849, v. 73, no. 38, p. 2, col. 1, 19 cm.)

Northern parasite (A). (Liberator, 16 Feb. 1849, no. 945; v. 19, no. 7, p. 26, col. 3–4, 72 cm.)

Massachusetts—*Legislature—House of representatives.* House . . . . No. 77. [Boston, Mar. 1849.] 12 p., O.

Horace Mann's annual reports. (Common school journal, 15 Apr. 1849, v. 11, p. 122–124.)

Mann, Horace. Slave trade and slavery in the District of Columbia. Speech of Mr. Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, in the House of representatives, February 23, 1849, on slavery and the slave trade in the District of Columbia. (National era, 19 Apr. 1849, v. 3, p. 63, col. 3–6, 196 cm.; 26 Apr. 1849, v. 3, p. 65, 366 cm.; p. 68, col. 1–2, 122 cm.) (Liberator, 27 Apr. 1849, no. 955; v. 19, no. 17, p. 65, col. 3–6, 169 cm.; 4 May 1849, no. 956; v. 19, no. 18, p. 69, col. 2–6, 202 cm.; 11 May 1849, no. 957; v. 19, no. 19, p. 73–74, 303 cm.)

Editorial notices. (National era, 19 Apr. 1849, v. 3, p. 62, col. 1, 4 cm.; 26 Apr. 1849, v. 3, p. 66, col. 1, 3 cm.) (Liberator, 27 Apr. 1849, no. 955; v. 19, no. 17, p. 67, col. 1, 4 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, in the House of representatives, Feb. 23, 1849; on slavery in the United States, and the slave trade in the District of Columbia. Price 5 cents single; $4 a hundred. Boston: *Wm. B. Fowle,* [1849]. [15] p., Q.

Mann (A) that is a man. (National era, 10 May 1849, v. 3, p. 76, col. 2–3, 25 cm.)

[Correspondence of N. Y. evening post, Washington, May 13, 1849.] (Boston daily advertiser, 17 May 1849, v. 73, no. 117, p. 2, col. 5, 23 cm.)

Trial of Drayton. (National era [Washington, D. C.], 17 May 1849, v. 3, p. 78, col. 7, 10 cm.)

Unitarian collation (The).— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 30 May 1849, v. 73, no. 128, p. 2, col. 1, 43 cm.)

Case of Drayton and Sayres (The). (National era, 31 May 1849, v. 3, p. 87, col. 3, 20 cm.)

Reprint of the tenth report of Mr. Mann. (Common school journal, 1 July 1849, v. 11, p. 208, 12 lines.)

[Harvard college commencement, July 1849.] (Boston daily advertiser, 19 July 1849, v. 74, no. 15, p. 2, col. 1.)

Mann, Horace. Horace Mann on slavery. . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 28 July 1849, v. 74, no. 23, p. 2, col. 1, 20 cm.) Commentary. (*op. cit.,* 31 July 1849, v. 74, no. 25, p. 2, col. 4, 14 cm.)

U. S.—*Military academy, West Point, N. Y.—Board of visiters, 1849.* Report of the Board of visiters of the Military Academy, West Point, 1849. To the Hon. Geo. W. Crawford, secretary of war. West Point, June 18, 1849. (Boston daily advertiser, 2 Aug. 1849, v. 74, no. 27, p. 2, col. 4–6, 195 cm.)

Celebration of the Ordinance of 1787. (Liberator, 3 Aug. 1849, no. 969; v. 19, no. 31, p. 121–122, 100 cm.)

Horace Mann and the Boston atlas. (Roxbury gazette, 11 Aug. 1849, v. —, no. 33, p. 2, col. 1, 51 cm.)

Mann, Horace. [Need of a uniform and comprehensive system of education.] (Proceedings of the National convention of the friends of public education, held in Philadelphia, October 17, 18 & 19, 1849. Philadelphia, *E. C. & J. Biddle.* 1849. p. 8–14.)

Mann, Horace. [Responsibility of a national educational association.] (Proceedings of the National convention of the friends of public education, held in Philadelphia, October 17, 18 & 19, 1849. Philadelphia, *E. C. & J. Biddle.* 1849. p. 31–36.)

Reprint, entitled, "Horace Mann's speech at the close of the convention of the friends of education, held in Philadelphia, Oct. 17, 18, and 19, 1849." (Common school journal, 15 Nov. 1849, v. 11, p. 345–349.)

Mr. Mann. (Liberator, 28 Dec. 1849, no. 990; v. 19, no. 52, p. 206, col. 5, 8 cm.)

Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 28 Dec. 1849, no. 990; v. 19, no. 52, p. 207, col. 3–4, 31 cm.)

Mann, Horace. The Massachusetts system of common schools; being an enlarged and revised edition of the tenth annual report of the first secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education. Boston: 1849. 212+63+10 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Letter from the Hon. Horace Mann. (Orphans' advocate and social monitor [Boston], Jan. 1850, v. 9, no. 1, p. 1–2, 42 cm.)

Massachusetts Board of education. (Boston daily advertiser, 20 Jan. 1850, v. 75, no. 23, p. 2, col. 3, 39 cm.)

Hon. Horace Mann. (Boston daily atlas, 29 Jan. 1850, v. 18, no. 178, p. 2, 76 cm.)

D——, R. M., *pseud.* **Justitia.** The Hon. Horace Mann. (Boston daily atlas, 29 Jan. 1850, v. 18, no. 178, p. 2, col. 2–3, 65 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Mr. Horace Mann, of Mass., on the subject of slavery in the territories, and the consequences of the threatened dissolution of the union. Delivered in the House of representatives, February 15, 1850. Washington, 1850. 15 p., O.

Mann, Horace. [Remarks in Congress, 15 Feb. 1850.] (Boston daily atlas, 18 Feb. 1850, v. 18, no. 195, p. 2, col. 4, 28 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, on the subject of slavery in the territories, and the consequences of a dissolution of the union. Delivered in the United States House of representatives, February 15, 1850. Boston: *Redding and company*, 1850. 35 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Speech of Mr. Mann. (Congregationalist [Boston], 22 Mar. 1850, v. 2, no. 12, p. 2, col. 3–4, 52 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Extracts from the speech of Hon. Horace Mann, of Mass., on the subject of slavery in the territories. (Norfolk county journal [Roxbury, Mass.], 16 March 1850, v. —, no. 24, p. 1, 94 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter of Horace Mann, to his constituents in the eighth congressional district. (Boston daily atlas, 6 May 1850, v. 18, no. 260, p. 1, col. 1–8, 470 cm.)

Mr. Mann's letter to his constituents. (Boston daily atlas, 6 May 1850, v. 18, no. 260, p. 2, col. 3, 21 cm.)

Mr. Mann's letter. (Boston daily atlas, 7 May 1850, v. 18, no. 261, p. 2, col. 1, 4 cm.)

Mr. Mann and Mr. Webster. (Boston daily advertiser, 8 May 1850, v. 75, no. 109, p. 2, col. 1–2, 118 cm.)

Mann, Horace. New dangers to freedom, and new duties for its defenders: a letter by the Hon. Horace Mann to his constituents, May 3, 1850. Boston: *Redding & Co.*, 1850. t.-p. cover + t.-p., 32 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Letter of Hon. Horace Mann, to his constituents in the eighth congressional district. (Liberator, 10 May 1850, no. 1009; v. 20, no. 19, p. 74–75, 477 cm.)

Y——. Mann's letter. (Liberator, 10 May 1850, no. 1009; v. 20, no. 19, p. 75, col. 4, 7 cm.)

[Ticknor, G.:] Mr. Mann and his letter. (Boston daily advertiser, 1850, v. 75: 13 May, no. 113, p. 2, col. 2, 52 cm.; 14 May, no. 114, p. 2, col. 4–5, 83 cm.)

Mr. Mann. (Boston daily advertiser, 22 May 1850, v. 75, no. 121, p. 2, col. 2, 8 cm.)

Mann, Horace. New dangers to freedom, and new duties for its defenders. A letter by the Hon. Horace Mann, to his constituents, May 3, 1850. (National era, 23 May 1850, v. 4, p. 81–82, 525 cm.)

[Bailey, G.] Letter from the Hon. Horace Mann to his constituents. (National era, 23 May 1850, v. 4, p. 82–83, 44 cm.)

Mr. Mann's accuracy. (Boston daily advertiser, 24 May 1850, v. 75, no. 123, p. 2, col. 2–3, 53 cm.)

Webster, Daniel. Letter from Mr. Webster. In reply to a letter from citizens of Newburyport. (Boston daily atlas, 30 May 1850, v. 18, no. 281, p. 2, col. 3–5, 157 cm.)

Webster, Daniel. Letter from Mr. Webster, in reply to a letter from citizens of Newburyport. Washington, May 15, 1850. (Boston daily advertiser, 31 May 1850, v. 75, no. 129, p. 1–2, 173 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] Mr. Webster's letter. — . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 31 May 1850, v. 75, no. 129, p. 2, col. 2, 22 cm.)

Webster, Daniel. Letter from Mr. Webster. In reply to a letter from citizens of Newburyport. (Boston [semi-weekly] atlas, 1 June 1850.) [Not seen.]

Mann, Horace. Horace Mann's letter. Concluded. (Pennsylvania freeman [Philadelphia], 6 June 1850, n. s., v. 7, no. 23, p. 1, col. 1–5, 175 cm.)

Webster, Daniel. Surrender of fugitive slaves. Letter of Mr. Webster. Correspondence between the citizens of Newburyport, Mass., and Senator Webster. (Liberator, 7 June 1850, no. 1013; v. 20, no. 23, p. 89, col. 1–5, 199 cm.)

Letter of Hon. Horace Mann. (Boston daily atlas, 10 June 1850, v. 18, no. 290, p. 2, col. 1, 7 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Mr. Mann's answer to Mr. Webster. (Boston daily atlas, 10 June 1850, v. 18, no. 290, p. 2, col. 3–7, 304 cm.)

Mr. Mann and Mr. Webster.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 11 June 1850, v. 75, no. 138, p. 2, col. 1, 32 cm.)

Mr. Mann's last. (Boston daily advertiser, 12 June 1850, v. 75, no. 139, p. 2, col. 1, 12 cm.)

Mr. Mann and his opponents. (Boston daily atlas, 12 June 1850, v. 18, no. 292, p. 2, col. 1, 62 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Reply of Horace Mann to Daniel Webster. (Liberator, 1850: 14 June, No. 1014, v. 20, no. 24, p. 95, col. 3–6, 178 cm.; 21 June, no. 1015, v. 20, no. 25, p. 100, col. 3–6, 176 cm.)

Mr. Mann and Mr. Webster—A hard hit. (National era, 20 June 1850, v. 4, p. 100, col. 5–6, 57 cm.)

Webster, Daniel. Letter from Mr. Webster. (Boston daily advertiser, 22 June 1850, v. 75, no. 148, p. 2, col. 3–4, 133 cm.)

Webster, Daniel. Letter from Mr. Webster. (Boston daily bee, 22 June 1850: v. 17, no. 46, p. 2, col. 1–3, 137 cm.)

Little Wackford, *pseud.* Webster and Mann. (Boston daily advertiser, 24 June 1850, v. 75, no. 149, p. 2, col. 1, 7 cm.)

Mann, Horace, *and* Thurston, S: R. [Correspondence in relation to slave labor in all the territory newly acquired from Mexico.] (Boston daily atlas, 28 June 1850, v. 18, no. 306, p. 2, col. 3, 46 cm.)

Webster and Mann. (Liberator, 28 June 1850, no. 1016; v. 20, no. 26, p. 102, col. 4, 46 cm.)

Horace Mann vs. Webster. (Liberator, 28 June 1850, no. 1016; v. 20, no. 26, p. 102, col. 4, 20 cm.)

Mann, Horace. A few thoughts for a young man: a lecture, delivered before the Boston Mercantile library association, on its 29th anniversary. Boston; *Ticknor, Reed and Fields,* 1850. 84 p., D.

[Later edition.] Boston: *Ticknor and Fields.* 1856. 96 p., S.

Bristed, C: Astor. A letter to the Hon. Horace Mann. . . . N. Y., *H. Kernot,* 1850. 54 p., T.

Letter to the Hon. Horace Mann. By Charles Astor Bristed. New York, 1850. Kernot. (Littell's living age, 13 July 1850, v. 26, p. 49–52.)

Celebration of our national independence. (Boston daily bee, 6 July 1850, v. 17, no. 57, p. 1, col. 1–2, 72 cm.)

Swisshelm, Jane G. Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 12 July 1850, no. 1018; v. 20, no. 28, p. 112, col. 4–5, 22 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Horace Mann's letters on the extension of slavery into California and New Mexico; and on the duty of Congress to provide the trial by jury for alleged fugitive slaves. Republished with notes. [Washington, 1850.] 32 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Horace Mann's letters on the extension of slavery into California and New Mexico; and on the duty of Congress to provide the trial by jury for alleged fugitive slaves. Republished with notes. Letter II. (National era, 25 July 1850, v. 4, p. 117, 120, 118; 648 cm.)

Editorial notice. (*op. cit.*, p. 118, col. 2, 3 cm.)

Mr. Mann's last. (Boston courier, 2 Aug. 1850, v. 54, no. 9052, p. 2, col. 1-2, 143 cm.)

Webster and Mann. (Boston daily bee, 2 Aug. 1850, v. 17, no. 80, p. 2, col. 1, 9 cm.)

Opposition to the Fillmore administration.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 9 Aug. 1850, v. 76, no. 34, p. 2, col. 1, 41 cm.)

Mann, Horace. [Debate in the U. S. House of representatives, 9 Aug. 1850.] (Boston daily advertiser, 12 Aug. 1850, v. 76, no. 36, p. 2, col. 4.)

Opposition to the administration.—(Boston daily advertiser, 15 Aug. 1850, v. 76, no. 39, p. 2, col. 1-2, 66 cm.)

Felton, Cornelius C., *pseud.* Codex Alexandrinus. Mr. Mann and Mr. Webster. (Boston daily advertiser, 24 Aug. 1850, v. 76, no. 46, p. 2, col. 4, 76 cm.)

Mann, Horace. To C. C. Felton, esq., Eliot professor of Greek literature in Harvard university. (Boston daily atlas, 26 Sep. 1850, v. 19, no. 75, p. 2, col. 4-5, 104 cm.)

Felton, C. C., *pseud.* Codex Alexandrinus. To the editor of the Daily advertiser. (Boston daily advertiser, 1850, v. 76: 3 Oct., no. 80, p. 1-2, 168 cm.; 4 Oct., no. 81, p. 1, col. 7-8, 116 cm.) (Boston [weekly?] advertiser, 5 Oct. 1850, 265 cm.)

Mr. Webster's latinity.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 3 Oct. 1850, v. 76, no. 80, p. 2, col. 1, 7 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] Agitation on the Fugitive slave law.—(Boston daily advertiser, 8 Oct. 1850, v. 76, no. 84, p. 2, col. 1, 70 cm.)

Beck, C:, *pseud.* Q. E. D. The Boston Codex Alexandrinus and "captatores verborum" of Daniel Webster. (Literary world [N. Y.], 12 Oct. 1850, v. 7, no. 193, p. 286-288, 156 cm.)

Free soil convention in the 8th district. (Daily evening traveller [Boston], 17 Oct. 1850, v. 6, no. 168, p. 1, col. 2-3, 66 cm.)

Eighth district (The). (Boston daily atlas, 19 Oct. 1850, v. 19, no. 94, p. 2, col. 1, 20 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Mr. Mann's answer to the free soil nomination in the eighth district. (Daily evening traveller [Boston], 25 Oct. 1850, v. 6, no. 175, p. 2, col. 3-6, 192 cm.)

Mr. Mann's reply to the free soil nomination.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 26 Oct. 1850, v. 76, no. 100, p. 2, col. 1, 35 cm.)

Eighth district.—Mr. Mann. (Norfolk county journal [Roxbury, Mass.], 26 Oct. 1850, v. —, no. 4, p. 2, col. 1, 36 cm.)

A National Whig, *pseud.* Will the whigs of the eighth district renominate Horace Mann? (Norfolk county journal, 26 Oct. 1850, v. —, no. 4, p. 2, col. 3-4, 55 cm.)

Felton, C. C., *pseud.* Codex Alexandrinus. The Websterian latinity. (Literary world [N. Y.], 26 Oct. 1850, v. 7, no. 195, p. 327-328, 125 cm.)

Whig nomination in the eighth district.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 28 Oct. 1850, v. 76, no. 101, p. 2, col. 1, 92 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Mr. Mann's answer to the free soil nomination in the eighth district. (Boston daily atlas, 28 Oct. 1850, v. 19, no. 101, p. 1, col. 5-7, 171 cm.)

Editorial notice. (*op. cit.*, p. 2, col. 1, 4 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] Mr. Mann and the whig party.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 29 Oct. 1850, v. 76, no. 102, p. 2, col. 1, 36 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] Mr. Mann's letter.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 29 Oct. 1850, v. 76, no. 102, p. 2, col. 1, 25 cm.)

Eighth district whig convention.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 31 Oct. 1850, v. 76, no. 104, p. 2, col. 3-4, 145 cm.)

Eighth district (The). (Boston daily atlas, 31 Oct. 1850, v. 19, no. 104, p. 2, col. 2, 16 cm.)

Whig convention in the eighth district. (Boston daily atlas, 31 Oct. 1850, v. 19, no. 104, p. 2, col. 3–4, 98 cm.)

Eighth district convention. (Boston courier, 31 Oct. 1850, v. 54, no. 10028, p. 2, col. 1–3, 163 cm.)

Massachusetts election.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 1 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 105, p. 2, col. 1, 60 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from the Hon. Horace Mann on the Fugitive slave bill. (Liberator, 1 Nov. 1850, no. 1034; v. 20, no. 44, p. 173–174, 152 cm.)

A Roxbury Whig, *pseud.* The eighth district. (Boston daily advertiser, 4 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 107, p. 2, col. 3, 12 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann. (Chronotype, 7 Nov. 1850, 196 cm.)

Address to the whig voters of the eighth congressional district. Broadside, 3 cols., 32x22 cm.

[Bailey, G.] "Mr. Mann has been thrown overboard by the" . . . . (National era [Washington, D. C.], 7 Nov. 1850, v. 4, p. 178, col. 5–6, 7 cm.)

A Roxbury Whig, *pseud.* District no. 8. Hon. S. K. Walley. Sustain the regular nomination. (Boston daily advertiser, 8 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 111, p. 2, col. 4, 27 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] The election.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 9 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 112, p. 2, col. 1–2, 85 cm.)

Roxbury Wigh [*sic*], *pseud.* Eighth district. Some reasons for voting for Mr. Walley. (Boston daily advertiser, 9 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 112, p. 2, col. 3, 21 cm.)

Beck, C:, *pseud.* **Q. E. D.** The Boston Codex Alexandrinus and "captatores verborum" of Daniel Webster. (Boston daily atlas, 12 Nov. 1850, v. 19, no. 114, p. 1, col. 6–8, 145 cm.)

[Mann elected.] (Boston daily advertiser, 12 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 114, p. 2, col. 5.) (*op. cit.*, 13 Nov., p. 115, p. 2, col. 6.)

[Hale, Nathan.] The election.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 13 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 115, p. 2, col. 1, 20 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] Hon. Horace Mann. (Boston daily advertiser, 14 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 116, p. 2, col. 2, 3 cm.)

[Vote of Horace Mann.] (Boston daily atlas, 15 Nov. 1850, v. 19, no. 117, p. 2, col. 1, 1 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] Causes of the defeat of the whig party. (Boston daily advertiser, 15 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 117, p. 2, col. 1–2, 83 cm.)

Felton, C. C., *pseud.* **Codex Alexandrinus.** Websterian latinity. (Literary world [N. Y.], 16 Nov. 1850, v. 7, no. 198, p. 390–391, 34 cm.)

Beck, C:, *pseud.* **Q. E. D.** [Websterian latinity.] (Literary world [N. Y.], 16 Nov. 1850, v. 7, no. 198, p. 391, 49 cm.)

Whittier, J: Greenleaf, *sign.* **J. G. W.** The election in Massachusetts. (National era [Washington, D. C.,] 21 Nov. 1850, v. 4, p. 186, col. 6, 18 cm.)

[Bailey, G.] Result of the election in Massachusetts. (National era, 21 Nov. 1850, v. 4, p. 186, col. 6, 35 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] The official returns of the congress vote. (Boston daily advertiser, 26 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 126, p. 2, col. 2, 23 cm.)

Official. Commonwealth of Massachusetts. (Boston daily advertiser, 26 Nov. 1850, v. 76, no. 126, p. 2, col. 6, 27 cm.)

Mann, Horace, *and* **Chase**, Pliny Earle. Arithmetic, practically applied, for advanced pupils, and for private reference, designed as a sequel to any of the ordinary text-books on the subject. Philadelphia, *E. H. Butler & Co.*, 1850. 384 p., O.

[Later edition.] Philadelphia, *E. H. Butler & Co.*, 1851. 14+384 p., O.

Mann, Horace, *and* **Chase**, Pliny Earle. The primary-school arithmetic. Designed for beginners. Containing copious mental exercises, together with a large number of examples for the slate. (Elements of arithmetic, part first.) Philadelphia, *E. H. Butler & Co.*, 1851. 160 p., S.

Mann, Horace, *and* **Chase**, Pliny Earle. The grammar-school arithmetic: containing much valuable commercial information; together with a system of integral, decimal, and fractional arithmetic, so arranged as to dispense with many of the ordinary rules. . . . (Elements of arithmetic, part second.) Philadelphia, *E. H. Butler & Co.* 1851. 10+256 p., D.

Mann, Horace. Letter from Hon. Horace Mann. (Portland inquirer, 1851, v. —, no. 6, p. 2, col. 2-4, 81 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 14 Feb. 1851, no. 1049; v. 21, no. 7, p. 26, col. 3, 57 cm.)

Mann, Horace. The Fugitive slave law. Speech of Mr. Horace Mann, of Mass., delivered in the House of representatives, in committee of the whole on the state of the union, Friday, February 28, 1851, on the Fugitive slave law. [Washington, 1851.] n. t.-p., 24 p., O.

Mann, Horace. The Fugitive slave law. Speech of Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, delivered in the House of repsentatives, in committee of the whole, on the state of the union, Friday, Feb. 28, 1851, on the Fugitive slave law. Boston, *Damrell*, 1851. 24 p., O.

Speech of Horace Mann. (Liberator, 21 Mar. 1851, no. 1054; v. 21, no. 12, p. 46, col. 5, 15 cm.)

Anti-Fugitive slave law convention. (Boston daily advertiser, 9 Apr. 1851, v. 77, no. 85, p. 2, col. 2, 49 cm.)

Curtis, G: Ticknor. Commissioner Curtis's decision. (Boston semi-weekly advertiser, 16 Apr. 1851, v. 95, no. 7311, p. 1, col. 1-5, 314 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of the Hon. Horace Mann, on taking the chair, at the grand mass convention of the opponents of the Fugitive slave bill, held in the Tremont temple, Boston, on the 9th inst., as reported in the 'Commonwealth.' (Liberator, 18 Apr. 1851, no. 1058; v. 21, no. 16, p. 61-62, 129 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann, delivered at Lancaster, Mass, May 19, '51. (Daily morning commonwealth [Boston], 23 May 1851, v. 1, no. 121, p. 1, col. 5-6; p. 4, col. 1-6; p. 2, col. 1-5, 645 cm.)

Notice, entitled "Mr. Mann's speech." (*op. cit.*, p. 2, col. 6, 7 cm).

Mann, Horace. Speech of the Hon. Horace Mann, on the Fugitive slave law. Delivered at Lancaster, Mass., May 19th, 1851. Boston: *Office of the Commonwealth*. 1851. t.-p. cover, n. t.-p., 16 p., O.

Curtis, G: Ticknor. To the editor of the Daily advertiser. (Boston daily advertiser, 29 May 1851, v. 77, no. 127, p. 2, col. 2, 48 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann, delivered at Lancaster, Mass., May 19, 1851. (Liberator, 30 May 1851, no. 1064; v. 21, no. 22, p. 86, col. 2-6, 275 cm.)

Mr. Horace Mann. (Boston daily advertiser, 20 June 1851, v. 77, no. 146, p. 2, col. 3, 56 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] The Commonwealth and Mr. Mann. (Boston daily advertiser, 28 June 1851, v. 77, no. 153, p. 2, col. 3, 24 cm.)

Felton, Cornelius C. To the editor of the Boston courier. (Boston courier, 12 July 1851, v. 55, no. 10238, p. 2, col. 4, 40 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] The Commonwealth. (Boston daily advertiser, 18 July 1851, v. 78, no. 15, p. 2, col. 3, 51 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] The Commonwealth and Professor Fflton [*sic*]. (Boston daily advertiser, 22 July 1851, v. 78, no. 18, p. 2, col. 1, 12 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 1 Aug. 1851, no. 1073; v. 21, no. 31, p. 123, col. 1-2, 100 cm.)

[Hillard, G: S.] Mr. Horace Mann. (Boston courier, 1 Aug. 1851, v. 55, no. 10255, p. 2, col. 1, 62 cm.)

Personality. (Commonwealth [weekly], 2 Aug. 1851, v. 1, no. 31, p. 122, col. 1-2, 125 cm.)

Mr. George S. Hillard. (Commonwealth [daily], 5 Aug. 1851, v. 2, no. 27, p. 2, col. 1-2, 87 cm.)

Free soil convention (The). (Boston daily advertiser, 22 Sep. 1851, v. 78, no. 73, p. 1, col. 7, 64 cm.)

Coalition (The). (Boston daily advertiser, 22 Sep. 1851, v. 78, no. 73, p. 2, col. 3, 30 cm.)

[Hale, Nathan.] Mr. Winthrop's acceptance. (Boston daily advertiser, 23 Sep. 1851, v. 78, no. 74, p. 2, col. 1, 43 cm.)

Correction, entitled, "Mr. Horace Mann." (*op. cit.*, 27 Sep. 1851, no. 78, p. 2, col. 1, 22 cm.)

Plans of the coalition. (Boston daily advertiser, 23 Sep. 1851, v. 78, no. 74, p. 2, col. 4, 59 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of the Hon. Horace Mann, at Worcester, Sept. 16, 1851, on taking the chair, as president of the Free soil convention. Phonographic report by Dr. Stone. (Commonwealth [daily], 10 Oct. 1851, v. 2, no. 84, p. 1–2, 279 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Extracts from the speech of the Hon. Horace Mann, delivered at Worcester, Sept. 16, 1851, on taking the chair, as president of the Free soil state convention. (Liberator, 10 Oct. 1851, no. 1083; v. 21, no. 41, p. 161, col. 3–5, 130 cm.)

Mr. Mann's speech. (Liberator, 10 Oct. 1851, no. 1083; v. 21, no. 41, p. 161, col. 5, 12 cm.)

Hear the Springfield Republican! ! ! [etc.]. (Liberator, 10 Oct. 1851, no. 1083; v. 21, no. 41, p. 161, col. 5, 3 cm.)

Clericus, *pseud.* The Hon. Horace Mann. (Dedham gazette, — 1851, v. 4, no. —, p. 1, col. 1–3, 137 cm.)

Notice, entitled "Horace Mann." (*op. cit.*, p. 2, col. —, 14 cm.)

F——, N. "Whether asses' milk sours?" (Boston daily advertiser, 7 Nov. 1851, v. 78, no. 111, p. 2, col. 1, 5 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Slavery: letters and speeches, by Horace Mann, the first secretary of the Massachusetts Board of education. Boston: *B. B. Mussey & Co.* 1851. 12 + 564 p., O.

[Later edition.] Boston: *B. B. Mussey & Co.* 1853. 12 + 564 p., O.

Mann's Letters and speeches.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 13 Nov. 1851, v. 78, no. 116, p. 2, col. 3, 5 lines.)

Mann, Horace. Mr. Mann on Kossuth. (Dedham gazette, v. 5, no. —, p. 1, col. 1–2, 54 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Horace Mann on the safety of the union. (Dedham gazette, v. 5, no. —, p. 2, 27 cm.)

Massachusetts — *Supreme judicial court — Suffolk, ss. . . . . March term, 1852.* George T. Curtis, vs. Benj. B. Mussey & al. [Boston, May 1852.] n. t-p., 30 p., Q.

Rose, Ernestine L. Review of Horace Mann's two lectures delivered in New York, February 17th and 29th. (Liberator, 7 May 1852, no. 1113; v. 22, no. 19, p. 76, col. 5–6, 114 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Horace Mann to the Ohio convention. (Liberator, 14 May 1852, no. 1114; v. 22, no. 20, p. 78, col. 1–3, 158 cm.)

Mann, Horace. A few words to a young woman. (Orphan's advocate . . . [Boston], July 1852, 47 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann, of Mass., on the institution of slavery. Delivered in the House of representatives, August 17, 1852. Washington, 1852. 23 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, on the institution of slavery. Delivered in the House of representatives, August 17, 1852. [Washington, 1852.] 24 p., O.

Mann, Horace. The institution of slavery. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, on the institution of slavery. Delivered in the U. S. House of representatives, August 17, 1852. Boston, *List*, 1852. 23 + p., O.

Mr. Horace Mann's speech. . . . (Boston daily evening transcript, 31 Aug. 1852, v. 23, no. 6797, p. 2, col. 1, 28 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, in the U. S. House of representatives, Aug. 17, 1852. (Liberator, 3 Sep. 1852, no. 1128; v. 22, no. 36, p. 142–143, 346 cm.; 10 Sep. 1852, no. 1129; v. 22, no. 37, p. 145–146, 514 cm.)

Speech of Horace Mann. (Liberator, 10 Sep. 1852, no. 1129; v. 22, no. 37, p. 146, col. 5, 6 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Mr. Mann on slavery extension. (Dedham gazette, 11 Sep. 1852, v. 39, no. 33, p. 1, col. 4, 49 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Horace Mann. To the electors of the (lately eighth, now,) third congressional district of Massachusetts. (Dedham gazette, 11 Sep. 1852, v. 39, no. 33, p. 2, col. 1–4, 160 cm.) (Liberator, 17 Sep. 1852, no. 1130; v. 22, no. 38, p. 150–151, 133 cm.)

Free soil state convention.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 16 Sep. 1852, v. 80, no. 36, p. 2, col. 4, 12 cm.)

State convention of the free democracy! Great gathering of the people! The storm of the elements exceeded by the storm of enthusiasm from the masses! Speeches, incidents, &c.! (Commonwealth [daily], 16 Sep. 1852, v. 4, no. 66, p. 1–2, 260 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Speech of Hon. Horace Mann. (Commonwealth [daily], 16 Sep. 1852, v. 4, no. 66, p. 2, col. 1–2, 38 cm.)

Lowell convention (The). (Commonwealth [daily], 16 Sep. 1852, v. 4, no. 66, p. 2, col. 4, 20 cm.)

State convention of the free democracy! Addresses at the mammoth tent! The eloquence of free speech! Messrs. Phillips, Wilson, Burlingame, Webb and French before the masses! Five thousand people in conference! (Commonwealth [daily], 17 Sep. 1852, v. 4, no. 67, p. 1–2, 299 cm.)

State free democratic convention. (Liberator, 24 Sep. 1852, no. 1131; v. 22, no. 39, p. 154, col. 4, 16 cm.)

Antioch college.— . . . (Boston daily advertiser, 14 Oct. 1852, v. 80, no. 90, p. 1, col. 8, 5 cm.)

Horace Mann. (Norfolk democrat, Oct. 1852, v. 14, no. 40, p. 2, 60 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Hon. Horace Mann. (Norfolk democrat, Oct. 1852, v. 14, no. 40, p. 2, 30 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Letter from Hon. Horace Mann. To a young lawyer. (Dansville [N. Y.] herald, Oct. 1852, v. 3, no. 24, p. 1, 139 cm.)

Meeting of colored citizens in New Bedford. (Liberator, 22 Oct. 1852, no. 1135; v. 22, no. 43, p. 170, col. 4–5, 43 cm.)

Parker, Theodore, *sign.* **T. P.** Hon. Horace Mann and the colored citizens of New Bedford. (Liberator, 22 Oct. 1852, no. 1135; v. 22, no. 43, p. 170, col. 5–6, 26 cm.)

Pro Bono, *pseud.* Horace Mann. (Rockingham messenger [Portsmouth, N. H.], 27 Oct. 1852, p. 2, 24 cm.)

Ricketson, Daniel. To the colored citizens of New Bedford. (Liberator, 29 Oct. 1852, no. 1136; v. 22, no. 44, p. 174, col. 1–2, 40 cm.)

Mann, Horace. The ten hours question. Letter from Hon. Horace Mann. (Commonwealth [daily], 4 Nov. 1852, v. 4, no. 108, p. 1, 104 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Hon. Horace Mann on the liquor law. (Commonwealth [daily], 5 Nov. 1852, v. 4, no. 109, p. 2, col. 4–5, 74 cm.)

[**Returns** from state election.] (Boston daily advertiser, 1852, v. 80: 9 Nov., no. 112, p. 2, col. 1–5; 10 Nov., no. 113, p. 1, col. 1–5; 10 Nov., no. 113, p. 2, col. 2.)

[**Hale**, Nathan.] The election. (Boston daily advertiser, 10 Nov. 1852, v. 80, no. 113, p. 2, col. 1, 41 cm.)

Newark daily advertiser (The) on Theodore Parker. (Boston daily advertiser, 11 Nov. 1852, v. 80, no. 114, p. 2, col. 1, 38 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Two lectures on intemperance. I.—The effects of intemperance on the poor and ignorant. II.—The effects of intemperance on the rich and educated. Syracuse, *Hall, Mills & Co.*, 1852. 127 p., S.

Mann, Horace. A few thoughts on the powers and duties of woman. Two lectures. Syracuse, *Hall, Mills, & Co.* 1853. 141 p., S.

Phillips, Wendell. [Criticism of Horace Mann, in "Speech," &c., at annual meeting of Mass. anti-slavery society, 27 Jan. 1853.] (Liberator, 18 Feb. 1853, no. 1152; v. 23, no. 7, p. 26, col. 5, 16 cm.)

Mann, Horace, *and* **Phillips**, Wendell. The slaveholding guarantees of the U. S. constitution. (Liberator, 4 Mar. 1853, no. 1154; v. 23, no. 9, p. 34, col. 3–6, 212 cm.)

Editorial notice, entitled "Horace Mann and Wendell Phillips." (*op. cit.*, p. 34, col. 6.)

Enquirer, *pseud.* Messrs. Mann and Phillips. (Liberator, 11 Mar. 1853, no. 1155; v. 23, no. 10, p. 28, col. 3–4, 31 cm.)

W———. Controversy deprecated. (Liberator, 11 Mar. 1853, no. 1155; v. 23, no. 10, p. 38, col. 4, 13 cm.)

Liberator (The). (Liberator, 18 Mar. 1853, no. 1156; v. 23, no. 11, p. 42, col. 1, 41 cm.)

Ultra-abolitionism. (Liberator, 18 Mar. 1853, no. 1156; v. 23, no. 11, p. 42, col. 1–2, 45 cm.)

"**Ultra-abolitionism.**" (Liberator, 18 Mar. 1853, no. 1156; v. 23, no. 11, p. 42, col. 3, 44 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Reply of Hon. Horace Mann to Wendell Phillips, esq. (Liberator, 18 Mar. 1853, no. 1156; v. 23, no. 11, p. 42, col. 4–6, 154 cm.)

Editorial notice, entitled, "Reply of Mr. Mann." (*op. cit.*, p. 42, col. 6, 4 cm.)

Crowded out. (Liberator, 18 Mar. 1853, no. 1156; v. 23, no. 11, p. 42, col. 6, 7 cm.)

Horace Mann and Wendell Phillips. (Liberator, 18 Mar. 1853, no. 1156; v. 23, no. 11, p. 42, col. 6, 4 cm.)

Phillips, Wendell. Reply of Wendell Phillips, esq., to Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 25 Mar. 1853, no. 1157; v. 23, no. 12, p. 46, col. 1–5, 269 cm.)

Note, entitled, "Mr. Mann and Mr. Phillips." (*op. cit.*, p. 46, col. 6, 28 cm.)

Mr. Mann vs. Mr. Phillips. (Liberator, 25 Mar. 1853, no. 1157; v. 23, no. 12, p. 46, col. 6, 8 cm.)

'Among the wagons in the rear.' (Liberator, 25 Mar. 1853, no. 1157; v. 23, no. 12, p. 46, col. 6, 8 cm.)

Horace Mann and Wendell Phillips. (Liberator, 25 Mar. 1853, no. 1157; v. 23, no. 12, p. 46, col. 6, 7 cm.)

Reply of Mr. Mann. (Liberator, 1 Apr. 1853, no. 1158; v. 23, no. 13, p. 50, col. 3, 28 cm.)

Enquirer, *pseud.* Moral consistency. (Liberator, 1 Apr. 1853, no. 1158; v. 23, no. 13, p. 50, col. 4, 30 cm.)

Quincy, Edmund, *sign.* D. Y. Mr. Mann and Mr. Phillips. (Liberator, 8 Apr. 1853, no. 1159; v. 23, no. 14, p. 54, col. 1–2, 74 cm.)

Mann and Phillips. (Liberator, 8 Apr. 1853, no. 1159; v. 23, no. 14, p. 54, col. 2, 4 cm.)

Horace Mann and Wendell Phillips. (Liberator, 8 Apr. 1853; no. 1159; v. 23, no. 14, p. 54, col. 2, 5 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Reply of Hon. Horace Mann to Wendell Phillips, esq. (Liberator, 8 Apr. 1853, no. 1159; v. 23, no. 14, p. 54–55, 305 cm.)

Phillips, Wendell. Reply of Wendell Phillips, esq. to Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 15 Apr. 1853, no. 1160; v. 23, no. 15, p. 58–59, 362 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Correction. (Liberator, 15 Apr. 1853, no. 1160; v. 23, no. 15, p. 59, col. 3, 8 cm.)

Fair play. (Liberator, 22 Apr. 1853, no. 1161; v. 23, no. 16, p. 62, col. 5, 19 cm.)

Ballou, Adin. Alleged inconsistencies of non-voters. (Practical christian [Hopedale, Mass.], 23 Apr. 1853, v. 13, no. 26, p. 102, col. 1–5, 220 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Reply of Hon. Horace Mann to Wendell Phillips, esq. (Liberator, 29 Apr. 1853, no. 1162; v. 23, no. 17, p. 66–67, 282 cm.)

Phillips, Wendell. Reply of Wendell Phillips, esq., to Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 6 May 1853, no. 1163; v. 23, no. 18, p. 70–71, 218 cm.)

Jackson, Edmund. Mr. Mann and the caste schools. (Liberator, 6 May 1853, no. 1163; v. 23, no. 18, p. 71, col. 3–4, 14 cm.)

Discussion (The). (Liberator, 6 May 1853, no. 1163; v. 23, no. 18, p. 71, col. 4, 9 cm.)

Justice, *pseud.* Information desired. (Liberator, 6 May 1853, no. 1163; v. 23, no. 18, p. 71, col. 4, 5 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Reply of Hon. Horace Mann to Wendell Phillips, esq. (Liberator, 13 May 1853, no. 1164; v. 23, no. 19, p. 74–75, 223 cm.)

P———, A. H. Wendell Phillips and Horace Mann. (Liberator, 20 May 1853, no. 1165; v. 23, no. 20, p. [77] "87", col. 6, 10 cm.)

Horace Mann's letter. (Liberator, 27 May 1853, no. 1166; v. 23, no. 21, p, [84] "94", col. 2, 48 cm.)

"Horace Mann and Wendell Phillips have" . . . (Liberator, 27 May 1853, no. 1166; v. 23, no. 21, p. [84] "94", col. 2, 8 cm.)

Mann, Horace. The constitution and the ballot-box. (Liberator, 3 June 1853, no. 1167; v. 23, no. 22, p. [88] "98", col. 1–5, 270 cm.)

Editorial commentary. (*op. cit.*, p. [87] "97", col. 4, 8 cm.)

Pillsbury, Parker. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 10 June 1853, no. 1168 [a]; v. 23, no. 23, p. 90, col. 5, 37 cm.)

Wendell Phillips, esq., and Hon. Horace Mann. (Liberator, 10 June 1853, no. 1168 [a]; v. 23, no. 23, p. 90, col. 5, 8 cm.)

G———, J. Messrs. Mann and Phillips. (Liberator, 10 June 1853, no. 1168 [a]; v. 23, no. 23, p. 92, col. 2, 48 cm.)

Mann, Horace. The constitution and slavery—Mr. Mann's position defined. (Liberator, 17 June 1853, no. 1168 [b]; v. 23, no. 24, p. 94, col. 1–5, 214 cm.)

Editorial review, entitled "Position defined." (*op. cit.*, p. 95, col. 1, 35 cm.)

Quincy, Edmund, *sign.* D. Y. The Mann & Phillips controversy. (Liberator, 17 June 1853, no. 1168 [b]; v. 23, no. 24, p. 94, col. 5–6, 60 cm.)

Grandin, D. S. Review of Mr. Mann's letter. (Liberator, 1 July 1853, no. 1169; v. 23, no. 26, p. 101, col. 1–3, 113 cm.)

Quincy, Edmund, *sign.* D. Y. 'A Rowland for an Oliver.' (Liberator, 1 July 1853, no. 1169; v. 33, no. 26, p. 101, col. 3–4, 73 cm.)

U. S. Constitution (The) anti-slavery. (Liberator, 1 July 1853, no. 1169; v. 23, no. 26, p. 101, col. 5, 22 cm.)

Horace Mann on the constitution. (Liberator, 1 July 1853, no. 1169; v. 23, no. 26, p. 101, col. 5, 6 cm.)

"Horace Mann has concluded his defence" . . . (Liberator, 1 July 1853, no. 1169; v. 23, no. 26, p. 101, col. 5, 5 cm.)

[Garrison, W: Lloyd.] Mr. Mann's letters. (Liberator, 1 July 1853, no. 1169; v. 23, no. 26, p. 102, col. 4, 47 cm.)

Quincy, Edmund, *sign.* D. Y. [Criticism of Horace Mann's letter on the constitution and slavery.] (Liberator, 8 July 1853, no. 1170; v. 23, no. 27, p. 105, col. 4–6, 82 cm.)

Following precedent. (Liberator, 8 July 1853, no. 1170; v. 23, no. 27, p. 107, col. 3, 8 lines.)

Potter, R. Horace Mann on the constitution. (Liberator, 15 July 1853, no. 1171; v. 23, no. 28, p. 109, col. 1–3, 105 cm.)

Horace Mann's college. (Country gentleman [Albany, N. Y.], 18 Aug. 1853, v. 2, p. 112, col. 1–2, 9 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Powers and duties of woman. An extract from lectures by Hon. Horace Mann. (Advocate of moral reform and family guardian [N. Y.], 1 Sep. 1853, no. 437; v. 19, no. 17, p. 129–131, 123 cm.)

Antioch college, *Yellow Springs, Ohio.* Antioch college. [Yellow Springs, 1853.] 16 p., D.

Antioch college, *Yellow Springs, Ohio.* Dedication of Antioch college, and inaugural address of its president, Hon. Horace Mann; with other proceedings. Yellow Springs, O., *Dean*, 1854. 132 p., S.

Horace Mann, formerly of Massachusetts, now president of Antioch college, at Yellow Springs, Greene county, Ohio. (Livingston, J: American portrait gallery . . . , N. Y., 1854. Vol. 3, part 3, p. 178–223, por.)

Antioch college, *Yellow Springs, Ohio.* Catalogue of Antioch college for the year 1853–4. [Yellow Springs, 1854.] 1 sheet, 76 × 53 cm.

Antioch college, *Yellow Springs, Ohio.* Catalogue of Antioch college, for the academical years, 1853–4 & 1854–5. Yellow Springs, Ohio. Cincinnati: 1855. 56 p., with diagrams, O.

Mann, Horace. District school libraries. (Michigan journal of education, Aug. 1856, v. 2, p. 253–257.)

Antioch college, *Yellow Springs, Ohio.* Catalogue of Antioch college, for the academical year, 1855–6. Yellow Springs, Ohio. Cincinnati: 1856. 48 p., O.

Opinions of distinguished men on the subject of secret societies. (Free presbyterian [Yellow Springs, O.], 1 Oct. 1856, no. 257; p. 193–194, 332 cm.)

Mann, Horace. The college code of honor. Address to the students of Antioch college, Yellow Springs, Ohio, by Horace Mann, LL. D. president. (American journal of education, Mar. 1857, v. 3, p. 66–70.)

Report and resolutions on the "Code of honor", falsely so called; also Report and resolutions on intemperance, profanity, and the use of tobacco, in schools and colleges. Columbus: 1857. t.-p. cover, n. t.-p., 16 p., O.

Mann, Horace. Baccalaureate delivered at Antioch college, 1857. [N. Y., *Fowler & Wells*, 1857.] 61 p., S.

Mann, Horace. Demands of the age on colleges. Speech delivered by the Hon. Horace Mann, president of Antioch college, before the Christian convention, at its quadrennial session, held at Cincinnati, Ohio, October 5, 1854. N. Y., *Fowler & Wells*, 1857. t.-p. cover + t.-p., 86 p., S.

Antioch college, *Yellow Springs, Ohio.* Catalogue of Antioch college, for the academical year, 1856-7. Yellow Springs, Ohio. Springfield, Ohio: 1857. 50 p., with diagram, O.

C———. Antioch college. (Christian messenger [N.-Y. & Irvington], 23 April 1857, v. 9. no. 8, p. 2, col. 1, 17 cm.)

Mann, Horace. Address delivered to the Sunday-school children of Yellow Springs, in the college chapel, March 8, 1857, by the Hon. Horace Mann. (Christian messenger [N.-Y. & Irvington], 1857, v. 9: 23 Apr., no. 8, p. 1, col. 1–4, 149 cm.; 30 Apr., no. 9, p. 1, col. 1–5, 193 cm.)

[Extra.] Broadside. 2 sheets, 2 + 1 cols.

Mann, Horace. Report of an educational tour in Germany, France, Holland, and parts of Great Britain and Ireland. Being part of the seventh annual report of Horace Mann, esq., secretary of the Board of education, Mass., U. S., 1844; with preface and notes, by W. B. Hodgson, LL. D., late principal of Chorlton High school, Manchester. [Motto.] Fourth edition. London: *Simpkin, Marshall, and Company.* 1857. 8 + 232 p., D.

"Antioch college, at Yellow Springs, Ohio, founded" . . . (New-York daily tribune, 28 Aug. 1857, v. 17, no. 5103, p. 4, col. 6, 8 cm.)

Maple, James; Mann, Horace; *& al.* Antioch college, convention at Franklin. Plan for redemption. Franklin, O., Nov. 10, 1857. Broadside, 40 x 24 cm.

S———, W. H. [Special correspondence.] (News-letter [Yellow Springs, O.], 3 Apr. 1858, p. 2, 50 cm.)

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Horace Mann. (Sunday herald [Boston], 3 May 1896, v. 99, no. 124, p. 12, col. 2-3, 53 cm.)

[Winship, A. E.] Horace Mann's great fight. His controversy with thirty-one Boston schoolmasters. A chapter in his career with which the public is not generally familiar.—His triumph—Tomorrow is the 100th anniversary of his birth—Sketch of his life. (Sunday herald [Boston], 3 May 1896, v. 99, no. 124, p. 34, col. 2-4, 168 cm.; por.)

Born beneath the same star. Historian Prescott and educator Mann have centennial celebrations to-morrow. From May 4, 1796, to 1896. The double centennial an affair of great public and literary interest. (New York herald, 3 May 1896, no. 21804; 61st year, no. 124, section 6, p. 13: col. 5, 8 cm., por.; col. 6, 53 cm.; por.)

One hundredth anniversary of the birthday of Horace Mann, first secretary Massachusetts state board of education, . . . educator, publicist, philanthropist. Association hall, Paterson—New Jersey. 1796 1896. [Paterson, N. J., 1896.] 3 p., D.

Horace Mann To the students in the public schools Reprinted by the Commissioners of public instruction, Paterson, N. J., as a souvenir of the Horace Mann anniversary, May 4th, 1896. [Paterson, N. J., 1896.] t.-p. cover + 12 p., D.

Horace Mann. (New-Yorker staats-zeitung, 4 May 1896, jahrg. 62, no. 107, p. 4, col. 4, 22 cm.)

Horace Mann's gedächtnis (Zu). Die 100. wiederkehr seines wiegenfestes. In Normal college wird dieselbe heute abend festlich begangen.—Aus dem thatenreichen leben des pädagogen. (New-Yorker staats-zeitung, 4 May 1896, jahrg. 62, no. 107, p. 9, col. 1, 43 cm.; por.)

Mann memorial. Exercises to-day in the chapel of the Normal college. (New York recorder, 4 May 1896, v. 11, no. 1899, p. 5, col. 7, 14 cm.)

In honor of Horace Mann. Speakers at the anniversary of his birth. (Commercial advertiser [N. Y.], 4 May 1896, v. 99, no. 185, p. 5, col. 1, 7 cm.)

Notable anniversary (A). (Providence [R. I.] journal, 4 May 1896, v. 68, no. 107, p. 6, col. 2, 34 cm.)

Horace Mann. One hundredth anniversary of his birth to be celebrated. He was a graduate of Brown university class of 1819. Distinguished for his interest in educational progress in Massachusetts.—Other services to the commonwealth. (Providence [R. I.] journal, 4 May 1896, v. 68, no. 107, p. 10, col. 4–5, 59 cm.; por.)

Some facts about Horace Mann, whose hundredth birthday is to be celebrated this week—What he did for the schools of Massachusetts. (Springfield [Mass.] daily republican, 4 May 1896, p. 8, col. 3, 63 cm.) (Springfield weekly republican, 8 May 1896, 63 cm.)

Horace Mann and his work Today the anniversary. Of the birth of the famous educator—Was born 100 years ago—His revolutionary methods. (Springfield [Mass.] union, 4 May 1896, v. 33, no. 122, p. 10, col. 1, 91 cm.)

Horace Mann. His birthday to be observed in the schools. Founder of the common school system—Interesting sketch of education and rise to prominence. (Times-democrat [New Orleans, La.], 4 May 1896, v. 33, no. 14208, p. 3, col. 6, 47 cm.; por.)

Horace Mann centenary. May 4th, 1796, May 4th, 1896. [Yellow Springs, O., 1896.] ½-t.-p. cover + 32 p., T. il.

Horace Mann's memory (To). Addresses at the Normal college on the life and work of the great educator. (New-York daily tribune, 5 May 1896, v. 56, no. 18069, p. 2, col. 5, 8 cm.)

In Horace Mann's memory. Impressive exercises at the Normal college. Addresses by President Hunter, Mayor Strong, United States Education Commissioner Harris and others. (New-York daily tribune, 5 May 1896, v. 56, no. 18069, p. 2, col. 5, 19 cm.)

In memory of Horace Mann. Public men and educators join in praising his work. (Commercial advertiser [N. Y.], 5 May 1896, v. 99, no. 186, p. 5, col. 2, 28 cm.; por.)

Great educator (A). Commemoration of Horace Mann's 100th birthday. At the Normal college. Mayors of four cities among the able men on the platform. Brief address by Mr. Strong. The principal speech was delivered by United States Commissioner of education Harris. (Morning advertiser [N. Y.], 5 May 1896, v. 5, no. 1794, p. 2, col. 5, 39 cm.; por.)

All due honor to Horace Mann. Great educator is warmly eulogized at the Normal college. A century since his birth. Memory of the lawyer, statesman and benefactor kept green by men who tell to enthusiastic crowds the great and good work he did for education and for women. (New York recorder, 5 May 1896, v. 11, no. 1900, p. 4, col. 5, 54 cm.; por.)

Work of Horace Mann. Educators meet in memory of the school reformer. A great gathering in the Normal college—Addresses by President Hunter, Mayor Strong, United States Commissioner Harris, President Hall of Clark university, State superintendent Skinner, and others. (N.-Y. times, 5 May 1896, v. 45, no. 13949, p. 8, col. 1–2, 60 cm.)

Horace Mann's birthday. Its hundredth anniversary commemorated. Mayor Strong's speech. (Sun [N. Y.], 5 May 1896, v. 63, no. 248, p. 2, 4, 8 cm.)

In honor of Horace Mann. One hundredth anniversary of the educator's birth celebrated. (New York press, 5 May 1896, v. 9, no. 3079, p. 9, col. 4, 11 cm.)

Ehren Horace Mann's (Zu). Eine würdige feier des 100. geburtstages des verdienstvollen mannes. (New-Yorker staats-zeitung, 5 May 1896, jahrg. 62, no. 108, p. 9, col. 5, 21 cm.)

"Exercises (The) in honor of the 100th birthday" . . . (Evening post [N. Y.], 5 May 1896, v. 95, p. 10, col. 1, 4 cm.)

Birthday of Horace Mann (The) observed in various places in western Massachusetts. (Springfield [Mass.] daily republican, 5 May 1896, p. 5, col. 1, 14 cm.)

Will honor Horace Mann.— . . . (Herald of gospel liberty [Dayton, O.], 7 May 1896, v. 88, no. 19, p. 305, col. 2, 4 cm.)

[Summerbell, J. J.] Horace Mann. (Herald of gospel liberty [Dayton, O.], 7 May 1896, v. 88, no. 19, p. 313, col. 1, 10 cm.)

Horace Mann. Eloquent tributes to the promoter of the public school and founder of normal training. (Weekly pantagraph [Bloomington, Ill.], 8 May 1896, v. 50, no. 19, part 1, p. 7, col. 3, 37 cm.)

[Long, Daniel Albright.] "Prest. Mann received the keys from" . . . . (Yellow Springs [O.] review, 8 May 1896, v. 16, no. 42, p. 3, col. 4, 5 cm.)

Long, Daniel Albright. Horace Mann. The one hundredth anniversary of this distinguished man appropriately celebrated at Antioch college last Monday—A number of excellent speeches were made and the day pleasantly spent. (Yellow Springs [O.] review, 8 May 1896, v. 16, no. 42, p. 4, col. 1-4, 124 cm.)

"Centennial (The) of the birth of Horace Mann was cele-" . . . (Outlook [N. Y.], 9 May 1896, v. 53, no. 19, p. 844, col. 1-2, 21 cm.)

"Not another day in the history of Ameri-" . . . . (Morning times [Washington, D. C.], 10 May 1896, v. 3, no. 785, p. 24, col. 2-3, 16 cm.)

Wilbur, *Mrs.* Eliza Scott, *born* Mann. Horace Mann's home life as seen by a Springfield woman. Mrs. Eliza Mann Wilbur who spent a part of her childhood in his family tells her memories. (Springfield [Mass.] Sunday republican, 10 May 1896, p. 8, col. 1-2, 74 cm.; por.) (Springfield weekly republican, 15 May 1896, p. 9, col. 5-6, 74 cm.; por.)

Long, Daniel Albright. Horace Mann. (Yellow Springs [O.] review, 15 May 1896, v. 16, no. 43, p. 2, col. 1-2, 53 cm.)

"Celebration (The) of the anniversaries of" . . . . . (Educational exchange [Birmingham, Ala.], May 1896, v. 11, no. 5, p. 4, col. 1-2, 14 cm.)

Age of Mann (The). (School journal [N. Y.], 23 May 1896, v. 52, no. 21, p. 601-602.)

Thurber, C: H. Horace Mann, the educator statesman. (University record [Chicago], 29 May 1896, v. 1, no. 9, p. 161-165.)

Dr. Harris's paper. (Buffalo [N. Y.] commercial, 7 July 1896, v. 64, no. 21251, p. 11, col. 6, 27 cm.)

Harris, W: Torrey. Horace Mann. Full text of the remarkable address delivered at Music hall today by Dr. William T. Harris to the great convention of teachers. A wonderful review of the great reformer's life work and analysis of his character by a keen and philosophical admirer. Mann's influence on the public school system. How this modern puritan, this evangelized Hebrew prophet, wrought beneficent changes against the most fierce and bitter opposition of his contemporaries—His ideas as expressed in his own words. This address should be in the hands of every teacher in the country. (Buffalo [N. Y.] enquirer, 7 July 1896, v. 51, no. 51, extra, p. 1, col. 6-7, 92 cm.; por. of Harris; p. 9, col. 1-3, 132 cm.) (Buffalo enquirer, 8 July 1896, v. 51, no. 52, 5th ed., p. 7, col. 1-5, 224 cm.; por. of Harris.)

Sabin, H: Horace Mann. Abstract of an able paper by Henry Sabin, state superintendent of public instruction, Iowa. (Buffalo [N. Y.] enquirer, 7 July 1896, v. 51, no. 51, extra, p. 9, col. 5, 9 cm.)

Harris, W: T. Harris on Mann. Able paper upon the history of education and the life of the great educator. (Buffalo [N. Y.] express, 8 July 1896, p. 8, col. 5, 20 cm.)

Harris, W: T., *et al.* Horace Mann. (Buffalo [N. Y.] courier, 8 July 1896, v. 61, no. 190, p. 6, col. 4-5, 41 cm.)

Harris, W: T. Horace Mann. (Educational review [N. Y.], Sep. 1896, no. 57; v. 12, no. 2, p. 105-119.)

Separate. [N. Y., 1896.] p. 105-119, O.

CHAPTER XVIII.

CORRELATION OF STUDIES.

[The two following papers continue the discussion aroused by the report of the Committee of Fifteen, from a new point of view.]

Isolation and Unification as Bases of Courses of Study.[1]

By Emerson E. White, LL. D., Columbus, Ohio.

An important condition in the development of any science is the use of clearly defined terms to denote its facts and principles. This is strikingly illustrated in the development of the natural and physical sciences. The terminology of chemistry, physics, and biology has made these sciences possible. It is difficult to see how they could be presented in language without the use of definite technical terms, not only to denote phenomena, but principles and laws. Most of the terms in the present science of electricity lie outside of the vocabulary of the general scholar, and are known only to specialists in the science. The same is true, to a greater or less degree, of all the modern trades, professions, and arts. Each has a large glossary of technical terms peculiar to itself, each term having a definite meaning.

It is one of the recognized infelicities of the science of psychology that so many of its terms are in general literature, where they are used with varying and often diverse significations. Indeed, one of the first conditions of the intelligent reading of a work on psychology is the determining of the definite meaning of the terms used by the author—not always an easy task. No psychologist who uses important terms in different senses, or with the meaning obscure, can be a successful author. This is specially true in that branch of psychology known as moral science or ethics. Much of the inconclusive and fruitless discussion which besets the student of ethics is due to the fact that the disputants use terms in different senses. A common source of disagreement is the use of words by one party with a larger or smaller content than the other, and this is true even when these contents contain a considerable common element.

We thus approach one of the serious obstacles in the development of a science of pedagogy. Its terminology presents a most striking contrast to that of the physical sciences. Many of its terms are borrowed from psychology and ethics, not a few from philosophy, and these from authors who use the same terms in different senses. Indeed, the science of pedagogy has a very small vocabulary of technical terms, which are used by all writers with the same meaning. This fact is the source of wide confusion in thought and much fruitless discussion. It must be evident to every careful observer that the movement in recent pedagogical inquiry is the reverse of the movement in other modern sciences. Instead of careful differentiation and the use of special terms to denote things that differ, there is in pedagogy much ambitious generalization and the use of terms that express indefinite and vague entities—terms that have been appropriately called "blanket words," since they so readily cover a group of diverse ideas. I frankly confess that I read articles and listen to

[1] From the Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association at its meeting in Jacksonville, Fla., February 18–20, 1896.

addresses on pedagogy that baffle my understanding, not, as I flatter myself, because they are too deep for me, but because of their vagueness and obscurity. Much of the present conflict of opinion in pedagogy is largely due to the fact that those who differ do not understand each other, and it is doubtful if each one always understands himself.

We have an instructive example of this difficulty in the discussion of the past year over the place and value of "correlation," "coordination," and "concentration" in school instruction. The discussion has been a Babel confusion of ideas, if not of tongues, and well-meant attempts to settle the pedagogical meaning of these terms have only added to the confusion. After all that has been said, several writers for the educational journals are using the incongruous terms coordination and concentration as synonymous. One of the surprises of the profession was the expressed expectation that a recent report on the "correlation of studies" would be devoted to a discussion of the theory of concentration!

The desire to be understood in the present paper has led me to avoid, as far as possible, these badly mixed up terms, and to use instead terms that are more definite and fundamental. For this purpose I have selected the terms "isolation" and "unification" as denoting opposite processes and results.

The term isolation, as used herein, denotes the separation of a branch of study from other branches for the purposes of instruction—the teaching of it in a separate exercise. I do not use the term in the sense of exclusion. The isolation of a branch of knowledge in instruction does not involve the exclusion of all the facts and skill that may have their origin in other branches. For example, the isolation of arithmetic as a school exercise does not mean that the data for its problems may not be taken from another branch of study. It simply means the making of instruction and drill in number the central and controlling end of the exercise, the unit of activity. The same is true of isolation as applied to the other branches of the course.

The term unification is used in a contrary sense. The unification of two or more branches of study means their union in instruction in such manner as makes them one branch, with a common sequence of facts, and taught with a common end or purpose. The term is not limited to any particular mode of uniting the several subjects. For our present purpose it makes no difference whether they are united as coordinate elements, or whether one is made the principal or core and the others subordinated to it, as we construct complex sentences.

The term unification is, however, exclusive of isolation. It does not include the teaching of branches in separate exercises, however skillfully these exercises are related to each other. If two branches are taught in separate exercises, each having its appropriate and special development, they are not unified in any true pedagogical sense. For the purposes of instruction they are isolated. Nor is this fact of isolation changed if the several separate exercises all center in the pupil and actually contribute to one teaching result. All rational instruction necessarily centers in the pupil, and in this respect methods do not essentially differ. The essential fact in complete unification is the unity of the subjects or branches in actual instruction—their oneness in the teaching process.

This leads to the natural division of the studies of a school course into coordinate groups or unities. Fortunately this subject has been too ably and too exhaustively discussed in this presence to require further elucidation. The only question is whether there are more or less than five coordinate groups of studies. Dr. Harris admits that there is a sixth coordinate group of knowledge, the one that includes religious truth—the fifth in Dr. Thomas Hill's "hierarchy of studies;" and Dr. De Garmo's earnest plea for the recognition of three coordinate groups, the third being called the "economic," necessitates, if conceded, the adding of a seventh coordinate group—a group that includes drawing, construction, book keeping, etc., and better designated as the "industrial art" group. Whether these two additional coordinate groups be, or be not, recognized as belonging to the school course does not concern our

present purpose. The important fact is that, while these coordinate groups, whether five or seven, have certain interrelations, they have a different origin, a different law of sequence, and, as a consequence, a different development; and it follows that no one of these coordinate groups can be united with another coordinate group by making the one or the other subordinate. Coordinate entities can not be unified on the principle of subordination. This is a fact of prime importance in pedagogy. If the existence of coordinate groups of studies be once conceded, the Ziller theory of concentration is left in the air, since this involves subordination.

It is also plain that, in discussing the question of unification, a clear distinction must be made between the unifying of allied subjects in the same group and the unifying of subjects that belong in different coordinate groups. A failure to observe this distinction is resulting in much confusion. There is necessarily a close relation between subjects in the same natural group, and their union at different points in instruction may, as a consequence, be both feasible and desirable. But the unifying of coordinate branches is a different matter. Take, for example, the several subjects that make up the mathematical group. Whether arithmetic, algebra, and geometry shall be taught tandem, or the elements of algebra and concrete geometry run abreast of arithmetic in the latter part of the arithmetical course, is a pedagogical question that can be best settled by experience. This is simply the proper correlation of allied subjects within a group. But the harnessing of mathematics to history or to natural science is another procedure. It constitutes a team of pedagogic animals that do not naturally travel the same road or in the same direction.

The unifying of allied subjects within a group and the unification of separate coordinate groups are very different pedagogic problems. The distinction has a parallel in the difference of the powers of the signs + and — and the signs × and ÷ in algebra, the former denoting relations between terms and the latter the relations of numbers within a term. It is important to keep this distinction in mind, for it is easy to pick out facts, and even groups of facts, in allied subjects which are so closely related that they may be taught together with obvious advantage, and then cite these instances as evidence that unification is a universal principle of teaching.

It should also be kept in mind that the unifying of closely related facts or groups of facts selected from separate branches is not the unification of the branches as wholes. A teacher may, for example, use the transparency of glass to illustrate the meaning of a lucid style in writing, but this would hardly be the unification of physics and rhetoric. The pedagogic purpose is not to teach the transparency of glass. The same is true when the skill acquired in one branch is used as an aid in teaching another. Thus, skill in drawing may be utilized in teaching geography, but this is not, in any true sense, the unification of drawing and geography, and, whenever it may be desirable to call such a procedure unification, care should be taken not to broaden the meaning to a unifying of the branches of study.

We are prepared to ask whether either isolation or unification can be made the basis of a course of study. It may be helpful in this inquiry to note that each of these principles may have three quite distinct degrees of application, as follows:

Insolation.—*First degree:* Complete; all branches taught separately throughout the course. *Second degree:* General isolation, with incidental blendings; especially in primary instruction, including the language arts. *Third degree:* Coordinate branches for development and drill, with rational blendings of allied subjects when relations are close and helpful; especially in elementary instruction.

Unification.—*Third degree:* Allied subjects at points of close relation, especially in elementary instruction, with isolation of all coordinate branches for special development and drill. *Second degree:* Groups; all branches united in two or three coordinate groups, each with a central core; incidental isolation of branches for special development and drill. *First degree:* Complete; all branches united in one organic whole, with a central core.

It is here seen that isolation is considered complete when it applies to each branch

of instruction, whether the end be knowledge or skill, and to each branch from the beginning to the end of the course. It seems unnecessary to add that this degree of isolation is not found in the American school. Spelling and reading were united more or less closely long before I was a pupil, and the same has long been true of the elements in other allied branches. Complete isolation is neither practicable nor desirable.

The second degree of isolation more nearly represents the practice of the modern school. The coordinate groups of studies are isolated in instruction, except in the lowest grades, and the well-defined branches in each group are taught, as a rule, in separate exercises. There is, however, an increasing blending of the school arts, especially in primary grades, the arts of reading, spelling, writing, and language having many close relations and possibly interunions. Advantage is also taken of the natural relations between allied subjects, and there is much incidental blending of these subjects in actual instruction. But in many schools unification is not intelligently sought as an end. What is done in this direction is incidental, and only the more simple associations are attempted. Isolation is the dominant principle, unification being incidental and exceptional.

The third degree of isolation will be best explained in connection with the same degree of unification.

Complete unification is the blending of all subjects and branches of study into one whole and the teaching of the same in successive sections. When this union is effected by making one group or branch of study in the course the center or core and subordinating all other subjects to it, the process is properly called the concentration of studies. In such a unification of subjects the principle of sequence and development of the central or core study necessarily dominates the entire group, and the proper development of each subordinate study is sacrificed. Nor is this result avoided by making the child the center, whatever this may mean, since this ignores the principle of development in all branches. Complete unification of school studies is neither practicable nor desirable.

In the second degree of unification all branches and subjects are united in two or three coordinate groups, each with a central core. It recognizes coordination as a true and fundamental principle in a course of school studies; and it allows each coordinate group to have its own principle of development, contenting itself with those natural and simple associations which are easily established between subjects in the same group. It also permits the isolation of the coordinate branches in actual instruction, and their systematic treatment. All this means much, for, if the principle of isolation applies to coordinate groups because they are coordinate, it necessarily applies to all the coordinate groups in a course, whatever be the number of such groups.

If the attempt to subordinate mathematics to literature or history leads to fantastic results, as is conceded, the same will be true of an attempt to subordinate either physical or biological science to the so-called culture studies. Hence the argument for two or for three coordinate groups, each with its own sequence and development, concedes the whole ground; and we thus again reach the fact, making one subordinate to the other. Coordination excludes subordination.

A glance at the outline given above will suffice to show that the third degree of unification and the third degree of isolation are practically the same. They differ chiefly in emphasis, one putting the emphasis on unification and the other on isolation. Both agree in the unification of allied subjects and closely related facts, and both require the isolation of coordinate branches for development and drill. Neither proposes to subject one branch of study to the principle of development that belongs to another, but each branch and subject is to receive such separate treatment as its nature demands. Both agree that unification is most feasible in elementary instruction where the association of facts is simple and easy.

It is obvious from this survey that the application of the principle of unification falls largely within the details of actual instruction. If closely related facts in

different branches are to be united in instruction, it must be done by the living teacher; and hence the problem of unification belongs more to the art of instruction than to the curriculum of studies. The curriculum should, however, not only include the five coordinate groups of studies, but the sequence in each group should correspond with the psychical development and progress of the pupil. Since human knowledge is the result of human knowing, every branch of study has natural phases that correspond to the physical phases through which pupils pass as they ascend in the course. A true course of study not only properly correlates the five coordinate groups of studies, but it cuts off a section of each in every round of its ascent. It thus adjusts, so far as this can be done in a scheme of studies, the exercises and disciplines of the school to the psychical condition and needs of the mind. Studies are thus put in right interrelation by being put in right relations to the pupil. The child is, in this psychological sense, the center of the course of study.

These facts suggest the mischief that may lurk in an exaggerated view of the importance of unifying all the studies of a child. The attempt, for example, to associate every fact of nature with literature may give now and then a beautiful, even striking, lesson; but nine-tenths of the important facts of nature can not be hitched to a poem. The attempt to establish such associations inevitably results in fantastic, and even ridiculous, combinations. Nor can I see much promise in the effort to unify all branches of instruction by universal relations. There may be a "causal flexus" that binds all knowledge into an organic unity, but children are not philosophic spiders that gather knowledge by excursions over a web of philosophic causation.

It is seen from the foregoing survey of the subject that the principle of unification can not be made the basis of a rational course of instruction—much less of a curriculum of school studies. Its most fruitful applications are in teaching allied subjects within the several coordinate groups, and here chiefly in teaching the elements. It also has an important place in teaching the more closely related facts in different coordinate groups, known facts in one group being used in teaching related facts in another group. Here is the recognized field for the practical application of the principle of unification, and such application promises valuable results.

But the obvious principle that underlies not only courses of study but methods of teaching, is the fact that every coordinate branch of study has its own natural sequence and development, requiring its isolation and separate treatment. Instead of the concentration of all branches of study by subordinating all the rest to one central core, there must be increasing differentiation and isolation, with proper recognition, of course, of all important interrelations. It thus appears that isolation is the dominating principle in a true course of study, unification having its place and function chiefly in the processes of instruction.

One more observation seems a fitting conclusion to this study. It does not follow that facts taught separately remain isolated in the pupil's thought. The mind is endowed with the power of assimilation and unification, and this power is more fundamental in education than is dreamed of by some philosophers. Were the assimilation of knowledge or the unification of mental power dependent upon the philosophic mixing of the materials of instruction in the mind's hopper, I fear that most of us now present would be idiots. We have all been doing a litttle assimilating and unifying our own account, and have actually been able to see some of the simpler relations between facts not learned in the same school exercise, or in the same day, or even in the same year. It may be true that few of us have seen many of the "universal relations," which, according to the somewhat uncertain testimony of philosophy, binds all knowledge into one "organic unity," but we hope to get more of these insights, at least in the next world. Nor are we much comforted with the suggestion that a child can be made to feel the oneness of all knowledge, even though he may not intellectually apprehend it. The feeling of a truth not present in the mind seems to border on mystery! It is a wise child that sees the immediate relation between the more common facts of observation and experience.

On the Correlation of Elementary Studies.[1]

By George H. Howison, LL. D., Mills professor of philosophy in the University of California.

What I am about to say to you, fellow-teachers, may well enough be taken as a sort of introduction to the inquiries which the committee from our State council of education has invited you to undertake during the year now opening—I mean the inquiries (1) into the course of study that is best for elementary schools, and (2) into the arrangement of the chosen studies that is most suitable in view of the educational aims. You listened to our committee's report with patient, nay, with interested attention, and you doubtless noted, at its close a few moments ago, the course of reading recommended as auxiliary to your study of the various questions proposed. You therefore can not have failed to take especial notice of the prominence given in that course of reading to the two reports, now heard of everywhere, sent out to the educational world by our National Educational Association. I refer, of course, to the report of the committee of ten and the report of the committee of fifteen.

These two reports are named by the committee from our State council as the primary and chief texts by which your studies on the elementary curriculum and its arrangement are to be guided. It is only the report of the committee of fifteen, to be sure, that treats directly of your question; and the council has accordingly asked me to say to you a few words about that, particularly with reference to the very lively discussion which its exposition of principles has provoked. Still, as our State council committee has conjoined with this report of the fifteen the report of the ten—doubtless because some principles in the latter, though laid down for secondary schools, are felt to be of great importance for elementary schools as well—it will be natural and proper for me, in what I say, to bring out something of the relations subsisting between the two reports, noticing particularly certain marked differences between them.

By way of preliminary, it is worth saying that the report of the committee of fifteen really contains three distinct reports on three very distinct subjects connected with elementary schools, the committee having been divided for this purpose into three sections of five members each; so that it is only with the second of these sections that we are really concerned this morning—the section whose report deals with the correlation of elementary studies. We are consequently to consider not the views of fifteen, but only of five committeemen. For the sake of a brief and convenient style of citation, then, I shall refer to these two great reports, during the rest of my remarks, as the report of the ten and the report of the five.

Strongly as these two reports resemble each other in their exceptional ability, there is nothing more striking about them than the different, yes, the contrasted fates with which they have thus far met. The report of the ten has been hailed with an acclaim so nearly universal that the few dissenting voices are practically drowned in the wave of approval; but the report of the five seems in some danger of having its voice overwhelmed in the clamor of dissent which it has roused. The reasons for this great contrast of fates attending two performances so akin in preeminent merit are not merely a matter for our curious interest, but are an imperative object of our inquiry, if we would be true to the heart of great educational discussions. Accordingly, though it will be impossible to do any full justice to the subject in the few minutes at our disposal, I will endeavor to show, in a brief and imperfect way, what the main causes are that have brought this great difference about.

Notable of both the reports is the fact that each is dominated by the influence of one mind—that of the chairman of the committee in charge of it; and this to a degree quite unusual in such cases. So that, in effect, we have in these two reports the expression of the minds of two men of profoundly differing types; the two, in fact, who by a

[1] Address before the California Teachers' Association, at its meeting held in Oakland in January, 1896.

silent general consent have now for years been acknowledged as in their respective kinds unquestionably the leaders of our American education. In the report of the ten, we have the mind of the president of Harvard University; and not only upon the matter of an orderly and sound curriculum for secondary schools, but implicitly upon the far profounder matter of the determining principle for the whole scheme of a people's education. In the report of the five, we have the mind of the United States Commissioner of Education; and he, too, in setting forth the principles determining the right correlation of studies for elementary schools, finds his occasion, and indeed the necessity, to give us explicitly his full mind upon the principles that should determine all selection and all correlation of all studies, if education is to be sound; and he takes such a course in this great matter as to make his mind upon it appear as if it were the mind of mankind itself thereon. For his chief argument is that the safety of the human kind as an historical whole is what is in issue in the question of correlating studies, and that the all-controlling principle in a right correlation is the due selection and apportioning of studies in the light of their bearing on the historic integrity of the human race, and on the integrity of each child as a member in a whole that is to be historically continuous, and genuinely because historically progressive. What really makes these two reports so interesting and so significant is the conflict latent in them between these two marked personalities. We can read in this the deeper conflict of two great types of personality—two types of human aim and purpose; two contending views, in fact, upon the meaning, the explanation, and the direction of life; in short, the conflict of two philosophies.

The gist of the difference between these two philosophies, and consequently between the two reports, is the different value which they place (1) upon the native tendencies of each particular human being that lead him away from a fixed common type of mankind, and (2) upon that universal or rational type. The one proceeds upon the view that each peculiar and individual expression of the common human nature is the one fact of truly cardinal value; the other, upon the view that the supreme consideration must be the type characteristically human—not private and peculiar, but public, generic, and, above all, historic. The one fills its eye with the single human being and his peculiar whole of personal endowment, in no other exactly repeated, and incapable of being replaced by anything but itself; the other, with the imposing whole of the universal rational nature, in comparison with which individual variations seem trivial, and which appears clothed with the authority and majesty of history, and with the incomparable warrant of a public judgment that has borne the test of time, of experience, of the long conflict of considerate reflection and experience-sobered forethought with the complex and adverse circumstances amid which the race has had to mature. The one therefore finds the chief motives of educational aims and methods in the interests of the single pupil; the other, in the rational authority of the human type, historically developed and tested and warranted. The watchword of the one will be that word now heard so constantly from almost every quarter, the word so naturally dear to every modern heart, the word so attractive, so fascinating, the kindling word "interest;" the watchword of the other, that word which, if often forgotten amid the whirl of contending and confusing interests, is still the word that wakes the deepest chords in the human soul whenever it is heard, the commanding word "duty," the bracing word "character," the invigorating phrase "a reasonable life." Everywhere the one philosophy, and accordingly the one report, echoes to the theme of election in education, the greatest possible range of free choice by the individual student as to what he will study, guided by what he finds answering to his native interest in subjects; everywhere the other, to the theme of a rational system of subjects for study, which is held to express the universal reason of mankind in its several essential aspects, and which must enter into every scheme of education that can claim to be truly human, in the sense of being genuinely reasonable. Thus the one philosophy, with its accordant report, finds the master principle of education in personal native impulse, in personal desire; the other finds it in a public or generic intelligent judgment, that gets at

the abiding heart of human nature with all the mass and momentum of history, in a universal rational will which is to judge, to master, and to use all merely private desires. Consequently, the report of the ten appeals directly to the foremost tendencies of the times, the present mood of the Zeitgeist, and naturally finds a corresponding response. But the report of the five has to stem the prevailing current; indeed, has to turn it from its course; and it not only invites the prevalent thought to an unrelished self-criticism, but it demands as the effective means of this a much subtler and deeper order of thinking than the habitual flow of consciousness finds easy. This largely accounts, as it seems to me, for the present greater success of the report of the committee of ten; but it also foretells, as I believe, the profounder coming acceptance of the report of the five, an acceptance that may be slow in maturing, and that will no doubt be attended with corrective criticism of details, but that will be all the more settled and secure.

Another reason for the difference in fate of the two reports is undoubtedly to be found in the different methods by which they are respectively supplied with evidence to convince and to influence those to whom they are addressed. This difference of methods is, in part, ingrained in the very difference of view and aim which we have just considered; but it is, in perhaps greater part, also owing to the characteristic powers of their two authors. Without the least disparagement of either, I think we may truly say that if the author of the first has a genius for administration, the author of the other has a genius for thought, for penetrating to first principles and to fundamental reasons. Thus the report of the ten, instead of arguing, proceeds, with the genuine administrative instinct, directly to the established sources of administrative authority, and, selecting approved representatives of the staff actually engaged in managing and teaching secondary schools, obtains their opinions, justly reckoned weighty, on the several questions raised. These are colligated, judiciously sifted, adjusted, most skillfully harmonized; and the condensed result—briefly, pertinently, and forcibly set forth—carries with it, naturally, all the convincing weight that judgment already accepted and taken for granted must always have, and must have in the highest degree when there is confidence in the process by which its adequate representatives have been selected, and confidence in the administrative capacity of the man who selects them. Far different from this simple appeal to what the public directly concerned has already definitely settled, and this masterful avoidance of inquiries that may unsettle everything, and must unavoidably unsettle much, and stir up the more or less violent dispute that inevitably attends all starting of real questions—far different from this is the problem of the man who will inquire into the final reasons of things; who can not find it in him to admit that what either individuals or communities, either personal instincts or gradually acquired customs and habits of feeling, merely want to have or to do is what in reason they ought to have and to do, but is drawn onward by a high conviction that there is a discoverable reason, an ideal justification, for everything that is worth man's while to do or to have. The report of the five inquires into the chief problem of education in this spirit of deep and truly sober speculation. It opens matters to the bottom, and stirs them up from their depths. Its direct appeal to the ultimate reason in the case, its appeal from mere fact and actual practice to ideal considerations, may be in the best sense stimulating; but it carries with it the unavoidable consequence that the judgments of its readers, once invited and aroused, will surely be diverse, will be strongly so at first, and will require a process more or less tedious, a lapse of time possibly long, in order to come to a settled harmony.

Accordingly, the author of this report has found himself—very likely without surprise—confronted with a keen opposition to his main positions, and that, too, from the very class of minds among our school managers that may well claim to rank among the most intelligently alert. There are three main lines of objection which they follow in criticising the report.

The first of these is that its author's view on correlation of studies misses the real aim entirely; his scheme, they say, is not correlation in the true sense of the

word at all. His system should be called, rather, a system for the selection and valuation of studies; a system of their coördination instead of their correlation. Correlation, they will have it, means the bringing of the subjects of study into a closer unity than that of coordination; it means that they shall be brought into a unity of subordination, and that some subject, or rather some principle of dealing with all subjects, needs to be found that will serve to reduce each to its proper place and function as an auxiliary of greater or less subordination in the process of real education. It must settle which of them is really principal and substantive, and which merely subsidiary and instrumental. The report, they claim, has only begun the work assigned to its committee; or worse, it has built up a barrier in the way of the work, by suddenly arresting the investigation when it has settled upon the several studies that legitimately belong in an elementary curriculum, and then obstinately insisting that this shall be taken as the only problem, and its result as the only true meaning of correlation.

This brings them to their second line of objection. What they really mean is, that correlation, taken in the sense of a unification by subordination, has its secret in the recognition that mind, the development and right discipline of which is the business of education, carries in its very being as self-conscious intelligence a distinction between consciousness as substantive contents and consciousness as mere form—mere way of putting or stating those contents. All the interest of mental being lies in the contents, they say, and none of it at all, or next to none of it, is the mere form. Thus this distinction between knowledge of contents and knowledge of mere form is the distinction, they claim, between the knowledge that alone is substantive and real and the knowledge that is merely nominal. The form apart from the contents is unreal, hollow, meaningless, insignificant. There is in it no interest, except for a few unusual minds, who, whatever their remote usefulness as makers and polishers of instruments for real intelligences, are themselves hardly human, are a sort of gnomes that live in the underground Dämmerung and are by nature repellent dryasdusts. The application of this vital distinction between form and contents to the question of correlation, say these critics of Dr. Harris, would settle a main practical question in elementary education at once. It would explain why the children in elementary schools do not flourish as they ought; it would show that they are perishing from an unsucculent diet of the three R's—from a lack of the proper nourishment to be found only in interesting contents, and a vain attempt to feed minds on the empty husks of the merely formal consciousness. For, cry these Herbartian philosophers, what is Reading, 'Riting, or 'Rithmetic, but just the form of thought and reality, pure and simple, form torn off from its proper contents, and in itself destitute of any human interest or meaning? Nature and man, natural science, history, poetry, these alone furnish the mind with contents. What wonder that the school children do not care, except rarely, for learning to read and write and cipher, when it is plain that not one of these things gives them any interesting contents, any savory pabulum at all, but instead only forces on them the juiceless cud of empty form? These things, no doubt, have to enter into the work of elementary education, but they should only play a minor and a servant's part there, just as the mechanic's tools are indispensable to his work, but after all are nothing but tools, and would lodge him on the summit of absurdity if he spent his time in making them and keeping them in order. The demand paramount, say these critics, is to correlate these formal studies into their proper place of humble service and instrumentality, and to teach them by means of interesting contents to which they are applied. All the three R's should be taught incidentally merely, as need for them actually comes up in the course of learning by the help of the senses the interesting things of science, history, and poetry.

At this point the third line of objection from these critics comes into plain view, the real and basal line. They claim that Dr. Harris makes no proper provision for interest—that he ignores or belittles the absolute mainspring of fruitful education,

which is that whatever a pupil studies shall interest him. Dr. Harris, his critics maintain, would bring all pupils, every one of whom is an unreplaceable original, with desires, powers, and interests all his own, having in themselves mandatory rights, the satisfaction and preservation of which ought to be the devout study and persistent business of every teacher—Dr. Harris would bring them all under the Procrustean forms of a public and undiscriminating tradition, a tradition, too, that commits the fatal oversight of rating formal and implemental studies even higher than studies of contents and substance, and that ignores the plain truth, no longer to be blinked, that human beings are not all cast in the same mold, but are made in every variety of nature, with interests endlessly varying; a tradition, finally, that knows nothing of the central fact that the entire life of humanity turns upon interest, which is at once its spring, its inspiration, and its hope.

But in this doctrine of interest—this absolute justification of the human natural self as a product of birth and heredity—Dr. Harris hears the knell of civilization. The secret of that, surely, whatever it may be, is of somewhat higher import than the satisfaction of merely individual instincts, qualifications, and desires. And just as surely, it can not lie directly in those private desires, can not be made out of endless variation, isolation, difference. Nor can the great thing we mean by character, which assuredly is the true goal of all education, be built out of mere instincts and desires and the perpetual consultation of these, and the persistent cultivation of them. What must become of rational freedom, of all that goes to make real manhood and real womanhood, if the culture of each person is to be studied and guided wholly from the point of view of the natural interests, the private personal desires, of each?

Well, there is the issue between Dr. Harris and his critics—the issue between interest and character. On which side of it are you? I shall undertake no decision of it now, though I admit that my sympathies are mainly with the view of our distinguished Commissioner of Education. Next year I shall hope to bear some part in the discussion of this question that is to come at our meeting in San Jose, and then I shall be glad to go into the core of the subject on its merits. For the present, I must content myself with having thus briefly told you what I suppose the real question is, and with the further statement that, in my opinion, there can never be any satisfactory solution of the many problems connected with elementary education until we find the means of separating the elementary school, in accordance with its true philosophical definition, from the various forms of the secondary school, and of causing secondary education to begin, as it should, at a much earlier date than at present, somewhere near the beginning of the present so-called sixth grade of the grammar school. To this end, we need most of all to attain a philosophical distinction between the elementary school and secondary schools, and to supplant by this our present meaningless and futile distinction, which knows no difference between them but the shallow fact that the one comes first and the other comes second.

Let me close by saying that I would not for a moment be supposed to deny the educational value of interest. Nor would I be thought to imply that Dr. Harris overlooks this; he only sees that there is something still more valuable. Interest is indispensable to successful education; you can not teach the uninterested mind. But it is the very business of the teacher, and the very genius of the true teacher, to kindle interest; to know what is reasonable, what is for the highest good of the pupil, and to be able to rouse his interest in that, even when he has no interest in it by nature.

CHAPTER XIX.

EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY.[1]

I.—Chief State School Officers.

Name.	Address.	Official designation.
John O. Turner	Montgomery, Ala	State superintendent of education.
Sheldon Jackson	Sitka, Alaska	General agent of education.
F. J. Netherton	Phœnix, Ariz	Superintendent of public instruction.
Junius Jordan	Little Rock, Ark	State superintendent of public instruction.
Samuel T. Black	Sacramento, Cal	Do.
Miss Grace E. Patton	Denver, Colo	Do.
C. D. Hine	Hartford, Conn	Secretary of State board of education.
	Dover, Del	Do.
W. B. Powell	Washington, D. C	Superintendent of District schools.
W. N. Sheats	Tallahassee, Fla	State superintendent of public instruction.
Gustavus R. Glenn	Atlanta, Ga	State school commissioner.
C. A. Forseman	Boise, Idaho	State superintendent of public instruction.
Samuel M. Inglis	Springfield, Ill	Do.
D. M. Geeting	Indianapolis, Ind	Do.
Henry Sabin	Des Moines, Iowa	Do.
William Stryker	Topeka, Kans	Do.
W. J. Davidson	Frankfort, Ky	Do.
J. V. Calhoun	Baton Rouge, La	State superintendent of education.
W. W. Stetson	Augusta, Me	State superintendent of common schools.
E. B. Prettyman	Baltimore, Md	Secretary of State board of education.
Frank A. Hill	Boston, Mass	Do.
Henry R. Pattengill	Lansing, Mich	State superintendent of public instruction.
W. W. Pendergast	St. Paul, Minn	Do.
A. A. Kincannon	Jackson, Miss	State superintendent of education.
John R. Kirk	Jefferson City, Mo	State superintendent of public schools.
E. A. Carleton	Helena, Mont	State superintendent of public instruction.
W. R. Jackson	Lincoln, Nebr	Do.
H. C. Cutting	Carson City, Nev	Do.
Fred. Gowing	Concord, N. H	Do.
Chas. J. Baxter	Trenton, N. J	Do.
Amado Chávez	Santa Fe, N. Mex	Superintendent of public instruction.
Charles R. Skinner	Albany, N. Y	State superintendent of public instruction.
John C. Scarborough	Raleigh, N. C	Do.
J. G. Holland	Bismarck, N. Dak	Do.
Oscar T. Corson	Columbus, Ohio	State commissioner of common schools.
A. A. Nichols	Guthrie, Okla	Superintendent of public instruction.
G. M. Irwin	Salem, Oreg	State superintendent of public instruction
Nathan C. Schaeffer	Harrisburg, Pa	Do.
Thomas B. Stockwell	Providence, R. I	Commissioner of public schools.
W. D. Mayfield	Columbia, S. C	State superintendent of education.
Frank Crane	Pierre, S. Dak	State superintendent of public instruction.
Price Thomas	Nashville, Tenn	State superintendent of public instruction.
J. M. Carlisle	Austin, Tex	State superintendent of public instruction.
John R. Park	Salt Lake City, Utah	Do.
Mason S. Stone	Montpelier, Vt	State superintendent of education.
John E. Massey	Richmond, Va	State superintendent of public instruction.
Frank J. Browne	Olympia, Wash	Do.
J. R. Trotter	Charleston, W. Va	State superintendent of free schools.
J. Q. Emery	Madison, Wis	State superintendent of public schools.
Miss Estelle Reel	Cheyenne, Wyo	State superintendent of public instruction.

II.—City Superintendents.

ALABAMA.

Anniston, J. W. Abercrombie.
Bessemer, G. M. Lovejoy.
Birmingham, J. H. Phillips.
Eufaula, F. L. McCoy.
Florence, H. C. Gilbert.
Huntsville, Sydney J. Mayhew.
Mobile, John D. Yerby.
Montgomery, Charles L. Floyd.
New Decatur, R. R. Harris.
Opelika, T. C. Pinckard.
Selma, R. E. Hardaway.
Tuscaloosa, James H. Foster.

[1] Corrected to February, 1897.

ARIZONA.

Tucson, S. P. McCrea.

ARKANSAS.

Fort Smith, J. L. Holloway.
Helena, W. W. Rivers.
Hot Springs, George B. Cook.
Little Rock, J. R. Rightsell.
Pine Bluff, J. H. Hinemon.

CALIFORNIA.

Alameda, D. J. Sullivan.
Berkeley, S. D. Waterman.
Eureka, T. L. Heaton.
Fresno, Charles W. Roby.
Los Angeles, J. A. Foshay.
Napa City, J. L. Shearer.
Oakland, J. W. McClymonds.
Pasadena, James D. Graham.
Pomona, F. A. Molyneaux.
Riverside, Eugenia Fuller.[1]
Sacramento, O. W. Erlewine.
San Bernardino, T. H. Kirk.[2]
San Diego, Ellwood P. Cubberley.
San Francisco, Madison Babcock.
San Jose, F. P. Russell.
Santa Ana, F. E. Perham.
Santa Barbara, C. Y. Roop.
Santa Cruz, D. C Clark.
Santa Rosa, E. M. Cox.
Stockton, James A. Barr.
Vallejo, Charles A. Fulton.

COLORADO.

Aspen, F. H. Clark.
Colorado Springs, ——— ———.
Cripple Creek, Charles M. Kingsley.
Denver: District No. 1, Aaron Gove.
District No. 2, L. C. Greenlee.
Denver: District No. 17, J. H. Van Sickle.
Leadville, J. P. Jackson.
Pueblo: District No. 1, James S. McClung.
District No. 20, J. F. Keating.
Trinidad, Eugene C. Stevens.

CONNECTICUT.

Ansonia, W. A. Smith.
Branford, C. H. Harriman.[3]
Bridgeport, Charles W. Deane.
Bristol, C. L. Wooding.[4]
Danbury, G. D. Northrup.
Derby, J. W. Peck.
East Hartford, Joseph O. Goodwin.[5]
Enfield, James B. Houston.[6]
Greenwich, George P. Fisher.
Hartford, Andrew F. Gates.
Manchester: Town schools Robert P. Bissell.
Ninth district (incorporated), Thomas Sims.[5]
Meriden, C. M. Williams.
Middletown, Walter B. Ferguson.
Milford, H. I. Mathewson.
Naugatuck, J. H. Carfrey.
New Britain, Giles A. Stuart.
New Haven, Calvin N. Kendall.
New London, Charles B. Jennings.[7]
New Milford, Charles H. Soule.
Norwalk, Charles Olmstead.[5]
Norwich (Central district), N. L. Bishop.
Rockville, I. M. Agard.
Stamford, Everett C. Willard.
Torrington, Edwin H. Forbes.
Wallingford, Daniel R. Knight.
Waterbury, M. S. Crosby.
West Haven, A. M. Drummond.
Westport, L. T. Day.[5]
Willimantic, George L. Storrs.[5]
Winsted, George Foster Prentiss.[5]

DELAWARE.

Newcastle, Allen H. Knapp.
Wilmington, David W. Harlan.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington, William B. Powell (superintendent public schools).
Washington, G. F. T. Cook (superintendent colored schools).

FLORIDA.

Jacksonville, Joel D. Mead.[8]
Key West, C. F. Kemp.[8]
Pensacola, N. B. Cook.[8]
St. Augustine, Walter E. Knibloe.
Tampa, L. W. Buchholz.[8]

GEORGIA.

Albany, E. G. Jones.
Americus, William Harper.
Athens, G. G. Bond.
Atlanta, W. F. Slaton.
Augusta, Lawton B. Evans.
Brunswick, A. L. Franklin.
Columbus, Carleton B. Gibson.
Griffin, J. Henry Walker.
Macon, D. Q. Abbott.
Rome, James C. Harris.
Savannah, Otis Ashmore.
Thomasville, K. T. MacLean.[8]

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[1] Principal of the High School.
[2] Supervising principal.
[3] Principal.
[4] Acting visitor.
[5] Secretary of the board of school visitors.
[6] Secretary of the board of school visitors; Post-office, Thompsonville.
[7] Acting school visitor.
[8] County superintendent.

ILLINOIS.

Alton, Robert A. Haight.
Aurora: District No. 5 (East Side), C. M. Bardwell.
District No. 4 (West Side), A. V. Greenman.
Austin, Newell D. Gilbert.
Beardstown, David T. Harris.
Belleville, H. D. Updike.
Belvidere, H. A. Warren,[1] C. H. Dye.[1]
Bloomington, Edwin M. Van Petten.
Braidwood: North Side, John P. Keeves.
South Side, M. E. Knapp.
Cairo, Taylor C. Clendennen.
Canton, ——— ———.
Centralia, Irwin F. Mather.
Champaign, Joseph Carter.
Charleston, W. T. Gooden.
Chicago, Albert G. Lane.
Danville, ——— ———.
Decatur, Enoch A. Gastman.
Dixon, William Jenkins.
Duquoin, David B. Rawlins.
East St. Louis: District No. 1, James F. McCullough.
District No. 2, Range 10, T. J. McDonough.[1]
District No. 2, Range 9, I. Harry Todd.[1]
Edwardsville, J. M. Parkinson.
Elgin, M. A. Whitney.
Evanston: District No. 1, Homer H. Kingsley.
District No. 3 (North Evanston), Arthur J. Snyder.
District No. 2 (South Evanston), Fred. W. Nichols.
Freeport, R. S. Page.
Galena, I. C. Baker.
Galesburg, William L. Steele.
Jacksonville, J. W. Henninger.
Joliet, W. H. Campbell.
Kankakee, F. N. Tracy.
Kewanee, A. C. Butler.
La Salle, L. A. Thomas.
Lincoln, Campbell W. Harriman.
Litchfield, J. E. Wooters.
Macomb, R. C. Rennick.
Mattoon, B. F. Armitage.
Metropolis City, O. J. Page.
Moline, H. M. Slauson.
Monmouth, James C. Burns.
Morris, J. M. Blackford.
Oak Park, William H. Hatch.
Ottawa, Samuel H. Heidler.
Pana: West and South Side, L. S. Ham.[2]
East Side, William Miner.
Paris, W. W. Black.
Pekin, J. A. Hornberger.
Peoria, Newton Charles Dougherty.
Peru, W. W. Wirt.
Quincy, T. W. MacFall.
Rock Island, James E. Ament.
Rockford, P. R. Walker.
Springfield, J. H. Collins.
Spring Valley, F. S. Johnson.
Sterling: District No. 1, W. T. Tuttle.
District No. 3, H. L. Chaplin.
District No. 8, S. B. Hursh.
Streator, W. F. Rocheleau.
Urbana, J. W. Hays.
Waukegan, Frank H. Hall.

INDIANA.

Anderson, John W. Carr.
Aurora, J. R. Houston.
Bloomington, Sigel E. Raines.
Bluffton, W. P. Burris.
Brazil, John C. Gregg.
Columbus, J. A. Carnagey.
Connersville, W. F. L. Sanders.
Crawfordsville, Isaac M. Wellington.
Elkhart, D. W. Thomas.
Evansville, William A. Hester.
Fort Wayne, Justin N. Study.
Frankfort, Benjamin F. Moore.
Goshen, William H. Sims.
Greencastle, Robert A. Ogg.
Hammond, W. C. Belman.
Huntington, Robert I. Hamilton.
Indianapolis, David K. Goss.
Jeffersonville, P. P. Stultz.
Kokomo, Horace G. Woody.
Lafayette, Edward Ayres.
Laporte, O. C. Seelye.
Lawrenceburg, R. Ellsworth Call.
Lebanon, James R. Hart.
Logansport, Albert H. Douglass.
Madison, C. M. McDaniels.
Marion, Welford D. Weaver.
Michigan City, Edward Boyle.
Mount Vernon, Edwin S. Monroe.
Muncie, W. R. Snyder.
New Albany, W. H. Hershman.
Peru, ——— ———.
Portland, C. L. Hottel.
Richmond, Thomas A. Mott.
Seymour, H. C. Montgomery.
Shelbyville, James H. Tomlin.
South Bend, Calvin Moon.
Terre Haute, William H. Wiley.
Valparaiso, Charles Henderson Wood.
Vincennes, Albert E. Humke.
Wabash, M. W. Harrison.
Warsaw, James H. Henry.
Washington, William F. Axtell.

IOWA.

Atlantic, William Wilcox.
Boone, George I. Miller.
Burlington, Charles Eldred Shelton.
Cedar Rapids, J. F. Merrill.
Centerville, F. E. Stephens.
Clinton, O. P. Bostwick.
Council Bluffs, Joseph C. Hisey.
Creston, O. E. French.
Davenport, J. B. Young.
Des Moines: East Side, Amos Hiatt.
West Side, Frank B. Cooper.
North Side, O. E. Smith.
Dubuque, F. T. Oldt.
Fort Dodge, F. C. Wildes.
Fort Madison, C. H. Morrill.
Iowa City, W. F. Cramer.
Keokuk, O. W. Meyer.
Le Mars, E. N. Coleman.
Lyons, J. H. Breese.
Marshalltown, F. E. Willard.
Mason City, A. R. Sale.
Mount Pleasant, John F. Riggs.
Muscatine, F. M. Witter.
Oskaloosa, Orion C. Scott.
Ottumwa, A. W. Stuart.
Sioux City, H. E. Kratz.
Waterloo: East Side, F. J. Sessions.
West Side, George A. Bateman.

[1] Principal.

[2] Supervising principal.

KANSAS.

Argentine, Charles R. Sorter.
Arkansas City, T. W. Conway.
Atchison, J. H. Glotfelter.
Emporia, L. A. Lowther.
Fort Scott, David M. Bowen.
Hutchinson, George W. Winans.
Junction City, George W. Kendrick.
Kansas City, Larkin L. L. Hanks.
Lawrence, Frank P. Smith.
Leavenworth, Miss Emma E. Dolphin, acting.
Newton, J. W. Cooper.
Ottawa, William M. Sinclair.
Parsons, S. D. Frazier.
Pittsburg, S. W. Black.
Salina, A. Ludlum.
Topeka, William M. Davidson.
Wellington, H. F. M. Bear.
Wichita, Frank R. Dyer.
Winfield, J. W. Spindler.

KENTUCKY.

Ashland, John G. Crabbe.
Bowling Green, Edward Taylor.
Covington, John Morris.
Dayton, F. S. Alley.
Frankfort, McHenry Rhoads.
Henderson, Edward S. Clark.
Hopkinsville, Livingstone McCartney.
Lexington, William Rogers Clay.
Louisville, E. H. Mark.
Maysville, no superintendent.[1]
Newport, John Burke.
Owensboro, James McGinniss.
Paducah, George O. McBroom.
Paris, E. W. Weaver.
Richmond, J. D. Clark.
Winchester, A. C. Fleshman.

LOUISIANA.

Baton Rouge, R. C. Gordon.
New Orleans, Warren Easton.
Shreveport, John L. Hargrove.

MAINE.

Auburn, A. P. Wagg.
Augusta: Albion Hale Brainard, principal Cony High School.
J. M. Wyman, superintendent suburban schools.
S. I. Graves, superintendent village district.
Weston Lewis, principal Williams District.
Bangor, Miss Mary S. Snow.
Bath, William H. Winslow.
Belfast, F. S. Brick.
Biddeford, Royal E. Gould.
Brewer, Mrs. Mertie M. Curtis.
Brunswick, Franklin C. Robinson.
Calais, S. E. Webber.
Eastport, Charles Sumner Holton.
Ellsworth, I. H. W. Wharff.
Fort Fairfield, H. T. Powers.
Gardiner, James M. Larrabee.[2]
Houlton, Harry L. Putnam.
Lewiston, I. C. Phillips.
Old Town, Alfonso F. Marsh.[2]
Portland, Orlando M. Lord.
Rockland, Arthur P. Irving.
Saco, John S. Locke.
Sanford, Frank H. Dexter.
Waterville, W. L. Waters.

MARYLAND.

Annapolis, John G. Bannon.[3]
Baltimore, Henry A. Wise.
Cambridge, James L. Bryan.[3]
Cumberland, H. G. Weimer.[3]
Frederick, Ephraim L. Boblitz.[3]
Hagerstown, George C. Pearson.[3]

MASSACHUSETTS.

Abington, W. H. Sanderson.
Adams, J. C. Gray.
Amesbury, E. O. Perkins.[4]
Amherst, William D. Parkinson.
Andover, George E. Johnson.
Arlington, True W. White.
Athol, —— ——.
Attleboro, J. O. Tiffany.
Barnstable, F. W. Kingman.
Beverly, Adelbert Leon Safford.
Blackstone, Josiah B. Davis.
Boston, Edwin P. Seaver.
Bradford, R. D. McKeen.
Braintree, Irving W. Horne.
Bridgewater, W. H. Sanderson.
Brockton, B. B. Russell.
Brookline, Samuel T. Dutton.
Cambridge, Francis Cogswell.
Canton, James S. Perkins.
Chelsea, Eben H. Davis.
Chicopee, Clarence A. Brodeur.
Clinton, Charles L. Hunt.
Concord, William L. Eaton.
Danvers, W. A. Baldwin.
Dedham, Roderick Whittlesey Hine.
East Hampton, W. D. Miller.
Easton, Edward B. Maglathlin.
Everett, Randall J. Condon.
Fall River, William C. Bates.
Fitchburg, Joseph G. Edgerley.
Framingham, Samuel F. Blodgett.
Franklin, Ernest D. Daniels.
Gardner, Louis P. Nash.
Gloucester, Freeman Putney.
Grafton, Stanley H. Holmes.
Greenfield, D. P. Dame.
Haverhill, Albert L. Bartlett.
Hingham, Elmer L. Curtiss.
Holyoke, P. W. Search.
Hopkinton, Alvan R. Lewis.
Hyde Park, Ella F. Boyd.[4]
Lawrence, John E. Burke.
Lowell, Arthur K. Whitcomb.
Lynn, Orsamus B. Bruce.
Malden, George E. Gay.
Marblehead, John B. Gifford.
Marlboro, B. W. Tinker.
Medford, Charles H. Morss.
Melrose, Benjamin F. Robinson.
Methuen, George E. Chickering.
Middleboro, Asher J. Jacoby.
Milford, C. W. Haley.
Millbury, C. S. Lyman.
Milton, M. W. Richardson.
Natick, Frank Edson Parlin.
New Bedford, William E. Hatch.
Newburyport, William P. Lunt.
Newton, George I. Aldrich.
North Adams, Isaac Freeman Hall.
Northampton, Alvin F. Pease.

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[1] G. W. Blatterman signs reports.
[2] Supervisor.
[3] County school examiner.
[4] Secretary of the school committee.

MASSACHUSETTS—Continued.

North Attleboro, William C. Hobbs.
Northbridge, S. A. Melcher.
Orange, Lizzie A. Mason.
Palmer, W. H. Small.
Peabody, John B. Gifford.
Pittsfield, Eugene Bouton.
Plymouth, Francis J. Heavens.
Provincetown, Clarence W. Fearing.
Quincy, H. W. Lull.
Reading, Charles E. Hussey.
Revere, Milton K. Putney.
Rockport, Mary L. Lincoln.
Salem, John W. Perkins.
Saugus, C. E. Stevens.
Somerville, Gordon A. Southworth.
Southbridge, John T. Clarke.
South Hadley, Edward H. McLachlin.
Spencer, Wyman C. Fickett.
Springfield, Thomas M. Balliet.
Stoneham, C. E. Stevens.
Taunton, C. F. Boyden.
Wakefield, Charles E. Hussey.
Waltham, Henry Whittemore.
Ware, Frank E. Spaulding.
Warren, Albert Robinson.
Watertown, George R. Dwelley.
Webster, J. I. Buck.
Wellesley, Marshall Livingston Perrin.
Westboro, H. C. Waldron.
Westfield, George H. Danforth.
West Springfield, Ulysses G. Wheeler.
Weymouth, I. M. Norcross.
Winchendon, David B. Locke.
Woburn, Thomas Emerson.
Worcester, Clarence F. Carroll.

MICHIGAN.

Adrian, A. E. Curtis.
Albion, Warren C. Hull.
Alpena, George A. Hunt.
Ann Arbor, Walter S. Perry.
Au Sable, C. M. Jansky.
Battle Creek, W. G. Coburn.
Bay City, John A. Stewart.
Benton Harbor, Eugene A. Wilson.
Big Rapids, James R. Miller.
Cadillac, J. H. Kaye.
Charlotte, O. L. Miller.
Cheboygan, William C. Thompson.
Coldwater, Egbert L. Briggs.
Detroit, W. E. Robinson.
Escanaba, George P. Fleisher.
Flint, F. R. Hathaway.
Grand Haven, —— Crawford.
Grand Rapids, W. W. Chalmers.
Hillsdale, W. L. Shuart.
Holland, C. M. McLean.
Ionia, C. L. Bemis.
Iron Mountain, T. W. Paton.
Ironwood, L. L. Wright.
Ishpeming, Richard Hardy.
Jackson: District No. 1, L. S. Norton.
District No. 17, Martin L. Palmer.
Kalamazoo, O. E. Latham.
Lansing, S. B. Laird.
Ludington, H. T. Blodgett.
Manistee, Albert Jennings.
Marquette, Anna M. Chandler.
Menominee, O. I. Woodley.
Monroe, A. W. Tressler.
Mount Clemens, S. C. Price.
Muskegon, David Mackenzie.
Negaunee, F. Dayton Davis.
Niles, J. D. Schiller.
Owosso, J. W. Simmons.
Pontiac, F. E. Converse.
Port Huron, James B. Beazell.
Saginaw: East Side, A. S. Whitney.
West Side, Edwin C. Thompson
St. Joseph, George W. Loomis.
Sault Ste. Marie, E. E. Ferguson.
Traverse City, Charles T. Grawn.
West Bay City, N. A. Richards.
Wyandotte, A. W. Dasef.
Ypsilanti, Austin George.

MINNESOTA.

Anoka, Zenas N. Vaughn.
Austin, W. F. F. Selleck.
Brainerd, Miles H. Carleton.
Duluth, Robert E. Denfeld.
Faribault, George A. Franklin.
Fergus Falls, Caswell A. Ballard.
Mankato, George F. Kenaston.
Minneapolis, C. M. Jordan.
New Ulm, E. T. Critchett.
Owatonna, L. H. Ford.
Red Wing, F. V. Hubbard.
Rochester, F. D. Budlong.
St. Cloud, S. S. Parr.
St. Paul, Virgil G. Curtis.
St. Peter, Edgar George,
Stillwater, Frank A. Weld.
Winona, J A. Tormly.

MISSISSIPPI.

Columbus, J. M. Barrow.
Greenville, E. E. Bass.[1]
Jackson, J. C. Hardy.
Meridian, J. G. Deupree.
Natchez, J. W. Henderson.
Vicksburg, Charles Pendleton Kemper.

MISSOURI.

Bonne Terre, J. H. Malugen.
Boonville, D. T. Gentry.
Brookfield, L. A. Wirick.
Cape Girardeau, T. E. Joyce.
Carrollton, L. W. Rader.
Carthage, W. J. Stevens.
Chillicothe, W. F. Jamison.
Clinton, Charles B. Reynolds.
Columbia, R. H. Emberson.
De Soto, Charles M. Gill.
Fulton, John P. Gass.
Hannibal, R. B. D. Simonson.
Independence, J. N. Patrick.
Jefferson City, J. M. White.
Joplin, W. B. Brown.
Kansas City, James M. Greenwood.
Kirksville, W. R. Holliday.
Lexington, H. D. Demand.
Louisiana, A. P. Settle.
Marshall, —— ——.
Maryville, B. F. Duncan.
Mexico, D. A. McMillan.
Moberly, J. A. Whiteford.
Nevada, W. J. Hawkins.
Rich Hill, John P. Thurman.
St. Charles, George W. Jones.
St. Joseph, Edward B. Neely.
St. Louis, F. Louis Soldan.
Sedalia, George V. Buchanan.
Springfield, Jonathan Fairbanks.
Trenton, H. E. Du Bois.
Warrensburg, F. E. Holiday.
Webb City, A. G. Young.

[1] Superintendent of white schools.

MONTANA.

Butte, F. L. Kern.
Great Falls, B. T. Hathaway.
Helena, James E. Klock.

NEBRASKA.

Beatrice, O. H. Brainerd.
Fremont, Daniel Miller.
Grand Island, Robert J. Barr.
Hastings, Edwin N. Brown.
Kearney, Jesse T. Morey.
Lincoln, J. F. Saylor.
Nebraska City, W. H. Skinner.
Omaha, Carroll G. Pearse.
Plattsmouth, John G. McHugh.
South Omaha, A. A. Munro.

NEVADA.

Virginia City, F. P. Langan.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Concord, Louis J. Rundlett.
Dover, Channing Folsom.
Keene, Thaddeus William Harris.
Laconia, William N. Cragin.
Manchester, William E. Buck.
Nashua, James H. Fassett.
Portsmouth, James C. Simpson.
Rochester, Henry Kimball.

NEW JERSEY.

Atlantic City, W. M. Polland.
Bayonne, Charles M. Davis.
Bordentown, William Macfarland.[1]
Bridgeton, John S. Turner.
Burlington, Wilbur Watts.[1]
Camden, Martin V. Bergen.
Elizabeth, William J. Shearer.
Gloucester, John C. Stinson.
Hackensack, John Terhune.[2]
Harrison, John Dwyer.[1]
Hoboken, David E. Rue.
Jersey City, Henry Snyder.
Lambertville, Lambert H. Sargeant.
Long Branch, Christopher Gregory.
Millville, E. C. Stokes.
Morristown, W. L. R. Haven.
New Brunswick, George G. Ryan.
Newark, Charles B. Gilbert.
Orange, Usher W. Cutts.
Passaic, H. H. Hutton.
Paterson, J. A. Reinhart.
Perth Amboy, S. E. Shull.
Phillipsburg, H. Budd Howell.
Plainfield, Henry M. Maxson.
Rahway, Henry B. Rollinson.
Red Bank, Richard Case.
Salem, Thomas G. Dunn.
South Amboy, R. M. Fitch.[3]
Trenton, Leslie C. Pierson, superintendent.
B. C. Gregory, supervising principal.
Town of Union, Otto Ortel.[4]
Vineland, H. J. Wightman.
Woodbury, William Milligan.

NEW MEXICO.

Albuquerque, Charles E. Hodgin.
Santa Fe, Tilmon Jenkins.

NEW YORK.

Albany, Charles W. Cole.
Albion, Freeman A. Greene.
Amsterdam, Charles S. Davis.
Auburn, Benjamin B. Snow.
Batavia, John Kennedy.
Binghamton, Rufus H. Halsey.
Brooklyn, William H. Maxwell.
Buffalo, Henry P. Emerson.
Canandaigua, J. Carlton Norris.
Catskill, Edward L. Stevens.
Cohoes, George E. Dixon.
College Point, Henry Delamain.
Corning, Leigh R. Hunt.
Cortland, F. E. Smith.
Dansville, W. G. Carmer.[1]
Dunkirk, John W. Babcock.
Edgewater: District No. 2 (Middletown and Southfield towns), A. Hall Burdick (post-office, Stapleton).
District No. 1, J. W. Barris (post-office, Tompkinsville).
District No. —, S. J. Pardee (post-office, Rosebank).
Elmira, Elias J. Beardsley.
Fishkill on the Hudson, Watson S. Allen.[1]
Flushing, John J. Chickering.
Fulton, B. G. Clapp.
Geneva, William H. Truesdale.
Glens Falls, Sherman Williams.
Gloversville, James A. Estee.
Greenbush, H. R. Jolley.
Green Island, James Heatley.
Haverstraw, L. O. Markham.[1]
Hempstead, Wallace S. Newton.
Hoosick Falls, H. H. Snell.
Hornellsville, William R. Prentice.
Hudson, F. J. Sagendorph.
Ilion, Judson I. Wood.
Ithaca, H. W. Foster.
Jamaica, William J. Ballard.
Jamestown, Rovillus R. Rogers.
Johnstown, William S. Snyder.
Kingston: "Kingston school district," Charles M. Ryon.
District No. 1, P. H. Cullen.[1]
District No. 2, William E. Bunten.[1]
District No. 3, Henry Powers.[1]
District No. 4, J. M. McConnell.[1]
Lansingburg, George F. Sawyer.
Little Falls, Thomas A. Caswell.
Lockport, Emmet Belknap.
Long Island City, John E. Shull.
Lyons, W. H. Kinney.
Malone, Sarah L. Perry.
Matteawan, Gurdon R. Miller.
Medina, Henry Pease.
Middletown, James F. Tuthill.
Mount Vernon, Charles E. Nichols.
Newark, John W. Robinson.
New Brighton, Julia K. West.[5]
New Rochelle, Isaac E. Young.
New York, John Jasper.
Newburg, R. V. K. Montfort.
Niagara Falls, Nathaniel L. Benham.
North Tonawanda, Clinton S. Marsh.
Norwich, Elbert W. Griffith.
Nyack, Ira H. Lawton.
Ogdensburg, Barney Whitney.
Olean, Fox Holden.
Oneida: District No. 25, Frank W. Jennings.
District No. 26, H. H. Douglas.
Oneonta, William C. Franklin.

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[1] Principal.
[2] County superintendent.
[3] Supervising principal.
[4] Post-office, Weehawken.
[5] School commissioner.

NEW YORK—Continued.

Oswego, George E. Bullis.
Owego, Edwin P. Recordon.
Peekskill: Drumbill District (District No. 7), John Millar.
Oakside District (District No. 8), A. D. Dunbar.
Penn Yan, George Howard Hoxie.
Plattsburg, James G. Riggs.
Port Chester, John C. Rockwell.
Port Jervis, John M. Dolph.
Port Richmond, Orry H. Hoag.
Poughkeepsie, Edward Burgess.
Rochester, Milton Noyes.
Rome, William D. Manro.
Saratoga Springs, Thomas R. Kneil.
Saugerties, Fred N. Moulton.
Schenectady, Samuel B. Howe.
Seneca Falls, F. S. Porter.
Sing Sing, J. Irving Gorton.
Syracuse, A. B. Blodgett.
Tonawanda, F. J. Diamond.
Troy, John H. Willets.
Utica, George Griffith.
Waterford, Alexander Falconer.
Waterloo, Thomas C. Wilber.[1]
Watertown, William G. Williams.
Watervliet, James K. Gatchell.
Waverly, P. M. Hull.
White Plains, Ralph A. Stewart.
Whitehall, W. W. Howe.
Woodhaven, Cyrus E. Smith.
Yonkers, Charles E. Gorton.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Asheville, J. D. Eggleston, jr.
Charlotte, Alexander Graham.
Concord, J. F. Shinn.
Durham, Clinton W. Toms.
Fayetteville, B. C. McIver.
Goldsboro, J. I. Foust.
Henderson, J. B. White.[2]
Newbern, John S. Long.
Raleigh, Logan D. Howell.
Salisbury, R. G. Kizer.
Washington, J. Edwin Bowman.
Wilmington, M. C. S. Noble.
Winston, John Jay Blair.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Fargo, Darius Steward.
Grand Forks, J. Nelson Kelley.

OHIO.

Akron, Elias Fraunfelter.
Alliance, John E. Morris.
Ashland, Sebastian Thomas.
Ashtabula, J. S. Lowe.
Avondale, A. B. Johnson.
Bellaire, Henry G. Williams.
Bellefontaine, Henry Whitworth.
Brooklyn, Charles M. Knight.
Bucyrus, J. J. Bliss.
Cambridge, H. B. Williams.
Canton, L. W. Day.
Chillicothe, John A. Long.
Cincinnati, William H. Morgan.
Circleville, M. H. Lewis.
Cleveland, Lewis H. Jones.
Columbus, J. A. Shawan.
Coshocton, J. F. Fenton.
Dayton, W. J. White.
Defiance, J. J. Burns.
Delaware, George A. Chambers.
Delphos, E. W. Hastings.
East Liverpool, S. D. Sanor.
Elyria, Henry M. Parker.
Findlay, J. W. Zellar.
Fostoria, H. L. Frank.
Fremont, W. W. Ross.
Galion, I. C. Guinther.
Gallipolis, R. B. Ewing.
Greenville, C. L. Brumbaugh.
Hamilton, S. L. Rose.
Hillsboro, H. C. Minnich.
Ironton, M. C. Smith.
Jackson, J. E. Kinnison.
Kent, A. B. Stutzman.
Kenton, E. P. Dean.
Lancaster, Elijah Burgess.
Lima, Charles C. Miller.
Lorain, F. D. Ward.
Mansfield, James W. Knott.
Marietta, W. W. Boyd.
Marion, Arthur Powell.
Martins Ferry, W. H. Stewart.
Massillon, Edmund A. Jones.
Middletown, J. H. Rowland.
Mount Vernon, Lewis D. Bonebrake.
Nelsonville, Fletcher S. Coultrap.
New Philadelphia, G. C. Maurer.
Newark, J. C. Hartzler.
Niles, Frank J. Roller.
Norwalk, A. D. Beechy.
Oberlin, George W. Waite.
Painesville, George W. Ready.
Piqua, C. W. Bennett.
Pomeroy, T. C. Flanegin.
Portsmouth, Thomas Vickers.
Salem, M. E. Hard.
Sandusky, E. J. Shives.
Sidney, E. S. Cox.
Springfield, Carey Boggess.
Steubenville, Henry Ney Mertz.
Tiffin, J. H. Snyder.
Toledo, Harvey W. Compton.
Troy, C. L. Van Cleve.
Uhrichsville, R. B. Smith.
Urbana, William McK. Vance.
Vanwert, W. T. Bushman.
Wapakoneta, C. W. Williamson.
Warren, R. S. Thomas.
Washington Court-House, N. H. Chaney.
Wellston, E. W. Patterson.
Wellsville, James L. MacDonald.
Wooster, Charles Haupert.
Xenia, Edwin B. Cox.
Youngstown, F. Treudley.
Zanesville, W. D. Lash.

OKLAHOMA.

Oklahoma, John A. McClain.

OREGON.

Astoria, R. N. Wright.
Portland, I. W. Pratt.
Salem, George A. Peebles.

[1] Principal.

[2] Chairman of the school committee.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Allegheny, John Morrow.
Allentown, F. D. Raub.
Altoona, D. S. Keith.
Archbald, R. N. Davis.[2]
Ashland, William C. Estler.
Beaver Falls, J. T. McKinley.
Bellefonte, David O. Etters.
Bethlehem, George W. Twitmyer.
Bloomsburg, L. P. Sterner.
Braddock, John S. Keefer.
Bradford, E. E. Miller.
Bristol, Matilda Swift Booz.
Butler, ——
Carbondale, John J. Forbes.
Carlisle, Samuel B. Shearer.
Chambersburg, Frank E. Fickinger.
Chester, Charles F. Foster.
Columbia, S. H. Hoffman.
Connellsville, W. G. Gans.[2]
Conshohocken, J. Horace Landis.
Corry, A. D. Colegrove.
Danville, James C. Houser.
Dubois, W. L. Greene.
Dunmore, Norton T. Houser.
Easton, William W. Cottingham.
Erie, H. C. Missimer.
Etna, J. Q. A. Irvine.
Franklin, N. P. Kinsley.
Greensburg, Frank H. Shaw.
Greenville, T. S. Lowden.
Hanover, George R. Prowell.
Harrisburg, Lemuel O. Foose.
Hazleton, David A. Harman.
Homestead, John C. Kendall.
Huntingdon, Kimber Cleaver.
Johnstown, J. M. Berkey.
Lancaster, R. K. Buehrle.
Lansford, I. K. Witmer.
Lebanon, Cyrus Boger.
Lock Haven, John A. Robb.
McKeesport, H. F. Brooks.
Mahanoy City, William N. Ehrhart.
Mauch Chunk, James J. Bevan.
Meadville, Henry V. Hotchkiss.
Middletown, H. H. Weber.
Milton, Lewis A. Beardsley.
Minersville, H. H. Spayd.[1]
Monongahela City, E. W. Dalbey.[1]
Mount Carmel, Samuel H. Dean.
Nanticoke, Clarence B. Miller.
New Brighton, Joseph Burdette Richey.
Newcastle, —— ——.
Norristown, Joseph K. Gotwalls.
Oil City, C. A. Babcock.
Olyphant, M. W. Cumming.
Philadelphia, Edward Brooks.
Phœnixville, Harry F. Leister.
Pittsburg, George J. Luckey.
Pittston, Robert Shiel.[2]
Plymouth (borough), Irving A. Heikes.[2]
Pottstown, William W. Rupert
Pottsville, B. F. Patterson.
Reading, Ebenezer Mackey.
Renovo, —— ——.
St. Clair, Thomas G. Jones.
Scranton, George Howell.
Shamokin, William F. Harpel.
Sharon, J. W. Canon.
Sharpsburg, E. B. McRoberts.
Shenandoah, C. D. Bogart.
South Bethlehem, Owen R. Wilt.
South Chester, J. C. Hockenberry.[3]
South Easton, A. J. La Barre.[4]
Steelton, L. E. McGinnis.
Sunbury, C. D. Oberdorf.
Tamaqua, Robert F. Ditchburn.
Tarentum, B. S. Hunnell.
Titusville, Robert D. Crawford.
Towanda, Minor Terry.[1]
Tyrone, C. E. Kauffman.
Uniontown, Lee Smith.
Warren, W. L. MacGowan.
Washington, A. G. Braden.
Waynesboro, R. T. Adams.[1]
West Chester, Addison Jones.
Wilkesbarre, James M. Coughlin.
Wilkinsburg, J. D. Anderson.[2]
Williamsport, Charles Lose.
York, Atreus Wanner.

RHODE ISLAND.

Bristol, John P. Reynolds.
Burrillville, Allen P. Keith.
Central Falls, Frank O. Draper.
Cranston, Valentine Almy.
Cumberland, A. L. Barbour.
East Providence, W. W. Ellis.
Johnston, Frederick B. Cole.[5]
Newport, Benjamin Baker.
Pawtucket, Gilman C. Fisher.
Providence, Horace S. Tarbell.
Westerly, W. R. Whittle.
Woonsocket, F. E. McFee.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Charleston, Henry P. Archer.
Columbia, E. S. Dreher.
Greenville, E. L. Hughes.
Spartanburg, Frank Evans.
Sumter, S. H. Edmunds.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Sioux Falls, Frank C. McClelland.
Yankton, Edmund J. Vert.

TENNESSEE.

Chattanooga, A. T. Barrett.
Clarksville, J. W. Graham.
Columbia, W. E. Bostick.
Jackson, Thomas H. Paine.
Johnson City, R. H. Freeland.
Knoxville, Albert Ruth.
Memphis, George W. Gordon.
Nashville, Z. H. Brown.

TEXAS.

Austin, T. G. Harris.
Brenham, Edward W. Tarrant.
Brownsville, J. F. Cummings.
Corpus Christi, Charles W. Crossley.
Corsicana, J. T. Hand.
Dallas, J. L. Long.
Denison, William Gay.
El Paso, G. P. Putnam.
Fort Worth, E. E. Bramlette.
Gainesville, E. F. Comegys.
Galveston, John W. Hopkins.
Greenville, J. H. Van Amburgh.
Houston, W. S. Sutton.
Laredo, F. A. Parker.
Marshall, M. H. Wheat.
Palestine, P. V. Pennybacker.
Paris, J. G. Wooten.
San Antonio, J. E. Smith.
Sherman, W. Leonard Lemmon.
Temple, J. E. Blair.
Tyler, W. T. Potter.
Waco, Charles T. Alexander.

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[1] Principal. [2] Supervising principal. [3] Post-office, Thurlow.
[4] Post-office, Easton. [5] Post-office, Olneyville.

UTAH.

Logan, John T. Caine, jr.
Ogden, William Allison.
Provo, William S. Rawlings.
Salt Lake City, J. F. Millspaugh.

VERMONT.

Barre, O. D. Mathewson.
Brattleboro, Miss M. Belle Smith.
Burlington, Henry O. Wheeler.
Montpelier, J. H. Lucia.
Rutland, Alfred Turner.
St. Albans, Francis A. Bagnall.
St. Johnsbury, William P. Kelly.

VIRGINIA.

Alexandria, Kosciusko Kemper.
Charlottesville, F. A. Massie.
Danville, Abner Anderson.
Fredericksburg, Benjamin P. Willis.
Lynchburg, E. C. Glass.
Manchester, A. H. Fitzgerald.[1]
Newport News, Thomas Temple Powell.
Norfolk, Richard A. Dobie.
Petersburg, D. M. Brown.
Portsmouth, John C. Ashton.
Richmond, J. H. Whitty.
Roanoke, B. Rust.
Staunton, John H. Bader.
Winchester, Maurice M. Lynch.

WASHINGTON.

Fairhaven, W. J. Hughes.
New Whatcom, Harry Pattison.
Olympia, T. B. Hawes.
Port Townsend, C. P. Aubert.[1]
Seattle, Frank J. Barnard.
Spokane, D. Bemiss.
Tacoma, R. S. Bingham.
Walla Walla, R. C. Kerr.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Charlestown, Wright Denny.
Huntington, W. D. Sterling.
Martinsburg, A. B. Carman.
Parkersburg, W. M. Straus.
Wheeling, W. H. Anderson.

WISCONSIN.

Antigo, John E. Martin.
Appleton, Carrie E. Morgan.
Ashland, B. B. Jackson.
Baraboo, J. E. Ne Collins.
Beaver Dam, J. E. McClure.
Beloit, C. W. Merriman.
Berlin, N. M. Dodson.
Chippewa Falls, Robert L. Barton.
Depere: East Side, Violet M. Alden.
West Side, J. D. Conley.[1]
Eau Claire, Otis C. Gross.
Fond du Lac, L. A. Williams.
Green Bay, M. H. McMahon.
Janesville, D. D. Mayne.
Kaukauna, Hampton Corlett.
Kenosha, Gerald R. McDowell.
La Crosse, Albert Hardy.
Madison, R. B. Dudgeon.
Manitowoc, H. Evans.
Marinette, J. T. Edwards.
Menasha, Joseph L. Fieweger.
Menominee, Judson E. Hoyt.
Merrill, Francis E. Mathews.
Milwaukee, H. O. R. Siefert.
Monroe, A. F. Rote.
Neenah, E. A. Williams.
Oconto, R. L. Cooley.
Oshkosh, Buel T. Davis.
Portage, A. C. Kellogg.
Racine, J. B. Estabrook.
Sheboygan, George Heller.
Stevens Point, Henry A. Simonds.
Superior, William H. Elson.
Watertown, C. F. Viebahn.
Waukesha, A. J. Smith.
Wausau, Karl Mathie.
West Green Bay, A. W. Burton.
Whitewater, A. A. Upham.

WYOMING.

Cheyenne, James O. Churchill.
Laramie, Frank W. Lee.

[1] Principal.

III.—College Presidents.

I.—*Colleges for males and coeducational colleges of liberal arts.*

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
E. L. Blalock, A. M.	Blount College	Blountsville, Ala.
Benedict Menges, O. S. B.	St. Bernard College	Cullman, Ala.
A. D. Smith, A. M.	Howard College	East Lake, Ala.
John O. Keener, D. D.	Southern University	Greensboro, Ala.
Leonidas Jones and A. F. Trimble	Lafayette College	Lafayette, Ala.
Henry J. Willingham, A. B.	Lineville College	Lineville, Ala.
C. S. Dinkins	Alabama Baptist Colored University	Selma, Ala.
James Lonergan, S. J.	Spring Hill College	Spring Hill, Ala.
R. C. Jones, LL. D.	University of Alabama	University, Ala.
Howard Billman	University of Arizona	Tucson, Ariz.
G. C. Jones, A. M.	Arkadelphia Methodist College	Arkadelphia, Ark.
John W. Conger, A. M.	Ouachita Baptist College	Do.
John I. Cleland, A. M.	Arkansas College	Batesville, Ark.
James A. Laughlin	Arkansas Cumberland College	Clarksville, Ark.
A. C. Millar, A. M.	Hendrix College	Conway, Ark.
J. L. Buchanan, LL. D	Arkansas Industrial University	Fayetteville, Ark.
John W. Wilkinson	Little Rock University	Little Rock, Ark.
Thomas Mason, A. M., D. D.	Philander Smith College	Do.
M. Shelby Kennard, A. M.	Mountain Home Baptist College	Mountain Home, Ark.
Martin Kellogg, A. M., LL. D.	University of California	Berkeley, Cal.
C. G. Baldwin	Pomona College	Claremont, Cal.
W. F. Reagor	Pierce Christian College	College City, Cal.
F. F. Jewel	University of the Pacific	College Park, Cal.
James W. Parkhill, A. M.	Occidental College	Los Angeles, Cal.
A. J. Meyer, C. M.	St. Vincent's College	Do.
T. G. Brownson	California College	Oakland, Cal.
Brother Bettelin	St. Mary's College	Do.
C. H. Keyes, A. B.	Throop Polytechnic Institute	Pasadena, Cal.
Edward Allen, S. J.	St. Ignatius College	San Francisco, Cal.
Joseph Riordan, S. J.	Santa Clara College	Santa Clara, Cal.
J. S. Austin, A. M.	Pacific Methodist College	Santa Rosa, Cal.
D. S. Jordan, Ph. D., LL. D.	Leland Stanford Junior University	Stanford University, Cal.
Geo. W. White, A. M.	University of Southern California	University, Cal.
A. L. Cowell, A. M.	San Joaquin Valley College	Woodbridge, Cal.
James H. Baker, LL. D.	University of Colorado	Boulder, Colo.
Wm. F. Slocum, jr., LL. D.	Colorado College	Colorado Springs, Colo.
John McLean	Presbyterian College of the Southwest	Del Norte, Colo.
J. M. Marra, S. J.	College of the Sacred Heart	Denver, Colo.
Wm. F. McDowell, Ph. D., S. T. D.	University of Denver	University Park, Colo.
Geo. W. Smith, D. D., LL. D.	Trinity College	Hartford, Conn.
B. P. Raymond, D. D., LL. D.	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn.
Timothy Dwight, D. D., LL. D.	Yale University	New Haven, Conn.
Geo. A. Harter, A. M., Ph. D.	Delaware College	Newark, Del.
Thomas J. Conaty, D. D.	Catholic University of America	Washington, D. C.
B. L. Whitman, D. D.	Columbian University	Do.
J. Havens Richards, S. J.	Georgetown University	Do.
J. E. Rankin, D. D., LL. D.	Howard University	Do.
E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D.	Gallaudet College	Do.
C. Gillespie, S. J.	Gonzaga College	Do.
John F. Forbes, Ph. D.	John B. Stetson University	Deland, Fla.
J. T. Nolen, A. B., B. D.	Florida Conference College	Leesburg, Fla.
Charles H. More, Ph. D.	St. Leo Military College	St. Leo, Fla.
A. F. Lewis, A. M.	Seminary West of the Suwanee River	Tallahassee, Fla.
Geo. M. Ward, A. M., B. D.	Rollins College	Winter Park, Fla.
Wm. E. Boggs, D. D., LL. D.	University of Georgia	Athens, Ga.
Horace Bumstead, D. D.	Atlanta University	Atlanta, Ga.
James M. Henderson	Morris Brown College	Do.
James M. Stephenson	Bowdon College	Bowdon, Ga.
I. W. Waddell, D. D.	North Georgia Agricultural College	Dahlonega, Ga.
P. D. Pollock, A. M., chairman	Mercer University	Macon, Ga.
W. A. Candler, D. D.	Emory College	Oxford, Ga.
D. C. John, D. D.	Clark University	South Atlanta, Ga.
F. G. Webb, A. M.	Nannie Lou Warthen College	Wrightsville, Ga.
W. F. Robinson	Young Harris College	Young Harris, Ga.
Franklin B. Gault, M. S.	University of Idaho	Moscow, Idaho.
J. G. Evans, D. D., LL. D.	Hedding College	Abingdon, Ill.
Wm. H. Wilder, A. M., D. D.	Illinois Wesleyan University	Bloomington, Ill.
M. J. Marsile, C. S. V.	St. Viateur's College	Bourbonnais, Ill.
W. H. Crowell, A. M., chairman	Blackburn University	Carlinville, Ill.
J. M. Ruthrauff	Carthage College	Carthage, Ill.
Andrew S. Draper, LL. D.	University of Illinois	Champaign, Ill.
J. F. X. Hoeffer, S. J.	St. Ignatius College	Chicago, Ill.
Wm. R. Harper, Ph. D., D. D.	University of Chicago	Do.
W. E. Lugenbeel	Austin College	Effingham, Ill.
Daniel Irion	Evangelical Proseminary	Elmhurst, Ill.
J. H. Hardin, LL. D.	Eureka College	Eureka, Ill.
Henry W. Rogers, LL. D.	Northwestern University	Evanston, Ill.
J. A. Leavitt	Ewing College	Ewing, Ill.
J. E. Bittinger	Northern Illinois College	Fulton, Ill.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

I.—*Colleges for males and coeducational colleges of liberal arts*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
J. H. Finley, A. M., Ph. D	Knox College	Galesburg, Ill.
Charles E. Nash, D. D	Lombard University	Do
J. C. McClure, A. M	Greer College	Hoopeston, Ill.
John E. Bradley, Ph. D	Illinois College	Jacksonville, Ill.
J. J. Halsey, A. M., acting	Lake Forest University	Lake Forest, Ill.
M. H. Chamberlin, A. M., LL. D	McKendree College	Lebanon, Ill.
A. E. Turner, A. M	Lincoln University	Lincoln, Ill.
J. B. McMichael, D D	Monmouth College	Monmouth, Ill.
H. J. Kiekhoefer, A. M	Northwestern College	Naperville, Ill.
Louis Haas, O. S. B	St. Bede College	Peru, Ill
B. W. Baker, A. M	Chaddock College	Quincy, Ill.
Nicholas Leonard, O. S. F	St. Francis Solanus College	Do.
Olof Olsson, D. D., Ph. D	Augustana College	Rock Island, Ill.
Hugoline Storff, O. S. F	St. Joseph's Diocesan College	Teutopolis, Ill.
Austen K. de Blois, Ph. D	Shurtleff College	Upper Alton, Ill.
B. L. Seneff, A. B	Westfield College	Westfield, Ill.
Chas. A. Blanchard	Wheaton College	Wheaton, Ill.
M. L. Brown, A. M., acting	Indian University	Bacone, Ind. T.
W. A. Caldwell, A. M	Henry Kendall College	Muscogee, Ind. T.
Joseph Swain, LL. D	Indiana University	Bloomington, Ind.
Geo. S. Burroughs, Ph. D	Wabash College	Crawfordsville, Ind.
Jos. Schmidt	Concordia College	Fort Wayne, Ind.
William T. Stott, D. D	Franklin College	Franklin, Ind.
H. A. Gobin, D. D	De Pauw University	Greencastle, Ind.
D. W. Fisher, D. D, LL. D	Hanover College	Hanover, Ind.
Alvin P. Barnaby, M. S	Hartsville College	Hartsville, Ind.
Scot Butler, A. M	Butler College	Irvington, Ind.
L. J. Aldrich, A. M., D. D	Union Christian College	Merom, Ind.
John H. Martin, A. M., D. D	Moores Hill College	Moores Hill, Ind.
Andrew Morrissey, C. S. C	University of Notre Dame	Notre Dame, Ind.
Joseph J. Mills, A. M., LL. D	Earlham College	Richmond, Ind.
Geo. Hindley, B. D	Ridgeville College	Ridgeville, Ind.
Fintan Mundwiler, O. S. B	St. Meinrad's College	St. Meinrad, Ind.
T. C. Reade, D. D	Taylor University	Upland, Ind.
S. W. Stookey, M. S., acting	Coe College	Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
J. Frederick Hirsch, A. M	Charles City College	Charles City, Iowa.
F. Richter	Wartburg College	Clinton, Iowa.
J. M. Littlejohn, D. D., Ph. D	Amity College	College Springs, Iowa.
Laur. Larsen	Luther College	Decorah, Iowa.
H. L. Stetson, D. D	Des Moines College	Des Moines, Iowa.
B. O. Aylesworth, LL. D	Drake University	Do.
	Parsons College	Fairfield, Iowa.
John W. Bissell, A. M., D. D	Upper Iowa University	Fayette, Iowa.
George A. Gates, D. D	Iowa College	Grinnell, Iowa.
Hugh Robinson, A. M	Lenox College	Hopkinton, Iowa.
Fletcher Brown, A. M., B. D	Simpson College	Indianola, Iowa.
Charles A. Schaeffer, Ph. D	State University of Iowa	Iowa City, Iowa.
Friedrich Munz, A. M	German College	Mount Pleasant, Iowa.
C. L. Stafford, D. D	Iowa Wesleyan University	Do
Wm. F. King, LL. D	Cornell College	Mount Vernon, Iowa.
J. M. Atwater, A. M	Oskaloosa College	Oskaloosa, Iowa.
A. Rosenberger, A. B., LL. B	Penn College	Do.
Arthur B. Chaffee, D. D	Central University of Iowa	Pella, Iowa.
George W. Carr	University of the Northwest	Sioux City, Iowa.
Willis Marshall	Buena Vista College	Storm Lake, Iowa.
R. C. Hughes, A. M	Tabor College	Tabor, Iowa.
L. Bookwalter, D. D	Western College	Toledo, Iowa.
Jacob A. Clutz, D. D	Midland College	Atchison, Kans.
Innocent Wolf, O. S. B., D. D	St. Benedict's College	Do.
L. H. Murlin, A. B., S. T. B	Baker University	Baldwin, Kans.
E. H. Vaughan, Ph. D	Soule College	Dodge City, Kans.
J. D. Hewitt, D. D	College of Emporia	Emporia, Kans.
William Boyle	Highland University	Highland, Kans.
B. F. Kizer	Campbell University	Holton, Kans.
F. H. Snow, Ph. D., LL. D	University of Kansas	Lawrence, Kans.
C. M. Brooke, A. M	Lane University	Lecompton, Kans.
C. A. Swensson, A. M	Bethany College	Lindsborg, Kans.
J. L. S. Riggs, Ph. D	Ottawa University	Ottawa, Kans.
Edward A. Higgins, S. J	St. Mary's College	St. Marys, Kans.
George J. Hagerty, A. M	Kansas Wesleyan University	Salina, Kans.
F. M. Spencer, D. D	Cooper Memorial College	Sterling, Kans.
Geo. M. Herrick	Washburn College	Topeka, Kans.
N. J. Morrison, D. D., LL. D	Fairmount College	Wichita, Kans.
A. W. Meyer	St. John's Lutheran College	Winfield, Kans.
Chester A. Place, A. M	Southwest Kansas College	Do.
Daniel Stevenson, D. D	Union College	Barbourville, Ky.
Wm. G. Frost, Ph. D	Berea College	Berea, Ky.
Wm. A. Obenchain, A. M	Ogden College	Bowling Green, Ky.
	Centre College	Danville, Ky.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

I.—*Colleges for males and coeducational colleges of liberal arts*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
A. C. Davidson, D. D.	Georgetown College	Georgetown, Ky.
H. J. Greenwell, A. M.	Liberty College	Glasgow, Ky.
J. W. Hardy	South Kentucky College	Hopkinsville, Ky.
Charles L. Loos	Kentucky University	Lexington, Ky.
James K. Patterson, Ph. D.	State College of Kentucky	Do.
L. H. Blanton, D. D.	Central University	Richmond, Ky.
W. S. Ryland, D. D.	Bethel College	Russellville, Ky.
John L. Steffan D. D., Ph. D.	St. Mary's College	St. Marys, Ky.
E. H. Pearce, D. D.	Kentucky Wesleyan College	Winchester, Ky.
Thos. D. Boyd	Louisiana State University	Baton Rouge, La.
James H. Blenk, S. M.	Jefferson College	Convent, La.
C. W. Carter, D. D.	Centenary College of Louisiana	Jackson, La.
C. W. Tomkies	Keatchie College	Keatchie, La.
Henry C. Semple, S. J	College of the Immaculate Conception.	New Orleans, La.
E. C. Mitchell, D. D.	Leland University	Do.
L. G. Adkinson, D. D	New Orleans University	Do.
Oscar Atwood, A. M	Straight University	Do.
Wm. P. Johnston, LL. D.	Tulane University	Do.
William De Witt Hyde, D. D.	Bowdoin College	Brunswick, Me.
George C. Chase, A. M	Bates College	Lewiston, Me.
Nathaniel Butler, D. D.	Colby University	Waterville, Me.
Thomas Fell, Ph. D., LL. D.	St. John's College	Annapolis, Md.
D. C. Gilman, LL. D	Johns Hopkins University	Baltimore, Md.
John A. Morgan, S. J	Loyola College	Do.
Francis J. Wagner, D. D.	Morgan College	Do.
Charles W. Reid, Ph. D.	Washington College	Chestertown, Md.
Brother Maurice	Rock Hill College	Ellicott City, Md.
C. B. Rex, D. D.	St. Charles College	Do.
Edward P. Allen, D. D	Mount St. Marys College	Mount St. Marys, Md.
William H. Purnell, LL. D.	New Windsor College	New Windsor, Md.
Thomas H. Lewis, A. M., D. D	Western Maryland College	Westminster, Md.
Merrill E. Gates, Ph. D., LL. D., L. H. D.	Amherst College	Amherst, Mass.
Timothy Brosnahan, S. J	Boston College	Boston, Mass.
William F. Warren, LL. D.	Boston University	Do.
Charles W. Eliot, LL. D	Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.
Samuel H. Lee	French-American College	Springfield, Mass.
Elmer H. Capen, D. D.	Tufts College	Tufts College, Mass.
F. Carter, Ph. D., LL. D	Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.
G. Stanley Hall, Ph. D., LL. D.	Clark University	Worcester, Mass.
John F. Lehy, S. J	College of the Holy Cross	Do.
Denison C. Thomas, Ph. D	Adrian College	Adrian, Mich.
L. R. Fiske, D. D., LL. D	Albion College	Albion, Mich.
August F. Bruske, D. D.	Alma College	Alma, Mich.
James B. Angell, LL. D.	University of Michigan	Ann Arbor, Mich.
George W. Caviness, A. M	Battle Creek College	Battlecreek, Mich.
James G. Rodger, Ph. D.	Benzonia College	Benzonia, Mich.
H. A. Schapman, S. J	Detroit College	Detroit, Mich.
George F. Mosher, LL. D	Hillsdale College	Hillsdale, Mich.
Gerrit J. Kollen, A. M	Hope College	Holland, Mich.
A. G. Slocum, LL. D.	Kalamazoo College	Kalamazoo, Mich.
W. G. Sperry, D. D	Olivet College	Olivet, Mich.
Peter Engel, O. S. B., Ph. D	St. John's University	Collegeville, Minn.
Albert Buxton	Northwestern Christian College	Excelsior, Minn.
George H. Bridgman, D. D.	Hamline University	Hamline, Minn.
Georg Sverdrup	Augsburg Seminary	Minneapolis, Minn.
Cyrus Northrop, LL. D.	University of Minnesota	Do.
James W. Strong, D. D	Carleton College	Northfield, Minn.
Thorbjörn N. Mohn	St. Olaf College	Do.
James Wallace, Ph. D.	Macalester College	St. Paul, Minn.
Matthias Wahlstrom, A. M	Gustavus Adolphus College	St. Peter, Minn.
R. M. Lawrence, A. M.	Parker College	Winnebago City, Minn.
J. W. Provine, Ph. D	Mississippi College	Clinton, Miss.
C. A. Huddleston, A. M	Cooper-Huddleston College	Daleville, Miss.
Charles E. Libbey, S. T. D.	Rust University	Holly Springs, Miss.
W. B. Murrah, D. D	Millsaps College	Jackson, Miss.
Robert B Fulton, A. M	University of Mississippi	University, Miss.
P. O. Powell, A. M., B. D	Central Christian College	Albany, Mo.
W. H. Pritchett, A. M.	Northwest Missouri College	Do.
Asa B. Bush, A. M	Southwest Baptist College	Bolivar, Mo.
R. E. Downing, B. Sur	Pike College	Bowling Green, Mo.
Chas. F. Spray, A. M.	Missouri Wesleyan College	Cameron, Mo.
Clinton Lockhart, Ph. D	Christian University	Canton, Mo.
J. A. Linn, C. M.	St. Vincent's College	Cape Girardeau, Mo.
Richard H. Jesse, LL. D	University of the State of Missouri	Columbia, Mo.
Geo. W. Mitchell	Grand River Christian Union College	Edinburg, Mo.
Tyson S. Dines, A. M	Central College	Fayette, Mo.
Edward C. Gordon, D. D	Westminster College	Fulton, Mo.
Chas. C. Hemenway	Pritchett School Institute	Glasgow, Mo.

III.——College Presidents—Continued.

I.—*Colleges for males and coeducational colleges of liberal arts*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
Edwin W. Doran	Ozark College	Greenfield, Mo.
Jere T. Muir	LaGrange College	Lagrange, Mo.
Carleton B. Marsh, A. B.	Lawson Presbyterian College	Lawson, Mo.
J. P. Greene, D. D., LL. D	William Jewell College	Liberty, Mo.
Wm. H. Black, D. D	Missouri Valley College	Marshall, Mo.
W. H. Winton	Morrisville College	Morrisville, Mo.
J. C. Shelton	Scarritt Collegiate Institute	Neosho, Mo.
L. M. McAfee	Park College	Parkville, Mo.
	St. Charles College	St. Charles, Mo.
Brother Paulian, F. S. C.	College of the Christian Brothers	St. Louis, Mo.
Joseph Grimmelsman, S. J	St. Louis University	Do.
Winfield S. Chaplin, LL. D	Washington University	Do.
Homer T. Fuller, Ph. D	Drury College	Springfield, Mo.
J. A. Thompson, A. M	Tarkio College	Tarkio, Mo.
F. A. Z. Kumler, A. M	Avalon College	Trenton, Mo.
Geo. B. Addicks, A. M	Central Wesleyan College	Warrenton, Mo.
A. B. Martin, A. M	College of Montana	Deerlodge, Mont.
	Montana Wesleyan University	Helena, Mont.
Oscar J. Craig	University of Montana	Missoula, Mont.
David R. Kerr, Ph. D., D. D	University of Omaha	Bellevue, Nebr.
W. P. Aylsworth, A. M	Cotner University	Bethany, Nebr.
Eli B. Miller	Union College	College View, Nebr.
David B. Perry, A. M	Doane College	Crete, Nebr.
A. J. Mercer, A. M	Fairfield College	Fairfield, Nebr.
Geo. E. MacLean, LL. D	University of Nebraska	Lincoln, Nebr.
G. W. Hinman, A. B., acting	Gates College	Neligh, Nebr.
John Pahls, S. J	Creighton University	Omaha, Nebr.
C. M. Ellinwood	Nebraska Wesleyan University	University Place, Nebr.
W. S. Reese	York College	York, Nebr.
Joseph E. Stubbs, D. D	State University of Nevada	Reno, Nev.
W. J. Tucker, D. D., LL. D	Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.
Hilary Pfraengle, O. S. B	St. Benedict's College	Newark, N. J.
Austin Scott, Ph. D., LL. D	Rutgers College	New Brunswick, N. J.
F. L. Patton, D. D., LL. D	Princeton University	Princeton, N. J.
Wm. F. Marshall, A. M	Seton Hall College	South Orange, N. J.
E. S. Stover	University of New Mexico	Albuquerque, N. Mex.
B. C. Davis, A. M	Alfred University	Alfred, N. Y.
Joseph F. Butler, O. S. F	St. Bonaventure's College	Allegany, N. Y.
R. B. Fairbairn, D. D., LL. D	St. Stephen's College	Annandale, N. Y.
D. H. Cochran, Ph. D., LL. D	Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Brother Jerome, O. S. F	St. Francis College	Do.
J. A. Hartnett, C. M	St. John's College	Do.
John I. Zahm, S. J	Canisius College	Buffalo, N. Y.
John C. Lee, Ph. D., D. D	St. Lawrence University	Canton, N. Y.
M. Woolsey Stryker, D. D	Hamilton College	Clinton, N. Y.
	Hobart College	Geneva, N. Y.
Geo. W. Smith, A. B., LL. B	Colgate University	Hamilton, N. Y.
J. G. Schurman, Sc. D., LL. D	Cornell University	Ithaca, N. Y.
Thomas E. Murphy, S. J	College of St. Francis Xavier	New York, N. Y.
Alexander S. Webb, LL. D	College of the City of New York	Do.
Seth Low, LL. D	Columbia University	Do.
Brother Justin, A. M	Manhattan College	Do.
Thomas J. Gannon, S. J	St. John's College	Do.
H. M. MacCracken, D. D., LL. D	New York University	Do.
P. S. MacHale, C. M	Niagara University	Niagara University, N. Y.
	University of Rochester	Rochester, N. Y.
A. V. V. Raymond, D. D	Union College	Schenectady, N. Y.
James R. Day, D. D	Syracuse University	Syracuse, N. Y.
E. A. Alderman, Ph. B	University of North Carolina	Chapel Hill, N. C.
D. J. Sanders, D. D	Biddle University	Charlotte, N. C.
J. B. Shearer, D. D., LL. D	Davidson College	Davidson, N. C.
John C. Kilgo, D. D	Trinity College	Durham, N. C.
W. W. Staley, D. D	Elon College	Elon College, N. C.
L. Lyndon Hobbs, A. M	Guilford College	Guilford College, N. C.
Robert A. Yoder, A. M	Lenoir College	Hickory, N. C.
M. G. G. Scherer, A. M	North Carolina College	Mount Pleasant, N. C.
J. C. Clapp, D. D	Catawba College	Newton, N. C.
Chas. F. Meserve, A. M	Shaw University	Raleigh, N. C.
W. E. Abernethy	Rutherford College	Rutherford College, N. C.
William H. Goler, D. D	Livingstone College	Salisbury, N. C.
C. E. Taylor, D. D., Litt. B	Wake Forest College	Wake Forest, N. C.
M. A. Yost, A. M	Weaverville College	Weaverville, N. C.
Henry C. Simmons	Fargo College	Fargo, N. Dak.
W. Merrifield, A. M	University of North Dakota	University, N. Dak.
M. V. B. Knox, D. D	Red River Valley University	Wahpeton, N. Dak.
C. M. Knight, acting	Buchtel College	Akron, Ohio.
Tamerlane P. Marsh, D. D	Mount Union College	Alliance, Ohio.
J. Allen Miller	Ashland University	Ashland, Ohio.
Isac Crook, D. D	Ohio University	Athens, Ohio.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

I.—*Colleges for males and coeducational colleges of liberal arts*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
Millard F. Warner, A. M	Baldwin University	Berea, Ohio.
C. Riemenschneider, Ph. D	German Wallace College	Do.
David McKinney	Cedarville College	Cedarville, Ohio.
James Rogers, C. S. C	St. Joseph's College	Cincinnati, Ohio.
A. J. Burrowes, S. J	St. Xavier College	Do.
P. V. N. Myers	University of Cincinnati	Do.
H. J. Ruetenik, D. D	Calvin College	Cleveland, Ohio.
Joseph H. Le Halle	St. Ignatius College	Do.
Chas. F. Thwing, D. D	Western Reserve University	Do.
F. W. Stellhorn	Capital University	Columbus, Ohio.
James H. Canfield, LL. D	Ohio State University	Do.
John R. H. Latchaw, D. D	Defiance College	Defiance, Ohio.
James W. Bashford, Ph. D	Ohio Wesleyan University	Delaware, Ohio.
C. Manchester, A. M	Findlay College	Findlay, Ohio.
Wm. F. Peirce, L. H. D	Kenyon College	Gambier, Ohio.
D. B. Purinton, A. M., LL. D	Denison University	Granville, Ohio.
Ely V. Zollars, LL. D	Hiram College	Hiram, Ohio.
Carl Ackerman	Lima College	Lima, Ohio.
J. H. Chamberlin, Litt. D., dean	Marietta College	Marietta, Ohio.
W. A. Wilhams, D. D	Franklin College	New Athens, Ohio.
Jesse Johnson	Muskingum College	New Concord, Ohio.
Wm. G. Ballantine, D. D., LL. D	Oberlin College	Oberlin, Ohio.
Wm. O. Thompson, D. D	Miami University	Oxford, Ohio.
Geo. W. MacMillan, Ph. D., D. D	Richmond College	Richmond, Ohio.
John M. Davis, Ph. D	Rio Grande College	Rio Grande, Ohio.
W. G. Compher, Ph. D	Scio College	Scio, Ohio.
Samuel A. Ort, D. D	Wittenberg College	Springfield, Ohio.
John A. Peters, D. D	Heidelberg University	Tiffin, Ohio.
Thomas J. Sanders, Ph. D	Otterbein University	Westerville, Ohio.
S. T. Mitchell, A. M., LL. D	Wilberforce University	Wilberforce, Ohio.
James B. Unthank, M. S	Wilmington College	Wilmington, Ohio.
S. F. Scovel, D. D	University of Wooster	Wooster, Ohio.
Daniel A. Long, D. D., LL. D	Antioch College	Yellow Springs, Ohio.
D. R. Boyd, A. M	University of Oklahoma	Norman, Okla.
Chas. H. Chapman, Ph. D	University of Oregon	Eugene, Oreg.
Thomas McClelland, D. D	Pacific University	Forest Grove, Oreg.
C. C. Poling, Ph. B	Lafayette Seminary	Lafayette, Oreg.
H. L. Boardman	McMinnville College	McMinnville, Oreg.
Thomas Newlin	Pacific College	Newberg, Oreg.
B. E. Emerick, A. M	Philomath College	Philomath, Oreg.
Willis C. Hawley, A. M	Willamette University	Salem, Oreg.
Thomas Van Scoy, D. D	Portland University	University Park, Oreg.
W. J. Holland, Ph. D., D. D	Western University of Pennsylvania	Allegheny, Pa.
Theodore L. Seip, D. D	Muhlenberg College	Allentown, Pa.
E. B. Bierman, Ph. D	Lebanon Valley College	Annville, Pa.
Leander Schnerr	St. Vincent College	Beatty, Pa.
W. P. Johnston, A. M	Geneva College	Beaver Falls, Pa.
Aug. Schultz, D. D	Moravian College	Bethlehem, Pa.
George E. Reed, D. D., LL. D	Dickinson College	Carlisle, Pa.
C. E. Hyatt, C. E	Pennsylvania Military College	Chester, Pa.
Henry T. Spangler, D. D	Ursinus College	Collegeville, Pa.
E. D. Warfield, LL. D	Lafayette College	Easton, Pa.
H. W. McKnight, D. D., LL. D	Pennsylvania College	Gettysburg, Pa.
Theo. B. Roth, D. D	Thiel College	Greenville, Pa.
Isaac C. Ketler, Ph. D	Grove City College	Grove City, Pa.
Isaac Sharpless, Sc. D., LL. D	Haverford College	Haverford, Pa.
S. T. Wiley	Monongahela College	Jefferson, Pa.
John S. Stahr, Ph. D., D. D	Franklin and Marshall College	Lancaster, Pa.
John H. Harris, Ph. D	Bucknell University	Lewisburg, Pa.
Isaac N. Rendall, D. D	Lincoln University	Lincoln University, Pa.
Brother Athanasius	St. Francis College	Loretto, Pa.
Wm. H. Crawford, D. D	Allegheny College	Meadville, Pa.
Aaron E. Gobble, A. M	Central Pennsylvania College	New Berlin, Pa.
R. G. Ferguson, D. D	Westminster College	New Wilmington, Pa.
R. E. Thompson, D. D	Central High School	Philadelphia, Pa.
Brother Isidore	La Salle College	Do.
Charles C. Harrison, LL. D	University of Pennsylvania	Do.
Edwin L. York, Ph. D	Duquesne College	Pittsburg, Pa.
John T. Murphy, C. S. Sp	Holy Ghost College	Do.
Thomas M. Drown, M. D	Lehigh University	South Bethlehem, Pa.
G. W. Atherton, LL. D	Pennsylvania State College	State College, Pa.
Charles De Garmo, Ph. D	Swarthmore College	Swarthmore, Pa.
Laurence A. Delurey, O. S. A	Villanova College	Villanova, Pa.
M. E. Hess	Volant College	Volant, Pa.
James D. Moffat, D. D	Washington and Jefferson College	Washington, Pa.
E. B. Andrews, D. D., LL. D	Brown University	Providence, R. I.
H. E. Shepherd, A. M., LL. D	College of Charleston	Charleston, S. C.
E. C. Murray	Presbyterian College of South Carolina	Clinton, S. C.
J. W. Morris	Allen University	Columbia, S. C.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

I.—*Colleges for males and coeducational colleges of liberal arts*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
Jas. Woodrow, Ph. D., LL. D	South Carolina College	Columbia, S. C.
W. M. Grier, D. D	Erskine College	Due West, S. C.
Charles Manly, D. D	Furman University	Greenville, S. C.
Geo. B. Cromer, A. M	Newberry College	Newberry, S. C.
L. M. Dunton, D. D	Claflin University	Orangeburg, S. C.
James H. Carlisle, LL. D	Wofford College	Spartanburg, S. C.
Wm. M. Blackburn, D. D	Pierre University	East Pierre, S. Dak.
J. W. Hancher, M. S., A. M	Black Hills College	Hot Springs, S. Dak.
W. I. Graham, A. M	Dakota University	Mitchell, S. Dak.
I. P. Patch	Redfield College	Redfield, S. Dak.
Joseph W. Mauck, A. M	University of South Dakota	Vermilion, S. Dak.
H. K. Warren	Yankton College	Yankton, S. Dak.
J. Albert Wallace, D. D	King College	Bristol, Tenn.
Isaac W. Joyce, D. D., LL. D	U. S. Grant University	Chattanooga, Tenn.
George Summey, D. D	Southwestern Presbyterian University	Clarksville, Tenn.
J. F. Spence, S. T. D., LL. D	American Temperance University	Harriman, Tenn.
S. G. Gilbreath	Hiwassee College	Hiwassee College, Tenn.
G. M. Savage, A. M., LL. D	Southwestern Baptist University	Jackson, Tenn.
J. S. McCulloch, D. D	Knoxville College	Knoxville, Tenn.
Chas. W. Dabney, jr., Ph. D., LL. D	University of Tennessee	Do.
N. Green, LL. D	Cumberland University	Lebanon, Tenn.
J. L. Dickens, Ph. D., LL. D	Bethel College	McKenzie, Tenn.
S. W. Boardman, LL. D	Maryville College	Maryville, Tenn.
Brother Maurelian	Christian Brothers' College	Memphis, Tenn.
J. Hopwood, A. M	Milligan College	Milligan, Tenn.
J. T. Henderson, A. M	Carson and Newman College	Mossy Creek, Tenn.
J. Braden, D. D	Central Tennessee College	Nashville, Tenn.
E. M. Cravath, D. D	Fisk University	Do.
Owen James, D. D	Roger Williams University	Do.
Wm. H. Payne, LL. D	University of Nashville	Do.
James H. Kirkland, Ph. D	Vanderbilt University	Do.
B. Lawton Wiggins, A. M	University of the South	Sewanee, Tenn.
W. N. Billingsley, A. M	Burritt College	Spencer, Tenn.
J. L. Bachman, A. M	Sweetwater College	Sweetwater, Tenn.
Jere Moore, D. D	Greeneville and Tusculum College	Tusculum, Tenn.
James T. Cooter, A. M	Washington College	Washington College, Tenn.
P. P. Klein, C. S. C	St. Edward's College	Austin, Tex.
Geo. T. Winston, LL. D	University of Texas	Do.
J. D. Robnett, D. D	Howard Payne College	Brownwood, Tex.
T. H. Bridges	Henry College	Campbell, Tex.
Oscar L. Fisher, A. M., D. D	Fort Worth University	Fort Worth, Tex.
John O'Shanahan, S. J	St. Mary's University	Galveston, Tex.
John H. McLean, A. M., D. D	Southwestern University	Georgetown, Tex.
M. W. Dogan, A. M	Wiley University	Marshall, Tex.
John Wolf	St. Louis College	San Antonio, Tex.
S. M. Luckett, D. D	Austin College	Sherman, Tex.
L. A. Johnson, Ph. D	Trinity University	Tehuacana, Tex.
Addison Clark, LL. D	Add-Ran Christian University	Waco, Tex.
R. C. Burleson, D. D., LL. D	Baylor University	Do.
I. M. Burgan, D. D	Paul Quinn College	Do.
Wm. J. Kerr	Brigham Young College	Logan, Utah.
James E. Talmage, Sc. D., Ph. D	University of Utah	Salt Lake City, Utah.
Matthew H. Buckham, D. D	University of Vermont	Burlington, Vt.
Ezra Brainerd, LL. D	Middlebury College	Middlebury, Vt.
Wm. W. Smith, LL. D	Randolph-Macon College	Ashland, Va.
W. B. Yount	Bridgewater College	Bridgewater, Va.
P. B. Barringer, M. D	University of Virginia	Charlottesville, Va.
R. G. Waterhouse, D. D	Emory and Henry College	Emory, Va.
Richard McIlwaine, D. D	Hampden-Sidney College	Hampden-Sidney, Va.
G. W. C. Lee, LL. D	Washington and Lee University	Lexington, Va.
F. W. Boatwright, A. M	Richmond College	Richmond, Va.
Julius D. Dreher, Ph. D	Roanoke College	Salem, Va.
L. G. Tyler, LL. D	College of William and Mary	Williamsburg, Va.
A. C. Jones	Vashon College	Burton, Wash.
F. N. English, A. M	Colfax College	Colfax, Wash.
E. A. Sutherland	Walla Walla College	College Place, Wash.
M. W. Harrington, Ph. D	University of Washington	Seattle, Wash.
James Rebmann, S. J	Gonzaga College	Spokane, Wash.
Calvin W. Stewart, D. D	Whitworth College	Sumner, Wash.
C. R. Thoburn	Puget Sound University	Tacoma, Wash.
Hiram P. Snindon	St. James College	Vancouver, Wash.
S. B. L. Penrose	Whitman College	Walla Walla, Wash.
J. P. Marshall, A. M	Barboursville College	Barboursville, W. Va.
H. McDearmid, A. M	Bethany College	Bethany, W. Va.
J. L. Goodknight, D. D	West Virginia University	Morgantown, W. Va.
Samuel Plantz, Ph. D., D. D	Lawrence University	Appleton, Wis.
E. D. Eaton, D. D., LL. D	Beloit College	Beloit, Wis.
H. A. Muehlmeier, D. D	Mission House	Franklin, Wis.
Chas. K. Adams, LL. D	University of Wisconsin	Madison, Wis.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

I.—*Colleges for males and coeducational colleges of liberal arts*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
Wm. C. Whitford, D. D	Milton College	Milton, Wis.
Leopold Bushart, S. J	Marquette College	Milwaukee, Wis.
Rufus C. Flagg, D. D	Ripon College	Ripon, Wis.
Joseph Rainer	Seminary of St. Francis of Sales	St. Francis, Wis.
A. F. Ernst	Northwestern University	Watertown, Wis.
Frank P. Graves, Ph. D	University of Wyoming	Laramie, Wyo.

II.—*Colleges for women.*

Z. A. Parker	Athens Female College	Athens, Ala.
Henry A. Moody, M. D	Bailey Springs University	Bailey Springs, Ala.
J. B. Cumming	East Lake Athenæum	Eastlake, Ala.
T. J. Simmons, A. M	Union Female College	Eufaula, Ala.
A. H. Todd	Synodical Female College	Florence, Ala.
A. B. Jones, D. D., LL. D	Jones College for Young Ladies	Gadsden. Ala.
S. W. Averett, LL. D	Judson Female Institute	Marion, Ala.
Jas. D. Wade, A. M	Marion Female Seminary	Do.
Geo. R. McNeill, Ph. D	Isbell College	Talladega, Ala.
E. H. Murfee	Central Female College	Tuscaloosa, Ala.
John D. Simpson	Tuscaloosa Female College	Do.
John Massey, LL. D	Alabama Conference Female College	Tuskegee, Ala.
J. G. Lile	Central Baptist College	Conway, Ark.
Mrs. C. T. Mills	Mills College	Mills College, Cal.
Sister Mary Bernardine	College of Notre Dame	San Jose, Cal.
Mrs. M. A. Lipscomb	Lucy Cobb Institute	Athens, Ga.
Chas. C. Cox, A. M	Southern Female College	College Park, Ga.
Homer Bush, A. M	Andrew Female College	Cuthbert, Ga.
G. J. Orr	Dalton Female College	Dalton, Ga.
M. H. Lane	Monroe Female College	Forsyth, Ga.
A. W. Van Hoose	Georgia Female Seminary	Gainesville, Ga.
Rufus W. Smith, A. M	Lagrange Female College	Lagrange, Ga.
G. A. Nunnally	Southern Female College	Do.
J. D. Hammond, D. D	Wesleyan Female College	Macon, Ga.
J. Harris Chappell	Georgia Normal and Industrial College	Milledgeville, Ga.
A. J. Battle, D. D., LL. D	Shorter College	Rome, Ga.
John E. Baker	Young Female College	Thomasville, Ga.
Joseph R. Harker, Ph. D	Illinois Female College	Jacksonville, Ill.
E. F. Bullard, A. M	Jacksonville Female Academy	Do.
C. W. Leffingwell, D. D	St. Mary's School	Knoxville, Ill.
Sarah F. Anderson	Rockford College	Rockford, Ill.
John M. Duncan, A. M	Coates College	Terre Haute, Ind.
Wm. Bishop, D. D	College for Young Ladies	Oswego, Kans.
F. R. Millspaugh, D. D	College of the Sisters of Bethany	Topeka, Kans.
Benj. F. Cabell	Potter College	Bowling Green, Ky.
Miss C. A. Campbell	Caldwell College	Danville, Ky.
Edmund Harrison, A. M	Bethel Female College	Hopkinsville, Ky.
J. B. Skinner	Hamilton Female College	Lexington, Ky.
H. B. McClellan, A. M	Sayre Female Institute	Do.
Cadesman Pope	Millersburg Female College	Millersburg, Ky.
Mrs. B. W. Vineyard	Jessamine Female Institute	Nicholasville, Ky.
A. C. Goodwin	Owensboro Female College	Owensboro, Ky.
G. B. Perry	Kentucky College for Young Ladies	Pewee Valley, Ky.
A. G. Murphey	Logan Female College	Russellville, Ky.
William Shelton	Stanford Female College	Stanford, Ky.
Rice S. Eubank, B. S	Winchester Female College	Winchester, Ky.
George J. Ramsey, A. M	Silliman Female Institute	Clinton, La.
T. S. Sligh, A. M	Mansfield Female College	Mansfield, La.
S. Decatur Lucas	Minden Female College	Minden, La.
H. S. Whitman, A. M	Westbrook Seminary	Deering, Me.
Edgar M. Smith	Maine Wesleyan Seminary and Female College.	Kents Hill, Me.
John F. Goucher, D. D	Woman's College of Baltimore	Baltimore, Md.
J. H. Apple, A. M	Woman's College	Frederick, Md.
C. L. Keedy, A. M., M. D	Kee Mar College	Hagerstown, Md.
J. H. Turner, A. M	Maryland College for Young Ladies	Lutherville, Md.
C. C. Bragdon, A. M	Lasell Seminary for Young Women	Auburndale, Mass.
Miss Agnes Irwin, dean	Radcliffe College	Cambridge, Mass.
L. Clark Seelye, D. D	Smith College	Northampton, Mass.
Mrs. E. S. Mead, A. M	Mount Holyoke College	South Hadley, Mass.
Mrs. Julia J. Irvine	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Ella Young	Albert Lea College	Albert Lea, Minn.
W. T Lowrey, A. M., D. D	Blue Mountain Female College	Blue Mountain, Miss.
John W. Chambers	Whitworth Female College	Brookhaven, Miss.
Franklin L. Riley	Hillman College	Clinton, Miss.
Robert Frazer, LL. D	Industrial Institute and College	Columbus, Miss.
L. T. Fitzhugh	Belhaven College for Young Ladies	Jackson, Miss.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

II.—*Colleges for women*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
C. H. Otken, LL. D	McComb Female Institute	McComb, Miss.
J. W. Beeson, A. M	East Mississippi Female College	Meridian, Miss.
L. M. Stone, D. D	Stone College for Young Ladies	Do.
A. S. Maddox	Union Female College	Oxford, Miss.
H. S. Roller	Chickasaw Female College	Pontotoc, Miss.
Mrs. M. H. Meek	Port Gibson Female College	Port Gibson, Miss.
Mrs. Eva B. Wilkinson	Hamilton College	Water Valley, Miss.
Mrs. F. P. St. Clair	Christian Female College	Columbia, Mo.
S. F. Taylor, D. D	Stephens Female College	Do.
Hiram D. Groves	Howard Payne College	Fayette, Mo.
T. P. Walton	Synodical Female College	Fulton, Mo.
George F. Ayres	Presbyterian College	Independence, Mo.
B. T. Blewett, LL. D	St. Louis Seminary	Jennings, Mo.
W. H. Buck	Baptist Female College	Lexington, Mo.
Archibald A. Jones	Central Female College	Do.
W. H. Morton	Elizabeth Aull Female Seminary	Do.
C. M. Williams	Liberty College for Young Ladies	Liberty, Mo.
A. K. Yancey	Hardin College	Mexico, Mo.
W. S. Knight, D. D	Lindenwood Female College	St. Charles, Mo.
Geo. L. Plimpton	New Hampshire Conference Seminary and Female College.	Tilton, N. H.
J. W. Blaisdell	Bordentown Female College	Bordentown, N. J.
	Evelyn College	Princeton, N. J.
William E. Waters, Ph. D	Wells College	Aurora, N. Y.
Truman J. Backus, LL. D	Packer Collegiate Institute	Brooklyn, N. Y.
A. C. McKenzie, D. D	Elmira College	Elmira, N. Y.
Emily James Smith, dean	Barnard College	New York, N. Y.
James M. Taylor, D. D	Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
James Atkins, D. D	Asheville Female College	Asheville, N. C.
S. A. Wolff	Gaston College	Dallas, N. C.
Dred Peacock, A. M	Greensboro Female College	Greensboro, N. C.
S. P. Hatton, A. M	Claremont Female College	Hickory, N. C.
M. S. Davis, A. M	Louisburg Female College	Louisburg, N. C.
W. O. Petty	Chowan Baptist Female Institute	Murfreesboro, N. C.
F. P. Hobgood	Oxford Female Seminary	Oxford, N. C.
John H. Clewell	Salem Female Academy	Salem, N. C.
G. K. Bartholomew, A. M., Ph. D	Bartholomew English and Classical School.	Cincinnati, Ohio.
L. D. Potter, D. D	Glendale Female College	Glendale, Ohio.
Clara Sheldon	Granville Female College	Granville, Ohio.
D. B. Purinton, LL. D	Shepardson College	Do.
Faye Walker, D. D	Oxford College	Oxford, Ohio.
Leila S. McKee, Ph. D	Western College	Do.
Miss Mary Evans	Lake Erie Seminary	Painesville, Ohio.
J. W. Knappenberger, A. M	Allentown College for Women	Allentown, Pa.
J. Max Hark, D. D	Moravian Seminary for Young Ladies	Bethlehem, Pa.
M. Carey Thomas, Ph. D	Bryn Mawr College	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Wallace P. Dick	Metzger College	Carlisle, Pa.
Samuel A. Martin	Wilson College	Chambersburg, Pa.
Charles B. Shultz	Linden Hall Seminary	Lititz, Pa.
E. E. Campbell, A. M	Irving Female College	Mechanicsburg, Pa.
Frances E. Bennett	Ogontz School	Ogontz School, Pa.
R. Jennie De Vere	Pennsylvania College for Women	Pittsburg, Pa.
J. A. Rice	Columbia Female College	Columbia, S. C.
W. R. Atkinson, D. D	Presbyterian College for Women	Do.
C. E. Todd	Due West Female College	Due West, S. C.
Jno. R. Mack, A. M	Cooper-Limestone Institute	Gaffney City, S. C.
A. S. Townes	Greenville College for Women	Greenville, S. C.
M. M. Riley	Greenville Female College	Do.
B. F. Wilson	Converse College	Spartanburg, S. C.
B. G. Clifford	Clifford Seminary	Union, S. C.
S. Lander, A. M	Williamston Female College	Williamston, S. C.
D. S. Hearon, D. D	Sullins College	Bristol, Tenn.
C. A. Folk, A. B	Brownsville Female College	Brownsville, Tenn.
Robert D. Smith, A. M	Columbia Athenæum	Columbia, Tenn.
T. E. Allen	Tennessee Female College	Franklin, Tenn.
J. M. Hubbard	Howard Female College	Gallatin, Tenn.
Howard W. Key, Ph. D	Memphis Conference Female Institute	Jackson, Tenn.
Chas. C. Ross	East Tennessee Institute	Knoxville, Tenn.
Miss V. O. Wardlaw, A. M	Soule Female College	Murfreesboro, Tenn.
Geo. W. F. Price, D. D	Nashville College for Young Ladies	Nashville, Tenn.
J. D. Blanton	Ward Seminary	Do.
S. N. Barker	Martin Female College	Pulaski, Tenn.
Wm. M. Graybill, A. M	Synodical Female College	Rogersville, Tenn.
Z. C. Graves, LL. D	Mary Sharp College	Winchester, Tenn.
Charles Carlton	Carlton College	Bonham, Tex.
W. A. Wilson, A. M	Baylor Female College	Belton, Tex.
S. M. Godbey	Chappell Hill Female College	Chappell Hill, Tex.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

II.—*Colleges for women*—Continued.

Name of president.	University or college.	Address.
W. M. Dyer	Martha Washington College	Abingdon, Va.
J. D. Anderson, A. M	Stonewall Jackson Institute	Do.
Samuel D. Jones, B. L	Southwest Virginia Institute	Bristol, Va.
J. I. Miller	Young Ladies College	Buena Vista, Va.
L. H. Shuck, D. D	Albemarle Female Institute	Charlottesville, Va.
R. E. Farmer	Danville College for Young Ladies	Danville, Va.
C. F. James, D. D	Roanoke Female College	Do.
Chas. L. Cocke	Hollins Institute	Hollins, Va.
W. W. Smith, LL. D	Randolph-Macon Woman's College	Lynchburg, Va.
J. J. Scherer, A. M	Marion Female College	Marion, Va.
A. P. Piper	Norfolk College for Young Ladies	Norfolk, Va.
Arthur K. Davis, A. M	Southern Female College	Petersburg, Va.
John H. Powell	Richmond Female Institute	Richmond, Va.
James Willis, A. M	Staunton Female Seminary	Staunton, Va.
Mrs. J. E. B. Stuart	Virginia Female Institute	Do.
Henry P. Hamill	Wesleyan Female Institute	Do.
A. M. Smith	Episcopal Female Institute	Winchester, Va.
John P. Hyde, D. D., LL. D	Valley Female College	Do.
Mrs. H. L. Field	Parkersburg Seminary	Parkersburg, W. Va.
Ella C. Sabin	Milwaukee and Downer Colleges	Milwaukee, Wis.

III.—*Schools of technology.*

Name of president.	Name of institution.	Address.
Wm. Le Roy Broun, LL. D	Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Auburn, Ala.
Alston Ellis, LL. D	Colorado Agricultural College	Fort Collins, Colo.
Regis Chauvenet, A. M., B. S	State School of Mines	Golden, Colo.
B. F. Koons	Storrs Agricultural College	Storrs, Conn.
Wm. C. Jason, A. M	State College for Colored Students	Dover, Del.
L. D. Bliss	Bliss School of Electricity	Washington, D. C.
Oscar Clute, LL. D	Florida State Agricultural College	Lake City, Fla.
Lyman Hall (acting)	State School of Technology	Atlanta, Ga.
F. W. Gunsaulus, D. D	Armour Institute	Chicago, Ill.
J. H. Smart, LL. D	Purdue University	Lafayette, Ind.
Carl L. Mees, Ph. D	Rose Polytechnic Institute	Terre Haute, Ind.
W. M. Beardshear, LL. D	Iowa Agricultural College	Ames, Iowa.
Geo. T. Fairchild, LL. D	Kansas Agricultural College	Manhattan, Kans.
A. W. Harris, Ph. D	Maine State College	Orono, Me.
P. H. Cooper, U. S. N	United States Naval Academy	Annapolis, Md.
R. W. Silvester	Maryland Agricultural College	College Park, Md.
H. H. Goodell, LL. D	Massachusetts Agricultural College	Amherst, Mass.
	Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Boston, Mass.
T. C. Mendenhall, LL. D	Worcester Polytechnic Institute	Worcester, Mass.
J. L. Snyder, Ph. D	Michigan Agricultural College	Agricultural College, Mich.
M. E. Wadsworth, Ph. D	Michigan Mining School	Houghton, Mich.
S. D. Lee	Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Agricultural College, Miss.
E. H. Triplett	Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Westside, Miss.
James Reid, A. B	Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Bozeman, Mont.
C. S. Murkland, Ph. D	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Durham, N. H.
Henry Morton, Ph. D	Stevens Institute of Technology	Hoboken, N. J.
C. A. Colton, E. M	Newark Technical School	Newark, N. J.
C. T. Jordan	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Mesilla Park, N. Mex.
John H. Peck, LL. D	Reusselaer Polytechnic Institute	Troy, N. Y.
O. H. Ernst, U. S. A	United States Military Academy	West Point, N. Y.
James B. Dudley	Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race.	Greensboro, N. C.
A. Q. Holladay	North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Raleigh, N. C.
J. H. Worst	North Dakota Agricultural College	Fargo, N. Dak.
Cady Staly, LL. D	Case School of Applied Science	Cleveland, Ohio.
Geo. E. Morrow, A. M	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Stillwater, Okla.
H. B. Miller	Oregon Agricultural College	Corvallis, Oreg.
Edwin Morrison, M. S	Friends Polytechnic Institute	Salem, Oreg.
John H. Washburn, Ph. D	Rhode Island College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts.	Kingston, R. I.
Asbury Coward	South Carolina Military Academy	Charleston, S. C.

III.—College Presidents—Continued.

III.—*Schools of technology*—Continued.

Name of president.	Name of institution.	Address.
E. B. Craighead	Clemson Agricultural College	Clemson College, S. C.
John W. Heston, Ph. D., LL. D	South Dakota Agricultural College	Brookings, S. Dak.
V. T. McGillycuddy	State School of Mines	Rapid City, S. Dak.
L. S. Ross	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.	College Station, Tex
Joseph M. Tanner	Agricultural College of Utah	Logan, Utah.
Chas. C. Brill, A. M	Norwich University	Northfield, Vt.
J. M McBryde, LL. D	Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Blacksburg, Va.
Scott Shipp, LL. D	Virginia Military Institute	Lexington, Va.
E. A. Bryan, A. M	Washington Agricultural College and School of Science.	Pullman, Wash.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools.

Public normal schools.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Alabama.		
Cullman	Cullman Normal Institute	Robt. Jones.
Florence	State Normal College	James K. Powers.
Forney	Cherokee Normal Institute	T. E. Wilkinson.
Jacksonville	State Normal School	Jacob Forney.
Livingston	Alabama Normal College for Girls	Miss Julia S. Tutwiler.
Normal	State Colored Normal and Industrial School	W. H. Councill.
Troy	State Normal College	Edwin R. Eldridge
Vernon	Vernon Institute	A. T. Ezelle.
Arizona.		
Tempe	Territorial Normal School of Arizona	James McNaughton.
Arkansas.		
Barren Fork	Mount Pleasant Academy	J. P. Bingham.
Malvern	Hot Spring County Normal Institute	W. D. Leiper.
Pinebluff	Branch Normal College	J. C. Corbin.
California.		
Chico	California State Normal School	Robert F. Pennell.
Los Angeles	State Normal School	Edward T. Pierce.
San Francisco	San Francisco Normal School	Laura T. Fowler.
San Jose	State Normal School	Charles W. Childs.
Colorado.		
Greeley	Colorado State Normal School	A. X. Snyder.
Connecticut.		
Bridgeport	Bridgeport Training School	Miss Emma G. Olmstead.
New Britain	Normal Training School	Marcus White.
New Haven	State Normal Training School	Arthur B. Morrill.
Willimantic	....do	George P. Pheinx.
District of Columbia.		
Washington	Washington Normal School	Mrs. Idaliah G. Myers.
Do	Washington Normal, Seventh and Eighth Divisions.	Lucy E. Moten.
Delaware.		
Wilmington	Wilmington Training School	Miss Mary C. I. Williams.
Florida.		
De Funiak Springs	Florida State Normal School	C. P. Walker.
Tallahassee	Florida State Normal and Industrial College	T. De S. Tucker.
Georgia.		
Athens	State Normal School	S. D. Bradwell.
Milledgeville	Georgia Normal and Industrial College	J. Harris Chappell.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Public normal schools—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Idaho.		
Albion	Albion State Normal School	Frank A. Swanger.
Lewiston	Lewiston State Normal School	Geo. E. Knepper.
Illinois.		
Carbondale	Southern Illinois State Normal University	H. W. Everest.
Chicago, Station "O"	Cook County Normal School	Francis W. Parker.
Normal	Illinois State Normal University	John W. Cook.
Indiana.		
Indianapolis	Indianapolis Normal School	M. E. Nicholson.
Terre Haute	Indiana State Normal School	William W. Parsons.
Iowa.		
Boonsboro	Boon County Normal Institute	B. P. Holst.
Cedarfalls	Iowa State Normal School	Homer H. Seerley.
Kossuth	Kossuth Normal Academy	J. K. McCullough.
Rockwell City	Calhoun County Normal School	P. C. Holdoegel.
Woodbine	Woodbine Normal School	Messrs. Kinney, Riddle, and Reed.
Kansas.		
Emporia	State Normal School	A. R. Taylor.
Kentucky.		
Frankfort	State Normal School for Colored Persons	John H. Jackson.
Louisville	Louisville Normal School	Hiram Roberts.
Louisiana.		
Natchitoches	Louisiana State Normal School	Thomas D. Boyd.
New Orleans	New Orleans Normal School	Miss Marion Brown.
Maine.		
Castine	Eastern State Normal School	Albert F. Richardson.
Farmington	Farmington State Normal School	Geo. C. Purington.
Fort Kent	Madawaska Training School	Vetal Cyr.
Gorham	State Normal School	W. J. Corthell.
Lee	Lee Normal Academy	James D. Murphy.
Springfield	Springfield Normal School	Ernest H. Pratt, A. B.
Maryland.		
Baltimore	Maryland State Normal School	E. B. Prettyman.
Massachusetts.		
Boston	Boston Normal School	Larkin Dunton.
Do	Massachusetts Normal Art School	George H. Bartlett.
Cambridge	Cambridge Training School for Teachers	Herbert H. Bates.
Fitchburg	Massachusetts State Normal School	John G. Thompson.
Framingham	State Normal School	Ellen Hyde.
Salem	do	Daniel B. Hagar.
Westfield	do	J. C. Greenough.
Worcester	do	E. Harlow Russell.
Michigan.		
Detroit	Detroit Normal Training School	Harriet M. Scott.
Mount Pleasant	Michigan Central Normal School	C. F. R. Bellows.
Ypsilanti	Michigan State Normal School	Richard G. Boone.
Minnesota.		
Mankato	State Normal School	Edward Searing.
Moorhead	do	L. C. Lord.
St. Cloud	do	Geo. R. Kleeberger.
St. Paul	Teachers' Training School	Miss B. M. Phelan.
Winona	State Normal School	Irwin Shepard.
Mississippi.		
Ackerman	Central Mississippi Normal Institute	J. A. Hudson.
Blue Springs	Blue Springs Normal College	W. W. and R. E. Cornelius.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Public normal schools—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Mississippi—Cont'd.		
Holly Springs	Holly Springs Normal Institute	W. A. Anderson.
Do	Mississippi State Normal School	E. D. Miller.
Louisville	Louisville Normal School	C. E. Saunders.
Missouri.		
Cape Girardeau	State Normal School	W. D. Vandiver.
Gainesville	Gainesville Normal School	W. S. Platt.
Kirksville	State Normal School (First district)	W. D. Dobson.
St. Louis	Normal and High School	Wm. J. S. Bryan.
Warrensburg	State Normal School (Second district)	Geo. L. Osborne.
Nebraska.		
Peru	Nebraska State Normal Training School	A. W. Norton.
New Hampshire.		
Plymouth	New Hampshire State Normal School	Chas. C. Rounds.
New Jersey.		
Elizabeth	Elizabeth Normal Training Class	W. J. Shearer.
Newark	Newark Normal and Training School	Joseph Clark.
Paterson	Paterson Normal Training School	Wm. J. Slattery.
Trenton	New Jersey State Normal and Model Schools	James M. Green.
New Mexico.		
Silver City	Normal School of New Mexico	C. M. Light.
New York.		
Albany	New York State Normal College	Wm. J. Milne.
Brockport	State Normal and Training School	Chas. D. McLean.
Brooklyn	Training School for Teachers	John Gallagher.
Buffalo	Buffalo Normal School	James M. Cassety.
Cortland	State Normal and Training School	Francis J. Cheney.
Fredonia	....do	F. B. Palmer.
Geneseo	Geneseo State Normal School	John M. Milne.
New Paltz	State Normal School	Frank Sumner Capen.
New York	Normal College of the City of New York	Thomas Hunter.
Oneonta	State Normal School	James M. Milne.
Oswego	Oswego State Normal and Training School	Edward A. Sheldon.
Plattsburg	State Normal School	Edward N. Jones.
Potsdam	State Normal and Training School	Thomas B. Stowell.
Syracuse	Syracuse High School, Normal Department	Wm. K. Wickes,
North Carolina.		
Elizabeth City	State Colored Normal School	P. W. Moore.
Fayetteville	State Colored Normal School	E. E. Smith.
Goldsboro	State Normal School	R. S. Rives.
Greensboro	State Normal and Industrial School	Chas. D. McIver.
Plymouth	Plymouth State Normal School	H. C. Crosby.
Salisbury	State Normal School	F. M. Martin.
North Dakota.		
Mayville	State Normal School	J. T. Perigo.
Valley City	....do	Geo. A. McFarland.
Ohio.		
Cincinnati	Cincinnati Normal School	Mrs. Carrie N. Lathrop.
Cleveland	Cleveland Normal and Training School	Miss L. W. Hughes.
Columbus	Columbus Normal School	Margaret W. Sutherland.
Fayette	Fayette Normal University	J. E. Dodds.
Geneva	Geneva Normal School	J. P. Treat.
Wadsworth	Wadsworth Normal School	Frank A. Day.
Oklahoma.		
Edmond	Territorial Normal School of Oklahoma	Edmund H. Murdaugh.
Oregon.		
Monmouth	State Normal School	P. L. Campbell.
Weston	....do	M. G. Royal.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Public normal schools—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Pennsylvania.		
Bloomsburg	State Normal School and Literary Institute	Judson Perry Welsh.
California	Southwestern State Normal School	Theo. B. Noss.
Clarion	Clarion State Normal School	A. J. Davis.
East Stroudsburg	East Stroudsburg State Normal School	Geo. P. Bible.
Indiana	Indiana Normal School of Pennsylvania	David J. Waller.
Kutztown	Keystone State Normal School	Rev. Geo. B. Haneher.
Lockhaven	Central State Normal School	James Eldon.
Mansfield	Mansfield State Normal School	S. H. Albro.
Millersville	First Pennsylvania State Normal School	E. Oram Lyte.
Philadelphia	Philadelphia Normal School for Girls	Geo. Howard Cliff.
Pittsburg	Pittsburg High School, normal department	C. B. Wood.
Shippensburg	Cumberland Valley State Normal School	G. M. D. Eckels.
Slippery Rock	Slippery Rock State Normal School	Albert E. Maltby.
Westchester	State Normal School	Geo. M. Philips.
Rhode Island.		
Providence	Rhode Island State Normal School	Wm. Ed. Wilson.
South Carolina.		
Rockhill	Winthrop Normal College	D. B. Johnson.
South Dakota.		
Madison	State Normal School	W. H. H. Beadle.
Spearfish	do	F. L. Cook.
Tennessee.		
Hornbeak	West Tennessee Normal College	W. L. Willingham.
Martins Mills	Rose Normal Academy	Joe H. Davis.
Nashville	Peabody Normal College	William H. Payne.
Texas.		
Huntsville	Sam Houston Normal Institute	H. C. Pritchett.
Vermont.		
Castleton	State Normal School	Abel E. Leavenworth.
Johnson	do	P. A. Blossom.
Randolph Center	do	Edward Conant.
Virginia.		
Farmville	State Female School of Virginia	John A. Cunningham.
Petersburg	Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute	J. H. Johnston.
Rye Cove	Washington Institute	R. E. Wolfe.
Washington.		
Cheney	State Normal School	Wm. J. Sutton.
Ellensburg	do	P. A. Getz.
West Virginia.		
Fairmont	Fairmont State Normal School	J. Walter Barnes.
Farm	West Virginia Colored Institute	John H. Hill.
Glenville	Glenville State Normal School	W. J. Halden.
Huntington	Marshall College	Thos. E. Hodges.
Shepherdstown	Shepherd College, State Normal School	A. C. Kimler.
West Liberty	West Liberty State Normal School	J. N. Deahl.
Wisconsin.		
Milwaukee	State Normal School	L. D. Harvey.
Oshkosh	do	George S. Albee.
Platteville	do	James Chalmers.
River Falls	River Falls State Normal School	W. D. Parker.
Stevens Point	State Normal School	Theron B. Pray.
Whitewater	do	Albert Salisbury.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Private normal schools.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Alabama.		
Huntsville	Central Alabama Academy	A. W. McKinney.
Scottsboro	Tri-State Normal University	J. T. Rose.
Selma	Burrell Academy	A. T. Burnell.
Tuskegee	Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute	B. T. Washington.
Arkansas.		
Arkadelphia	Arkadelphia Academy	F. L. Jones.
Do	Shorter University	T. H. Jackson.
Berryville	Clarke's Academy	Isaac A. Clarke.
Clarksville	Arkansas Cumberland College	J. A. Laughlin.
Little Rock	Arkansas Baptist College	J. A. Booker.
Southland	Southland College and Normal Institute	J. R. Hunt.
Sulphur Rock	Sulphur Rock College	J. W. Decker.
California.		
Los Angeles	Fröbel Institute	Carolyn M. N. Claverie.
Martinez	Novitiate of the Brothers of the Christian School.	Brother Theodorus.
Oakland	Gilson's Normal and Special Training School	J. C. Gilson.
San Francisco	California Kindergarten Training School	Nora A. Smith.
Colorado.		
Denver	Denver Normal and Preparatory School	Fred. Dick.
Connecticut.		
Norwich	Normal Department of Norwich Free Academy.	Robert P. Keep.
Delaware.		
Newark	Academy of Newark	Jas. Dickson Shanks.
District of Columbia.		
Washington	Kindergarten Normal Training School	Mrs. Louise Pollock.
Florida.		
Jasper	Jasper Normal Institute	J. M. Guilliams.
Live Oak	Florida Institute	Rev. Geo. P. McKinney.
Orangepark	Orange Park Normal and Manual Training School.	B. D. Rowlee.
White Springs	Florida Normal College	J. Jerome Welty.
Georgia.		
Albany	Albany Normal School	James L. Murray.
Athens	Jeruel Academy	J. H. Brown.
Atlanta	Spelman Seminary	Miss Harriet E. Giles.
Augusta	Haines Normal and Industrial Institute	Miss Lucy C. Laney.
Do	Paine Institute	Geo. W. Walker.
Demorest	Demorest Normal School	J. S. Jennings.
Greensboro	Thomas Stocks Institute	N. H. Ballard.
Macon	Ballard Normal School	George C. Burrage.
Monroe	Johnston Institute	John Gibson.
Savannah	Beach Institute	Julia B. Ford.
Thomasville	Allen Normal and Industrial School	Amelia Merriam.
Trenton	Trenton Normal College	Geo. P. Welch.
Illinois.		
Addison	German Evangelical Lutheran Teachers' Seminary.	E. A. W. Krauss.
Aurora	Jennings Seminary	Rev. A. R. Cronce.
Bushnell	Western Normal College	W. M. Evans.
Dixon	Northern Illinois Normal School	J. B. Dille.
Galesburg	Galesburg Kindergarten Normal School	M. Evelyn Strong.
Macomb	Western Illinois Normal School and Business Institute.	I. F. Meyer.
Mount Morris	Mount Morris College	J. G. Roger.
Onarga	Grand Prairie Seminary	S. Van Pelt.
Oregon	Wells School for Teachers	E. L. Wells.
Rushville	Rushville Normal and Business College	Maxwell Kennedy.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Private normal schools—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Indiana.		
Angola	Tri-State Normal School	L. M. Sniff.
Borden	Borden Institute	H. A. Buerk.
Collegeville	St. Joseph's College	Aug. Seifut.
Columbus	Columbus Business University and Normal College.	F. H. Harper.
Covington	Indiana Normal College	Olive E. Coffeen.
Danville	Central Normal College and Commercial Institute.	J. A. Joseph.
Fairmount	Fairmount Academy and Normal School	Elwood O. Ellis.
Indianapolis	Indiana Kindergarten and Primary Normal Training School.	Eliza A. Blaker.
Marengo	Marengo Academy	Taylor E. Breeden.
Marion	Marion Normal College	A. Jones.
Mitchell	Southern Indiana Normal College	John C. Willis.
Portland	Portland Normal, Music, and Law School	L. M. Holmes.
Princeton	Indiana Normal University	J. M. Stephens.
Valparaiso	Northern Indiana Normal School	H. B. Brown.
Iowa.		
Afton	Afton Normal and Business College	S. S. Stivers.
Algona	Northern Iowa Normal and Commercial School.	A. J. Lilly.
Anamosa	St. Mark's School	J. I. Corbyn.
Casey	Normal and Preparatory School	Mrs. M. J. Cowman.
Carroll	Carroll Normal and Business College	A. E. Whitten.
Denison	Denison Normal School	W. C. Van Ness.
Des Moines	Highland Park Normal College	C. C. Rearick.
Dexter	Dexter Normal College	A. G. Smith.
Glidden	National Normal School and Business College.	E. L. Essley.
Hedrick	Hedrick Normal and Commercial School	W. O. Mullin.
Hull	Hull Educational Institute	James F. Eaton.
Lemars	Lemars Normal School and Business College	F. M. Chaffee.
Newton	Newton Normal College	G. W. Wormley.
Nora Springs	Nora Springs Seminary	C. P. Colgrove.
Orange City	Northwestern Classical Academy	James F. Zwemer.
Ottumwa	Ottumwa Normal School	Martha A. Peck.
Shenandoah	Western Normal College, Shenandoah Commercial Institute and Musical Conservatory.	J. M. Hussey.
Spirit Lake	Spirit Lake Normal and Business Institute	H. Welty.
Vinton	Tilford Academy	T. F. Tobin.
Waukon	Waukon Business College and Normal School.	L. Eells.
Kansas.		
Fort Scott	Kansas Normal College	D. E. Sanders.
Great Bend	Central Normal College	Wm. Stryker.
Hiawatha	Hiawatha Academy	L. E. Tupper.
Lincoln	Kansas Christian College	O. B. Whitaker.
Marysville	Modern Normal College	J. G. Ellenbecker.
McPherson	McPherson College	S. Z. Sharp.
Salina	Salina Normal University	Charles Swisher.
Winfield	Southwest Kansas College, Normal Department.	Geo. R. Kirkpatrick.
Kentucky.		
Blaine	Blaine Normal School	G. Milton Elam.
Bowling Green	Bowling Green Business College and Southern Normal School.	H. H. and T. C. Cherry.
Bremen	Bremen College and Perryman Institute	G. V. Gordon.
Corinth	Northern Kentucky Normal School and Academy.	A. A. Hibner.
Fulton	Fulton Normal and Business College	A. M. Kirkland.
Hardinsburg	Breckinridge Normal College	R. P. Shacklett.
Irvine	Irvine Training School	Prof. Thos. Throop.
Jackson	Jackson Collegiate Institute	E. P. Mickle.
Louisa	Louisa Normal Institute	U. S. G. Anderson.
Madisonville	The National Institute	E. McCulley.
Do	Western Kentucky Normal School	H. Evelyn Brooks.
Magnolia	Magnolia Classical and Normal College	Kvander Masten.
Morehead	Morehead Normal School	F. C. Button.
Waddy	Central Normal School and Business College	J. B. Secrest.
Louisiana.		
Baldwin	Gilbert Academy and Industrial Institute	A. E. P. Albert.
New Orleans	Southern Academic Institute	Mrs. I. E. Seaman.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Private normal schools—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Maine.		
Bucksport	E. M. Conference Seminary	Rev. A. F. Chase.
Hampden	Hampden Academy	Geo. C. Webber.
Maryland.		
Buckeystown	Buckeystown Normal Training School	F. R. Neighbours.
Rising Sun	Friends' Normal Institute	Thos. D. Bowers.
Massachusetts.		
Boston	Chauncy Hall Normal Class	Lucy Wheelock.
Waltham	Notre Dame Training School	Sister Georgiana.
Worcester	Kindergarten Normal Class	Annie C. Rust.
Michigan.		
Big Rapids	Ferris Industrial School	W. N. Ferris.
Fenton	Fenton Normal School and Commercial College	W. A. Stevenson.
Flint	Flint Normal College and Business Institute	G. Eastman Swarthout.
Owosso	Oakside School	Mrs. L. E. Gould.
Petoskey	Graves Normal Academy	M. O. Graves.
Minnesota.		
Moorhead	Concordia College	H. H. Aaker.
New Ulm	Dr. Martin Luther College	John Schaller.
Sauk Center	Sauk Center Academy and Business College	Lewis H. Vath.
Mississippi.		
Abbeville	Abbeville Normal School	Keeton & Bankston.
Bellefontaine	Bellefontaine High School	W. B. Walker.
Buenavista	Buena Vista Normal College	R. V. Fletcher.
Houston	Mississippi Normal College	H. B. Abernethy.
Iuka	Iuka Normal College	H. A. Dean.
Meridian	Meridian Academy	Rev. J. L. Wilson.
Jackson	Jackson College	Rev. Luther G. Barrett.
Plattsburg	Winston Normal High School	H. Lynn McCleskey.
Sherman	Mississippi Normal Institute	Davis, Langston, and Tucker.
Tougaloo	Normal Department Tougaloo University	Earnest C. Moore.
Tula	Tula Normal Institute and Business College	C. C. Hughes.
Walnut Grove	Mississippi Central Normal School	J. M. Consley.
Missouri.		
Brookfield	Brookfield College	M. H. Reaser.
Chillicothe	Chillicothe Normal, Business, and Shorthand College.	Allen Moore.
Clarksburg	Hopper Institute	W. C. Sebring.
College Mound	McGee College	J. B. Creighton.
Eldorado Springs	El Dorado Normal and Business College	O. C. Wood.
Greenridge	Central Missouri Normal and Business College	R. M. Scotten.
Licking	Licking College	J. N. Curlin.
Maryville	The Maryville Seminary	Geo. E. Moore.
Pleasant Hope	Pleasant Hope Normal Academy	J. F. Martin.
Stanberry	Stanberry Normal School	John E. Fesler.
Thornfield	Thornfield Normal Institute	J. E. Smith.
Weaubleau	Weaubleau Christian College	J. Whitaker.
Montana.		
Twin Bridges	Montana Normal Training School	Chas. W. Birchard.
Nebraska.		
Fremont	Fremont Normal School	W. H. Clemmons.
Lincoln	Lincoln Normal University	Hill M. Bell.
Madison	North Nebraska Normal College	E. A. Whitwam.
Pawnee City	Pawnee City Academy	Rev. R. T. Campbell.
Santee Agency	Santee Normal Training School	Alfred L. Riggs.
Stromsburg	Bryant Normal University	J. J. Bryant.
Wayne	Nebraska Normal College	J. M. Pile.
New York.		
New York	Teachers' College	Walter L. Hervey.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Private normal schools—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
North Carolina.		
Asheville	Normal and Collegiate Institute	Rev. Thos. Lawrence.
Beaufort	Washburn Seminary	F. S. Hitchcock.
Concord	Scotia Seminary	D. J. Satterfield.
Farmer	Farmer Institute	W. H. Boone.
Franklinton	Albion Academy	Rev. J. A. Savage.
Kings Mountain	Lincoln Academy	Lilian S. Cathcart.
Lumberton	Whitin Normal School	D. P. Allen.
Poes	Buies Creek Academy	Rev. J. A. Campbell.
Raleigh	St. Augustine's School	Rev. A. B. Hunter.
Shallotte	Shallotte Preparatory School	Geo. Leonard.
Traphill	Fairview College	M. L. Roork.
Warrenton	Shiloh Institute	J. A. Whitted.
Wilmington	Gregory Normal Institute	Francis T. Waters.
Winston	Waters Normal Institute	C. S. Brown.
North Dakota.		
Grand Forks	Grand Forks College	C. B. Blake, jr.
Ohio.		
Ada	Ohio Normal University	H. S. Lehr.
Canfield	Northeastern Ohio Normal College	John A. Cummins.
Dayton	St. Mary's Academy	Rev. George Meyer.
Defiance	Defiance College	Jno. C. McCanley.
Ewington	Ewington Academy	F. F. Vale.
Lebanon	National Normal University	Alfred Holbrook.
Middlepoint	Western Ohio Normal School	P. S. Morgan.
New Philadelphia	John P. Kuhn's Normal School	John P. Kuhn.
Piketon	Southern Ohio School of Pedagogy	Levi B. Moore.
South New Lyme	New Lyme Institute	J. Tuckerman.
Tremont	Western Normal University	B. L. Barr.
Woodville	Teachers' Seminary	Theo. Mees.
Oregon.		
Drain	Oregon State Normal School	Louis Barzee.
Pennsylvania.		
Ebensburg	Ebensburg Normal Institute	T. L. Gibson.
Huntingdon	Juniata College	M. G. Brumbaugh.
Muncy	Lycoming County Normal School	Fred Woods Robbins.
Philadelphia	Institute for Colored Youth	Fannie J. Coppin.
Pittsburg	Curry Institute	J. Clark Williams.
Rimersburg	Clarion Collegiate Institute	W. L. Smith.
Waynesburg	Waynesburg College	Rev. A. B. Miller.
South Carolina.		
Aiken	Schofield Normal and Industrial School	Ella A. Warner.
Camden	Browning Home and Industrial School	Mrs. A. Gorden.
Charleston	Avery Normal Institute	Morrison A. Holmes.
Do	Wallingford Academy	Rev. Thos. A. Grove.
Chester	Brainerd Institute	J. S. Marquis.
Frogmore	Penn Normal and Industrial School	Miss Ellen Murray.
Greenwood	Brewer Normal School	Rev. J. M. Robinson.
South Dakota.		
Sioux Falls	Lutheran Normal School	H. B. Hustvedt.
Tennessee.		
Bloomingdale	Kingsley Seminary	Joseph H. Ketron.
Birchwood	Rutherford Graded School	R. T. Rutherford.
Dickson	Dickson Normal School	Wade & Loggins.
Fountain City	Holbrook Normal College	J. J. Crumley.
Greenbrier	Central Tennessee Normal and Commercial School.	N. J. Pritchard.
Huntingdon	Southern Normal University	J. A. Baber.
Jonesboro	Warner Institute	Anna R. Miner.
McLemoresville	McLemoresville Collegiate University	Lewis S. Mitchell.
Maryville	Freedman's Normal Institute	L. H. Garner.
Memphis	Le Moyne Normal Institute	A. J. Steele.
Morristown	Morristown Normal Academy	Judson S. Hill.
Mulberry	South Central Tennessee Normal School	J. C. McClure.
Sparta	Dibrell Normal Institute	W. T. Garrett.
Wheat	Roane College	J. P. Griffitts.
Winchester	Winchester Normal College	R. A. Clark.

IV.—Principals of Normal Schools—Continued.

Private normal schools—Continued.

Location.	Name of institution.	Principal.
Texas.		
Austin	Tillotson College	Rev. W. S. Goss.
Brenham	Blinn Memorial College	C. Urbantke.
Castroville	Divine Providence Academy	Mother M. Florence.
Commerce	East Texas Normal College	W. L. Mayo.
Crockett	Mary Allen Seminary	Rev. John B. Smith.
Detroit	Detroit Normal College	Andrew Ross.
Hearne	Hearne Academy, Normal and Industrial Institute.	M. H. Broyles.
Omen	Summer Hill Select School	A. W. Orr.
Sunset	Sunset Institute	Mrs. C. F. Caylor.
Whitesboro	Whitesboro Normal College	C. L. & N. Adair.
Utah.		
Provo City	Brigham Young Academy	Benj. Cluff.
Salt Lake City	Latter Day Saints' College	Willard Done.
Virginia.		
Cappahosic	Gloucester Agricultural and Industrial School.	W. B. Weaver.
Hampton	Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute.	H. B. Frissell.
Lawrenceville	St. Paul Normal and Industrial School	Rev. James S. Russell.
Norfolk	Norfolk Mission College	J. B. Work.
Reliance	Shenandoah Normal College	G. W. Hoenshel.
Richmond	Hartshorn Memorial College	Lyman B. Tefft.
Rocky Mount	Piedmont Normal College	T. A. Walker.
Scottsburg	Scottsburg Normal College	S. H. Thompson.
Stuart	Stuart Normal College	I. M. Groves.
Willis	The Mountain Normal School	J. H. Rutrough.
West Virginia.		
Buckhannon	Union College	W. O. Mills.
Fayetteville	Fayetteville Academy	H. C. Robertson.
Harpers Ferry	Storer College	Nathan Cook Brackett.
Summersville	Summersville Normal School	W. G. Brown.
Wisconsin.		
Milwaukee	National German American Teachers' Seminary.	Emil Dapprich.
St. Francis	Catholic Normal School of the Holy Family and Pio Nono College.	Rev. M. J. Lochemes.
West Superior	West Superior State Normal School	H. M. Neill.
Wyoming.		
Rawlins	Wyoming Normal and Scientific College	J. E. Brate.

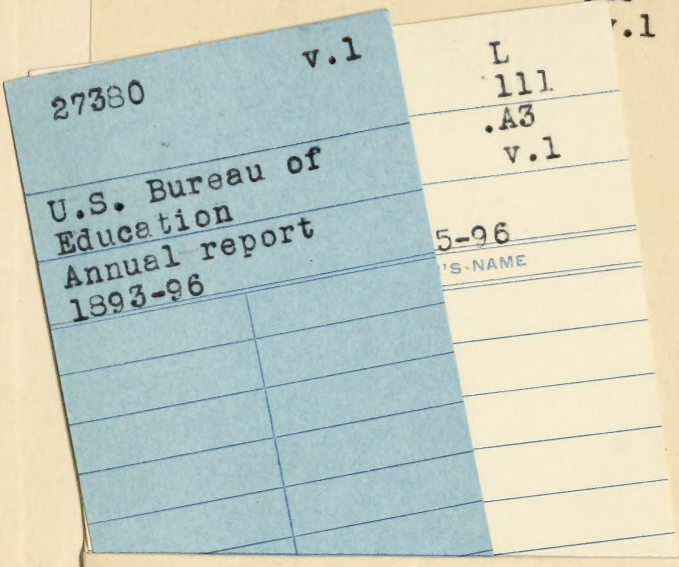
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