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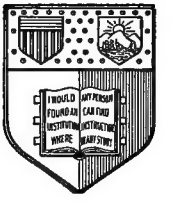

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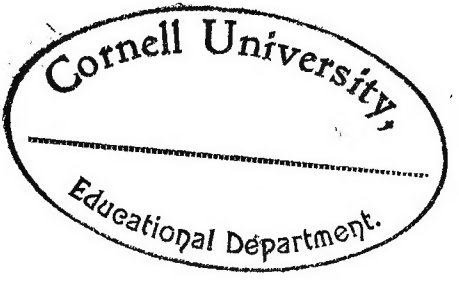
REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NORMAL SCHOOLS

JULY, 1899



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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NORMAL SCHOOLS

JULY, 1899

APPOINTED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AT DENVER MEETING
JULY, 1895

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NORMAL SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

To the Normal School Department of the National Educational Association:

The undersigned members of the Normal-School Committee submit the following report:

I. ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF COMMITTEE

At the session of the National Educational Association held in Denver, 1895, the Normal Department passed the following resolution, offered by President Snyder, of Greeley, Colo.:

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the president of the department to meet during the year and formulate a report, to be presented at the next meeting, upon such educational topics as directly concern the department.

At the Buffalo meeting, 1896, the committee made a brief report upon such matters as appertained directly to the work of normal schools. The report was adopted and the committee increased to eight, and instructed to make a printed preliminary report at the next meeting. This preliminary report was presented at the Milwaukee meeting. It was vigorously discussed. On motion of President A. R. Taylor, Kansas, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That the report be accepted, and the committee continued, with instructions to continue the investigation on the lines proposed, and also to submit a course of study with minimum of professional requirements for the state normal schools of the United States.

The work of the committee was progressing very slowly, because no funds had been appropriated to meet expenses. President Boone, Ypsilanti, introduced a resolution asking the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association for an appropriation of five hundred dollars ($500) to meet the expenses of the committee in its investigations.

At this meeting the directors voted an appropriation of five hundred dollars ($500), subject to the discretion of the Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees. At the Chattanooga meeting of the Department of Superintendence the amount was granted. This was too late for the committee to report at the Washington meeting, except in a preliminary way. The committee met at Washington and arranged to make a final report at Los Angeles. The committee had its final meeting in Columbus, O., in February, 1899. It was in session six days, and agreed upon the following report as its findings:

II. WORK OF COMMITTEE

All of the topics studied have been printed in the proceedings of the National Educational Association from time to time. In the report will be found almost all the questions that have interested the normal-school men of the country. They may have lost the form in which they were originally put, but their substance will, upon examination, be found in the body of this report.

Since the Milwaukee meeting the members of the committee have made a study of the courses of study in operation in the normal schools in the various sections of the United States; as well as a continuance of investigation in other lines. President A. G. Boyden

reported at the Washington meeting on the New England state normal schools; Miss Marion Brown, on the southern state normal schools; President Seerley, on those west of the Mississippi and east of the Rocky Mountains; President Boone, on the north central state normal schools; President Pierce, on the Pacific state normal schools; Dr. N. C. Schaeffer, on the middle state normal schools; Dr. Frank McMurry and President Snyder made a study during this time of the training school. The reports of these members, presented at Washington last year, were printed in the proceedings of the Washington meeting.

From all of the foregoing reports have been obtained the data from which this report has been formulated.

The work of the committee for the past year was distributed as follows: President Seerley, Iowa, was appointed a subcommittee to investigate and report on geographical and historical variations that exist among the normal schools of the United States; Dr. N. C. Schaeffer, Pa., was appointed a subcommittee to report on maintenance and control of normal schools; Dr. Frank McMurry, New York, was appointed to report on the training department of the normal schools; Miss Marion Brown, Louisiana, was appointed to report on the kindergarten as connected with the normal school; President Pierce, California, was appointed to report on reciprocal recognition of diplomas; President Snyder, Colorado, made a study of the effect of normal schools upon public education.

Differences of opinion have existed on many questions; but, by concessions upon the part of all the members of the committee, they have been able to agree upon the report as presented.

The committee fully appreciates how difficult it is to set forth, with any degree of definiteness, a report that will meet the approbation of all educational people.

Thanking the educational people of the country and the officers of the National Educational Association for their courtesy and material assistance, the committee respectfully submits the report.

Z. X. SNYDER, Colorado, *Chairman.*
R. G. BOONE, Michigan.
A. G. BOYDEN, Massachusetts.
MISS MARION BROWN, Louisiana.
FRANK MCMURRY, New York.
E. T. PIERCE, California.
N. C. SCHAEFFER, Pennsylvania.
H. H. SEERLEY, Iowa.

FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL

I. THE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IS TO PREPARE TEACHERS

The work of the normal school is unique. It means more than teaching subjects; it means more than the developing of the character; it means the teaching of subjects that they in turn may be taught; it means the development of character that it in turn may be transfigured into character; it means such a preparation for life that it in turn may prepare others to enter fully, readily, and righteously into their environment. Thus to prepare an individual to lead and direct a little child is a grave responsibility.

II. THE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN ITS RELATION TO ITS FACULTY

The faculty is the soul of the institution. Its members should be superior men and women. In general Tappan's law should hold, that "a teacher should be trained in an institution of a higher grade than the one in which he teaches."

1. *Character* stands first in the hierarchy of qualifications. Nothing can take its place. There are two fundamental elements in it—*force* and *power*. Force is an inherent executive element. Some persons have great force in the administration of affairs; when they are thru, they are forgotten. Some persons administer affairs with power; when they are thru, they still live in the minds and hearts of those with whom they came in contact. A strong man in life—a man of strong character—is one who has both force and power. Force is evolved in putting forth his determinations. Power is the soul in his actions; power is mind and heart.

2. *Teaching ability* stands second—the ability to adapt self and subject to pupil. It is ability to inspire to thought and feeling and action. It is that kind of work which makes for character. Teaching may be defined as causing an individual to think and act physically, mentally, and spiritually.

3. *Scholarship* is the reserve power of every great teacher. It commands respect. It is fertility of mind. A liberal education, special preparation for the particular lines of work to be performed, pedagogical training, with a keen insight into the function of the normal school, are indispensable qualifications.

4. *Culture* gives tone to the entire being. It acts as a tonic in all we do. It is the development of the finer self. It comes from wide scholarship—a liberal education baptized by the spirit of the individual.

5. *A professional spirit and professional ethics* should characterize every member of a faculty. It is that spirit and ethics that binds all parts of an institution together and makes it one grand force for good.

III. THE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN ITS RELATION TO THOSE PREPARING TO TEACH

1. *Fundamental conditions for entrance.*

(*a*) *Maturity.*—Those who enter should be mature. To comprehend subjects and their interpretation and their value in the development of a human being requires maturity of mind. To understand the child as a biological unit, to understand it as a psychological unit, to understand it as a social unit, requires a standard of maturity very far above the prevailing standard in the normal schools. Therefore normal schools should be more cautious in regard to those whom they admit and graduate.

(*b*) *Good health and soundness of organs.*—No person should be admitted to a normal school who has not reasonably good health and who is not sound in all his organs. The development of the germ theory of diseases and infection, in many instances by contact, forbids the reckless inconsideration of this important matter. Again, an individual who is not healthy is, in the very nature of the case, precluded from giving forth his best. It is due the children that those who teach them be hale and sound of body. Sympathy which is often bestowed upon persons of this kind is always at the expense of the children; it is misplaced sympathy.

(*c*) *Natural fitness to teach.*—Natural fitness is a paramount condition in one who is preparing to teach. Education and training do much to give power and skill, yet natural fitness stands superior. The individual who is in close touch with the child, who can blend with it in its sorrows and joys, in its failures and successes, is the one whose presence makes for character — for life. When normal-school authorities are fully convinced that one who is preparing to teach lacks natural aptitude, they should be humane enough, for the sake of the children as well as for the sake of the person in question, to recommend his withdrawal from the school.

(*d*) *Common sense.*—An intuitive knowledge of common affairs — to know to do the right thing at the right time. This condition is essential. We see its manifestations daily; we daily see the lack of it. It is an intuitive consciousness of the fitness of things.

(*e*) *High-mindedness.*—Nothing will take the place of this virtue. It is difficult to make a low-minded person high-minded. High-mindedness is the very essence of morality. True training and education may suppress low-minded tendencies, but they cannot eradicate them.

(*f*) *Native ability.*—An ordinary amount of ability is always presupposed. One only who is capable of grasping subjects and relations in the various departments of learning and human endeavor is eligible for admission.

These six conditions are fundamental, inherent, intrinsic. They form the matrix of all learning, of all culture, of all life in the truest sense. The strength of the normal school lies in its recognition of these conditions. This recognition is a very important function. The great abundance of applicants for admission to the normal schools warrants the recognition of these conditions.

2. *Scholastic condition for admission.*

For entrance into the normal school the applicant should have a high-school education. This education includes the elementary-school course, which comprehends a gathering of facts and their simpler relations, as well as a study of the formal subjects which are largely means of expression. It also includes a secondary education, in which the facts and relations gotten in the elementary school are enlarged and organized into sciences. This larger view of human learning and endeavor is very essential when

the prospective teacher returns to the elementary subjects for the purpose of gaining a pedagogical interpretation of them. It is this setting which the subjects receive that gives pedagogical insight as to their true evaluation in the process of education. It is this insight that characterizes and makes unique the normal-school work. While the individual is thus gaining this pedagogical insight, he is gaining constructively a broader view of the elementary subjects themselves by bringing to bear upon them the higher subjects. Examples: arithmetic is made richer by algebra and geometry; geography, by physiography and geology; history, by literature; English grammar, by a study of English and literature; the facts of nature, by physics, chemistry, zoölogy, botany, etc.; drawing, by art; civil government, by sociology; physiology, by biology, etc. It is this kind of work that distinguishes normal-school work in the branches from academic work proper, as we find it in the high school. It is professional. To formulate, so far as subjects are concerned: *In the high school the end in view is the subject and its value to the student; in the normal school it is the value of the subject in an educational process and the best mode of presentation to produce the highest value.*

IV. THE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN ITS RELATION TO THE CHILD

The supreme center in education is the child in its relation to its environment. What is in the child, how it got there, the child's development, the end in view, the means employed, its relation to nature, to man, to society, and to Divinity are all pertinent in a discussion of the subject.

From the standpoint of this conception it is a function of the normal school to give an interpretation of the child and child life to its students who are preparing to go out to teach, or to lead and direct children. Indeed, the work of the normal school is an effort to study the child in all its bearings, to study it historically, by observation, scientifically, or in any way that may give an inkling into its natures and their development.

V. THE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN ITS RELATION TO THE SOCIAL MIND, OR SOCIETY

The social mind is made up of the individual minds. Again, the integration of the individual minds gives the social mind. So we speak of public opinion, public sentiment, public conscience, public will, or the will of the people. Each individual is an organic unit in the social mind. The expressions of the social mind are in our institutions — our institutional life. The home, the school, the church, society, the state are the product of the social mind. This being true, the relation of the normal school to the social mind is a most important one. Indeed, the conception of education already stated becomes apparent: education consists in having and preparing the individual to enter fully,

readily, and righteously into his surroundings. While the relation of the child to society has been largely ignored in the past, it should be reckoned with in the future. The aim of the public school is found in society.

VI. THE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN ITS RELATION TO THE HOME

Between the school-teacher and the home there should be a very intimate relation. The first school the child enters should not differ very much from the home—a good home. The spirit of this first school should be homelike. This sort of school seizes the spirit of the child. It is initiated readily. It eliminates the barrier that usually exists. The intimacy between the parent and teacher should result in a hearty co-operation between them. The teacher should be an adviser of the parent and a companion of the children. There is a marked tendency in this direction brought about by child study and the women's clubs thruout the country.

It is a function of the normal school to impress its students with the close relation of the home and the school.

VII. THE FUNCTION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN ITS RELATION TO THE SUBJECTS TO BE STUDIED BY THOSE PREPARING TO TEACH, OR THE COURSE OF STUDY

A few years ago almost every school had its fixed, ideal course of study, the gauntlet of which every child that remained in school had to run. At present this is not true. There is no constant course of study. It is variable. It is tentative. The course of study is beginning to be as variable as individuals. This is as it should be, and it should be expected in this *nascent* period of pedagogics.

Since the aim of education has been set forth as a preparation for society, the function of the normal school in the preparation of teachers becomes apparent.

In this preparation of a teacher that he may understand the child as an involution of possibilities, and that its education is an evolution of these possibilities under a proper adjustment of its environment, the following centers of interest are suggested from which to derive a course of study. No one of these centers should be ignored in the course. The derivation of a course of study from these centers gives the widest latitude for electives.

The committee feels that the shortest time that should be allowed for the completion of this course is two years, with the understanding that the applicant for admission has, at least, a high-school education or its equivalent.

I. MAN IN HIMSELF

Embracing:

a) Physiology.
b) Psychology.
c) Ethics.
d) Religion.

II. MAN IN THE RACE

Embracing:

a) History.
b) Anthropology.
c) Literature.
d) Genetic psychology.

III. MAN IN NATURE

Embracing:

a) Physics.
b) Chemistry.
c) Biology.
d) Mathematics.
e) Physiography.
f) Astronomy.

IV. MAN IN SOCIETY

Embracing:

a) Sociology.
b) Government.
c) Home.
d) Economics.

V. MAN IN EXPRESSION

Embracing:

a) Language.
b) Drawing.
c) Construction.
d) Physical culture.
e) Music.
f) Art.

VI. MAN IN SCHOOL

Embracing:

a) Philosophy of education.
b) Science and art of teaching.
c) History of education.
d) School economics.

The committee recommends that the above be the course toward which all normal schools should aim; but owing to the diverse conditions existing in various parts of the country relative to normal schools, it deems it advisable that a provisional minimum course, to bridge over the transition period from the academic or semi-academic nature of the normal to the normal as a professional school, be also recommended.

The conditions for entrance to the provisional minimum course, and the course itself, are as follows:

I. ENTRANCE

The applicant shall have finished a grammar-school course embracing the following subjects, in which he is reasonably proficient: arithmetic, English grammar, geography, United States history, physiology and hygiene, drawing, civil government, music, grammar-school algebra, nature study, reading, penmanship, spelling, and English.

II. LENGTH OF MINIMUM COURSE

The course shall extend over a period of four years.

III. THE MINIMUM COURSE

I. MATHEMATICS

1. Arithmetic.
2. Elementary algebra.
3. Plane geometry.

II. LANGUAGE

1. English grammar.
2. English.
3. Elements of rhetoric.

III. SCIENCE

1. Biological science.
   a) Zoölogy.
   b) Botany.
2. Physical science.
   a) Physiography.
   b) Physics.
   c) Chemistry.
3. Nature study.

IV. ART

1. Penmanship.
2. Drawing.
3. Form, color work, etc.
4. Manual training — domestic science or sloyd, or both.
5. Reading.
6. Music.
7. Fine arts.

V. SOCIAL SCIENCE

1. Sociology.
2. History.
3. Civics and economics.

VI. LITERATURE

1. Folk-lore and myth.
2. American literature.
3. English literature.

VII. PHYSICAL CULTURE

1. General physical education.
2. Schoolroom gymnastics.
3. Games in and out of school.
4. Sanitation and schoolroom hygiene.

VIII. PROFESSIONAL WORK

A. Theoretical.
   1. Psychology — one year.
   2. Pedagogy — one year.
B. Practical — training school.
   1. Observation — one year
   2. Teaching — one year.

The following is an outline of the minimum amount of work for the training department of a normal school, that it may make the students practical, successful, and growing teachers for the public schools.

In order to do this the training department should, first, build up in the minds of the students ideals of what instruction in the several branches should be; second, give them opportunities for actually instructing in the light of these ideals in a sufficient number of subjects and grades, under circumstances and for a length of time sufficient to warrant the faculty in recommending the student as a practical, successful, and growing teacher.

The actual teaching of the students should comprise at least five recitation periods a week for one year, preceded and accompanied by directed observation and discussions of actual recitations and their plans, as well as the writing of plans themselves. The more experienced the "student teacher" is, the more benefit he derives from the criticisms, and the farther he advances the efficiency of the practice school.

GAINING THE IDEAL

In the beginning of the junior year the students should be formed into small groups, perhaps ten in a group, and assigned to the critic teachers, in charge of the grades, for the observation of one, or, if practicable, two, recitations each week, and its thoro criticism under the direction of the critic teacher.

These discussions should involve a criticism of the following points:

I. *The subject-matter.*
   1. Its value.
   2. Its fitness for the children of this age.

II. *Correlation.*
   1. Does the teacher utilize points of preceding recitation?
   2. Does she utilize points used in other studies?

III. *Method.*
1. Aim.
   a) Form.
   b) Content.
2. Preparation of pupils' minds.
   a) Relevant and irrelevant questions.
3. Presentation of the new.
   a) Narrated.
   b) Read.
   c) Developed or questioned.
      (1) Form of questions.
      (2) Content of questions.
      (3) Sequence of questions.
4. Devices.
5. Drills.
6. Summary.

IV. *Results.*

V. *Government of class.*

VI. *Manner of the teacher.*

VII. *Summary of the bad points.*

VIII. *Summary of the good points.*

These groups observe and criticise usually the work of the seniors which should be good enough to be called "model." The critic teachers and the superintendent should frequently conduct "model" recitations in the presence of the different groups. Nothing in a recitation is capable of proper defense, unless it can be based upon some pedagogical principle; all criticisms should be so based. When a student opposes a point in a recitation, he is held to suggest something better in its place.

When it seems advisable, and long before they are allowed to teach, juniors are required to write detailed plans for recitations. These plans are subjected to the same thoro criticisms as the recitations that they have observed.

It is in this way that the training department seeks to lay the foundations for the student teacher's ideal of a recitation.

REALIZATION OF THE IDEAL

At the commencement of the senior year the teaching should begin. For each recitation the student prepares a detailed plan, seeking to avoid the errors and to follow the suggestions that he has been led to appreciate in his observations and criticisms. The plan shows the leading questions that he expects to ask and the answers they should bring. He strives, as far as possible, to ask questions that will call for thought on the part of the pupil. The wording of the questions is important, the sequence equally so.

The student should have charge of his first class for one semester, taking another in a different grade and a different subject for the second semester. This will give him a strong feeling of the universality of the pedagogical principles he has been applying. He should be allowed sufficient independence in the discipline of his class to test and strengthen his ability to govern it.

During the senior year a recitation for public criticism should be held in the presence of all the seniors once a week by one of their number, by a critic teacher, or by the superintendent. Two seniors working together should prepare a written criticism according to the outline given above.

The teacher who holds the recitation — the practician — should prepare a written self-criticism. This should be read at a subsequent meeting and thoroly discussed.

TRAINING SCHOOLS

1. A training school should be a place for illustrating, testing, and, at least in part, originating theory of education. It is an essential part of a school for teachers, being necessary for the progress of both students and faculty. But while the training school is established to this end, the first interest in the teaching process is the child; the work can and must be so conducted that the child shall receive as good or better training than he would otherwise be likely to receive.

While the use of a training school for originating theory is subordinate to the other uses named, this use is, nevertheless, of much importance. Both faculty and students should feel that all the good theory is not discovered, and should be constantly on the lookout for ideas. In this way proper progress is made possible.

2. In comparison with other lines of work in a normal school, actual teaching is capable of ranking as the most valuable course for the student, for it furnishes, at the same time, both theory and practice.

Most lines of work aim chiefly to give insight into what is true, good, or advisable; that is, they give mere theory. But while actual teaching contributes much to such insight, it also gives training in the application of this knowledge. It is usually more difficult to apply knowledge than it is to acquire it; but since practice in teaching does both, it is an especially valuable line of work.

3. The training school in a state normal school should contain a kindergarten as well as the eight grades. Even tho the normal school may not aim to send out kindergartners, a good kindergarten is very desirable, because the younger the children under instruction, the more fully are teachers and observers forced into a proper appreciation of the fundamental principles of teaching.

The younger the child, the more the teacher is forced to be really pedagogical. For example, the college professor may have his mind on his subject-matter and ignore the students by gazing out of the window, yet they will remain respectful and at least apparently attentive. But if the kindergartner were to do the same thing, the children would cease to pay any attention to her; they would play with one another and leave the room. She *must* think of them first; she *must* be pedagogical, and, therefore, she *is*. The college professor does not have to be, and, therefore, up to the present time he very often *is not*. For this reason primarily it is desirable that normal-school students come in frequent contact with a kindergarten, even tho they are not planning to be teachers in the kindergarten themselves.

The training school may well include a country school also, since the normal schools must train country teachers. But this is scarcely feasible, unless there is an actual country school within easy reach of the normal.

4. The number of children intrusted to a beginning student teacher should be small, approximately ten to twelve. The reason is that the chief

problems involved in instruction are presented by the smaller classes and the student is less likely to be distracted or overwhelmed by mere numbers.

The object of this arrangement is properly to grade the difficulties with which the practicing teacher must contend. The ability to handle large numbers can well be acquired after some skill and self-confidence have been developed in the instruction of small classes.

5. The number of children in a grade might well be approximately forty, as in public schools, these being divided into two groups of different advancement.

The training school should be, to a large extent, a duplicate of the public school, so that the more experienced practice teachers may finally meet the same difficulties that they will later meet in schools of their own.

6. The training school should be practically under the control of the normal-school authorities to such an extent that the latter can formulate a curriculum, select text-books, choose and dismiss teachers, determine methods, and in general administer the affairs of the school according to their own best judgment.

Since public schools, and private schools with high tuition, cannot usually meet these conditions, they cannot generally be expected to make the best training schools.

7. The president of a state normal school should have ultimate control of the training school in all particulars, but he may delegate this authority according to later theses here presented.

8. The training school should be under the direct control of a principal. He should—

(*a*) Have general control of the school.

(*b*) Formulate the curriculum after consultation with heads of departments and critic teachers.

(*c*) Determine methods to be followed, also apparatus and books to be used.

(*d*) Supervise the critic teachers and the student teachers.

(*e*) Call together critic teachers, student teachers, or heads of departments in the normal school for consultation.

While the training school involves work in which all members of the faculty should share, responsibility for the curriculum, for method, and for general management must be centered in one person.

9. Heads of departments in the normal school should be supervisors, in fact, of their subjects in the training school as follows:

(*a*) They should propose in writing to the principal the subject-matter for the curriculum in their respective studies.

(*b*) They should propose to the principal what seems to them the leading points in method involved in the presentation of the subject-matter suggested.

(*c*) They should assist the principal in supervising the instruction of critic and student teachers in their special studies, offering suggestions and exchanging ideas freely.

These duties should be performed by the heads of departments for their own good as well as for the good of the training school.

The heads of departments should not be given authority to determine fully the curriculum in their respective studies, because they are likely to overestimate the relative worth of their subjects, and are partially unacquainted with the other requirements that are necessarily made upon the children. But they should be active advisors to the principal as well as to the critic and student teachers; and in case they have serious disagreement with the rulings of the principal, they can, of course, appeal to the president of the normal school.

10. Next to a wholesome personality, the special feature of a critic teacher should be the ability to show particularly the merits, as well as the defects, of instruction, basing the criticism plainly upon accepted principles of teaching.

According to Thesis 2, practice in teaching is capable of ranking as the most valuable course in a normal school. Its worth, however, depends primarily upon the qualities of the regular teacher as a critic. Her power in this direction can be gauged neither by her quality of knowledge nor by her skill as an instructor; it is something separate from both of these. To secure that power a higher training is necessary than is generally found among critic teachers, and consequently an unusually high salary should be paid for it.

11. There should be at least one critic teacher to each grade room.

Unless there is at least one critic to each grade room, much of the student teaching cannot be seen by a critic teacher, so that both the student teachers and the children instructed by them are suffering serious neglect. That condition of affairs is not allowable in a properly equipped training school.

12. This critic teacher should (*a*) instruct her children a considerable portion of the time; at least, no class should be turned over wholly to student teachers; (*b*) criticise, accept, and reject plans for teaching presented by student teachers, taking the final responsibility for the plans followed; (*c*) observe and criticise closely at least *most* of the instruction given to her children by student teachers.

While the principal of the training school, the heads of departments, etc., mark out the curriculum and determine the method to be followed in a large way, a definite responsibility should fall upon the critic teacher herself. She should be fully responsible for carrying out, in detail, the work which these others have suggested; she and the student teacher must be directly responsible for the final plans adopted by the latter.

13. Beside giving daily private criticism to individual student teachers, the critic teacher should unite with others, including a considerable number of students, in an exhaustive discussion of a recitation which all present have witnessed. Such a discussion might take place once every two weeks. Its peculiar objects are: (*a*) to show how many different matters are involved in a twenty- or thirty-minute recitation; (*b*) to show how most of these details are controlled by a few great educational principles.

These objects can be attained, provided (*a*) those present take part freely in the discussion, each stating what impressed him especially; (*b*) a full hour or more be set for this purpose.

The plan of such a recitation should be distributed and carefully examined beforehand by those who are to observe the recitation.

In such a discussion the written plan might first receive careful consideration, without reference to the actual execution. Then the manner of education might be discussed, care being taken to eliminate the new personal criticism that might be unfitted for public presentation.

The daily private criticisms are usually hurried and touch only upon the more salient matters; this occasional detailed criticism, where a considerable number of persons make suggestions, should supplement the daily work.

The written plan might often be discussed before the recitation, rather than after, since in that way the recitation itself would be observed with much more interest and care.

14. Presupposing good and close criticism on the part of the critic teacher, the minimum amount of instruction given by a student teacher should not be less than one recitation period per day for one year.

Teaching is an art that must be learned, and it is so difficult that it requires time. The object of this student teaching is not merely to see whether the practician can teach passably well or not, but rather to take the practician at whatever point of development he may already have reached, and lead him to improve in his instruction.

For example, it requires a good deal of time and practice to accustom teachers to make summaries at the proper time, to review and apply sufficiently the knowledge already acquired, and to rank facts according to their relative worth. If the application of theory were easy, there would need be little student teaching; but since it is recognized as one of the most difficult of tasks, there should be abundant provision for it.

15. No normal school should accept so many students that it cannot give this minimum amount of student teaching. In other words, the size of the training school should be one of the most important factors in limiting the size of a normal school.

Just as the size of a laboratory should limit the number of students in a class in science, so the size of the training school should limit the number allowed to enter a normal school.

16. Some observation work should precede actual instruction on the part of any student teacher.

17. This observation, however, is comparatively worthless, unless it is supervised and discussed with the same care as the actual teaching of a student teacher.

When students know that a strict account must be rendered of all that is observed in a class, and reasons must be given either in favor of or against the steps that are taken, they will observe with far greater accuracy and learn far more about teaching. One of the surest ways of discouraging a prospective teacher and destroying his interest is to require him to observe regularly without the pressure of close supervision.

18. This observation can, perhaps, be best carried on as follows:

(*a*) A considerable number of students can together observe a recitation and take notes carefully, often quoting the exact words of the teacher and pupils, in order really to prove their points later.

(*b*) These notes should later be carefully arranged with the view of passing a well-grounded judgment in detail upon the lesson.

(*c*) Then all should meet together, including the instructor in charge, and exchange and discuss their views.

One lesson per week observed and discussed in this manner is far more valuable than daily observations that are not followed by such discussions.

Accurate notes, suggested under (*a*), are particularly important. Teachers of experience, as well as those lacking experience, often put questions in a form that is very awkward or indefinite; they also repeat the same question. But they are so unconscious of the fact while it is taking place that they scarcely believe that it did take place when afterward assured of it by the critic. In such cases conviction is best established if the critic can reproduce the exact words of the instructor. But aside from this reason, accurate notes allow definite and scientific criticisms in general.

19. The observation suggested in paragraph 17 is a regular course of study, aside from the observations that students may be called upon to make by professors in the normal school who illustrate their theories thru classes of children from the training school. Of course, however, this latter work is highly desirable.

The object of the latter kind of observation is primarily an insight into educational theory; that of the former is to see how that theory is carried into practice. In the former kind the observers are much more critically minded than in the latter, so that, on the whole, the purposes of the two kinds of observation are occasionally different.

20. In making observations according to paragraph 17, it is not necessary to observe expert teaching all of the time.

There are two special reasons for this statement: in the first place, if the instruction observed is given by an inexperienced teacher, friction reveals itself much more easily, so that criticism is easier; in the second place, if the observers know that the teacher is not considered an expert, they are much more likely to criticise the recitation on its merits, pointing out both the strong and weak points freely; but if the instructor happens to be an expert, they feel it presumptuous on their part to attempt to analyze the recitation: they then not only omit mentioning the defects, but even their praise is not specific.

What has thus far been stated is not intended to indicate that there should be little or no observation of expert teaching. There is strong reason for observing such teaching extensively, since it helps greatly to fix an ideal in the student teacher's mind.

21. After a sufficient amount of observation students should be allowed to begin their practice teaching along lines of their greatest strength.

Young teachers are prone to discouragement, being easily overcome by the multitude of new obstacles which they are obliged to encounter; they should, therefore, be allowed to enter upon teaching in the study in which they feel strongest. In this way provision will be made for self-confidence from the beginning; they can later move over to other branches and thus develop a more general confidence.

22. They should be allowed to specialize to some extent in kindergarten work, in primary or grammar grades, but not fully.

Proper instruction of children necessitates a fair comprehension of work which precedes and follows a given period; therefore, students under training for teaching should not be allowed to limit themselves to one grade of work.

23. If possible, the student teacher should have full charge of a room for a few weeks, but usually not until he has somewhat accustomed himself to teaching and has proved his efficiency in some one study.

The plan in general is, therefore, as follows: (1) observation work, (2) practice in teaching in one study, (3) practice in teaching where the instructor is in charge of a room. By this arrangement the difficulties are carefully graded.

24. Until a high degree of independence and skill in planning and conducting recitations has been proved, the written plan of each recitation, after having been accepted by the critic teacher, should lie upon the table in the room during the period of instruction, subject to general inspection.

After a time, when the student teacher has shown that he is conscientious and somewhat skilled, he should certainly be relieved of writing out his plan in full, for that work then involves unnecessary labor.

25. The idea that a training school should be provided with a practice school, and a model school besides, is hardly a feasible one. Aside from the financial difficulties involved, it is probable that a well-conducted practice school will not be inferior to the so-called model school.

There are several reasons for these assertions: (1) The different heads of departments, as supervisors, are likely to be more directly connected with a practice school than with a model school, because the presence of student teachers obliges them to visit the rooms frequently; in a model school the same obligation is not present. (2) The critic teachers, because they are critic teachers, are likely to be much more active-minded than they otherwise would be. They are directly responsible for the acceptance of the plans of student teachers; they must also show the merits and defects of the instruction that has been given, basing their statements upon the principles of teaching; pressure of this kind forces them constantly to think over their work with care. In fact, this kind of work requires the greatest degree of mental activity and forces the critic teachers into frequent discoveries of weakness on their part, and also of new thoughts. (3) A practice school, because it is a practice school, is surrounded by an experimental atmosphere; this, instead of being a defect, is a marked merit. It means that all persons concerned in the school are looking for progressive ideas and practices.

The soundness of these statements is suggested from the fact that the well-conducted training schools in the country are commonly recognized as being superior to the public schools in their neighborhood. Some of the training schools in the state normal schools even charge tuition, and still, in the minds of the public, maintain their superiority over the public schools that are conducted by graduates of the normal school.

It certainly must be admitted that even in a well-conducted training school there will be frequent blundering on the part of student teachers; one may even say, very serious blundering. But when the heads of departments, as supervisors, do their work properly; when the critic teacher examines the plans with care before accepting them, and is present most of the time to offer criticisms, or to take charge of the class if necessary; then the opportunities for serious error are reduced to a minimum. It should be remembered

also that it is not solely in training schools that egregious blundering takes place; much of the worst teaching in the country is found in private schools and in the schools that have little supervision. The fact that there is no practice teaching in certain schools is no proof whatever that radical mistakes in instruction will be wanting. It must be admitted from the start that errors of many kinds creep into every school; and the only way to prevent a good part of them is to provide for a great abundance of supervision and pressure toward good work. This provision is so abundantly made in good training schools that it more than counterbalances the possible evils of practice teaching.

26. In case No. 28 is not accepted, still the training school can and should be a model in the following very important respects:

(*a*) In the construction of the school building.

(*b*) In laboratory facilities.

(*c*) In library facilities.

(*d*) In artistic decoration.

(*e*) In the attention given to the individual pupil from the physical, mental, and moral point of view.

(*f*) In the relation that exists between the teachers and the children.

(*g*) In the relation existing between the teachers and parents.

(*h*) In the curriculum that is adopted.

(*i*) In the plans of recitations.

It should be one object of the training school to present a standard for the public schools in all these respects. Of course, the needs and conditions of public-school work should be taken into consideration, and the training school should adopt a model which seems within the reach of other public schools. In most of these nine points, several of which are radically important, the training school, because it is a practice school, is likely to be superior to other schools.

27. From the above statements it follows that the name *model school*, as applied to the department where students receive practice in teaching, is not entirely a misnomer. Probably, however, *training school* is a better term. But either of these names is preferable to *practice school*. This name does not throw emphasis upon the fact that there are carefully prepared plans and numerous active supervisors. It is usually taken in its lower sense, meaning experimenting, rather than practicing, in the sense that a physician practices medicine. On that account it depreciates the work of student teachers, both in their own eyes and in those of parents and children. There is a good deal in a name, and it is highly desirable that one be chosen that overestimates, to some extent, the quality of work done, rather than one that underestimates it.

As the name *training school* does not seem to have either of these defects, it is recommended as the preferable one.

28. The training school should be the correlating center of any normal school.

(*a*) The curriculum of the training school should directly influence that of the normal school; for example:

(1) Since home geography, including excursions, is required in the training school, there should be such a topic, including excursions, as a part of the normal-school course in geography.

(2) Since the training school requires an abundance of imaginative literature, such as fairy tales, legends, and myths, such literature should constitute an important part of the normal-school course in literature.

(3) If concrete geometry is required in the grades, it should constitute a part of the work in geometry in the normal-school curriculum.

(4) If the arithmetical problems in the grades are to be correlated with other lines of study, so that the content of these problems may be of real worth, the same degree of correlation should be required in the normal-school problems.

(*b*) The method of teaching in the normal school should be essentially the same as that pursued in the training school, since both are founded upon the same general principles.

Of course, there must be differences, but they are differences in non-essentials and devices, and not differences of principles. According to Kant, method is procedure according to principles (*Critique of Pure Reason*, translated by Meiklejohn, p. 516). One may rightly, therefore, speak of the same method being employed in the training school as is employed in the normal. The meaning of this requirement can be illustrated in the following way:

(1) It is a principle of teaching that we reach new knowledge, emotions, and volitions thru related old knowledge, emotions, and volitions. Accordingly, in the instruction of children we take pains to glide thru the old into the new. The same pains should be taken in the normal schools with adult students.

(2) It is another principle of teaching that the learner should be told as little as possible, and be allowed to discover as much as possible, for himself. This, in the training school, leads the teacher to reduce her topics to a conversational basis, so that the children may offer suggestions, present questions, etc. The same principle applied to normal-school work must lead professors to allow the adult students, likewise, to propose and answer many problems.

In other words, if children in the grades, on account of the principle of self-activity, are not expected mainly to reproduce the content of text-books, or listen to lectures, there is little more reason for allowing it in normal-school instruction.

(3) Influenced by the belief that a live interest in studies is the condition under which these studies will have the proper effect upon thought and conduct, the teachers in the training school watch primarily the children's attitude of mind toward their subjects, making the acquisition of knowledge relatively a minor matter. If that belief is a sound one for children, it is just as sound for adults.

(4) If grade teachers should present the concrete before the abstract, under the belief that new generalizations must be reached inductively, the normal-school instructor should do the same thing.

There is another, very different and radically important, argument for the statement that the method of teaching in the normal school shall be essentially the same as that in the training school. In spite of all the theory that we offer to students in regard to the method of teaching, they will always teach largely as they have been taught; that is, even with adults the tendency to imitate is a very marked characteristic, and shows itself very plainly in teaching. If a normal-school professor himself teaches in one way and still expects his students to follow essentially a different way with children, he is likely to be greatly disappointed. The actual method followed by the normal-school professor is concrete, so that it can be seen; that very fact allows it to make a much deeper impression upon a student than the opposing theory which may be presented. One of the very best ways, therefore, for a normal school to secure good teaching from its students is for the faculty itself to impart instruction essentially in the same way in which it hopes to have the students impart it.

(*c*) There should be frequent faculty meetings, whose subjects of discussion should bear close relation to the training school and often spring out of it directly. Lessons should be taught in the presence of the faculty and followed by exhaustive criticism on the part of the faculty.

In other words, the faculty meetings in a normal school should be directed, not merely to executive work, or primarily to that, but to instruction; and since the work of the normal school culminates in the instruction of children, topics directly involved in the instruction of children should be the subjects for frequent faculty discussion.

Only when Thesis 28, with its three divisions, is kept in mind and practiced can the real aim of the entire institution called a normal school be kept in the foreground, and the unity of the school be preserved.

Points (*a*) and (*b*), under Thesis 28, are probably the most important ones in this entire list; and the central thought in them is that the faculty of the normal school should itself practice the things which it wants its students later to put into practice.

29. Since state normal schools are usually situated in cities possessing excellent systems of graded schools, it is recommended that such relations with the city schools be sought as will enable those student teachers who have successfully completed the major part of their training to serve as unpaid assistants under conditions which will render such services mutually profitable.

In establishing these relations, care should be taken that assistants be sent only where such service is deemed desirable by both the city superintendent and the responsible teacher in charge of the room.

Student teachers so appointed should be led to appreciate that such opportunities to make their assistance profitable to the pupils of a regularly organized school furnish at the same time the most valuable experience and the best test of teaching ability.

Student teachers enjoying these opportunities might be expected to serve with or without compensation as temporary substitutes in grades in which they have served as assistants.

GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL VARIATIONS THAT EXIST IN NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

I. *The schools, being provincial, have certain limitations geographically.*—A state normal school in every state where such a school exists is founded on the theory that it is the duty of the state to prepare teachers for the need of the schools of that particular state, and not on the theory that citizens have a right to such preparation as will best fit them for the business of teaching in general. Hence the requirement of signing a contract with the authorities of the state, agreeing to teach for a stated time in the public schools of that state, or at least declaring the intention of preparing to teach in the schools of that state, is almost universal. This custom, commonly enforced by statute, discriminates against professional teachers to an extent unheard of in other vocations. Many of these same states have organized schools for the giving of collegiate education, and also law, medecine, dentistry, pharmacy, engineering, dairying, etc., without any restrictive conditions whatever. The state normal schools alone are thus limited to the state lines for their students; their graduates alone are restricted to a definite field in which to labor by the student contracts thus made to get advantage of the education offered, and by granting them state certificates which have no recognition outside of the state in which they are issued. This condition of affairs exists to such an extent that there is little reciprocity between the states, and the business of teaching is too generally treated as a profession without either standard or basis of recognition except that granted by provincial or state lines.

II. *The course of study of these schools.*—In many of the states the legal requirements for state certificates, as well as statutory acts governing the schools, have a decisive effect upon determining the course of study that the school can grant. These conditions, united with many minor variable factors, which cannot all be enumerated, give great variety to these schools in different parts of the United States. The province of these institutions is governed somewhat by the conditions in the several states. The questions what student is capable of being admitted, what kind of teachers are to be prepared, what extent should be given to the work to be done, are all decided by the individual needs and conditions of the several states. Where rural teachers are in the majority, there the standard is of a low grade; where high schools are numerous, and where the privilege to enter such schools is generous, there high-school graduation is the standard of admission.

The standards also of these schools vary as do their names. In some the tendency is to develop to college grade and give regular college

egrees, or degrees that are different in name, but equivalent in quality. n some the aim is to have the schools purely professional, no regular cademic work being offered as a part of the course of study. In others ıey are secondary schools in fact, with very little professional work or edagogic and practical training; and at times they are of a lower scho- ıstic grade than the secondary schools. The schools which give all the ıstruction, both academic and professional, are in the majority; the urely professional schools are very few, and the purely academic schools re gradually growing fewer from decade to decade.

III. *Recognition given graduates from state normal schools in their own 'ates.*—There is very large variation as to state practice in recognizing ıe work done at these schools. The conditions imposed to obtain state ertificates, and the encouragement accorded to those who become pro- ssionally educated to enter the business of teaching, are as follows: (1) n some states the diploma of the school is authority to teach in that ate. (2) In some states a board of examiners, outside of the authority ı control of the management of the normal schools, has the power of eciding who can graduate from said schools and who can hold state cer- ficates. (3) In some states the diploma of the school is not conferred ntil the person who has completed the course has taught successfully two r more years after graduation, when it carries the authority as a state ertificate to teach in said state. (4) In some states the graduates are xamined by the common authority to issue the local certificates author- ed by law, and there are no state certificates. (5) In some states the ate superintendent has the authority to countersign such state normal iplomas as he is satisfied are held by competent and successful teachers, hich makes them state certificates. (6) In some states the students raduate from the schools on the authority of the management of the hools, but the right to a state certificate is decided by another board ıtirely outside of the school, which may grant such graduates certificates cording to law, if such seems desirable and, at the same time, regardful f the public good.

IV. *Training schools, practice schools, model schools.*—There is also uch variation regarding the province of a well-organized school of chil- ren as a part of the normal school. In name they are also variable. hey are called training schools, practice schools, model schools, accord- ıg as the interest and purpose of these schools differ. Some schools gard this part of the instruction and training as the most promi- ent part of the course of study and of work, giving not only practice ı actual training, but also instruction in special methods by this agency. *very* few do not regard the practice of teaching as either a positive elp or a safe and certain means in the training of a teacher. They nsider the candidate being trained as so hampered by theory and by ose, critical supervision that he is deprived of spontaneity and essential

freedom. Some give great credit to the value of observation as a help to training, while others do not consider it as a factor of sufficient importance to justify the large expenditure of time generally given.

As regards the length of time considered necessary to devote to practice teaching, the variation is all the way from two years to two terms, while some do not think a definite length of time so important as that the proposed teacher should be required to satisfy the training department as to skill in the same degree that he satisfies other departments of the school.

V. *Types of normal schools in the United States according to geographical location.*—A careful study of all the different characteristics of state normal schools found in the United States will determine the fact that each section of the union has its own peculiarities of type and development, as the needs and the circumstances of the different parts of the republic require. Only the broadest differentiation can be emphasized here, but a study of these will prepare the investigator to make easily the differentiations which exist between states, and even in some instances between different localities of the same state.

1. *The New England state normal school.*— This type of school is most fully developed in Massachusetts, where the work deals with students who are high-school graduates from a good four-years' course. It admits none except actual teachers, or those intending to be teachers. The actual teachers are granted special privileges because of their experience, but they are not the larger number who graduate from the school and go out as its representatives. The minimum academic requirements for graduation are English and literature, mathematics, science, and history; the subjects of the course not being very largely beyond the good high-school courses, but the teaching of the subjects being much more thoro and from a different standpoint than in the secondary school, and being regarded as professional. Music, drawing, elementary science, physical training, literature, and history suitable for children receive much attention in the preparation of the teacher for the work expected. The pedagogical work consists of psychology, pedagogy, and history of education, each course covering a year of study. Most of these schools have courses of two or three years, in which the definite limit of time attendance required in all cases is an individual question. It is asserted unanimously that the function of the normal school is not to do distinctively academic work. The other states of this section do not reach this standard of entrance or graduation, but they regard this condition as desirable of early attainment.

2. *The southern state normal school.*— There are two phases to the southern normal school: one which is planned for white students, modeled, as far as possible, on the best lines, scholastic and professional; and one which is planned for colored students, where elementary professional training is combined with special industrial instruction. In the

first the problems are much like the problems of the normal schools of other parts of the union. In the second the problems are distinctly special and local, and have in mind many more interests and economic needs than simply the preparation of teachers to teach the ordinary school alone, as it is the theory that these industrially trained colored normal graduates have a larger and more fundamental mission than simply the scholastic instruction commonly considered as the province of the elementary school. They are to give a special trend to the industrial activities of the people among whom they labor, and are to become leaders in all progress, intellectual and economic.

3. *The middle states normal school.* — These states have special characteristics as regards the organization and conduct of their schools. Most of the schools in this region are managed by joint local and state authority — the local predominating as regards numbers of trustees and business management.

In Pennsylvania all of the thirteen schools maintain preparatory classes below the entrance requirements of the several two-, three-, and four-year professional courses of study. In addition, they maintain commercial and other academic studies, but the state contributes only to the support of the professional student, the other students paying their entire expenses.

In the state of New York the admission of students is limited to persons recommended by the school commissioners. In New Jersey admission to its one normal school is obtained by passing a satisfactory examination at the school, and none but professional students are received. The fact is that each state has solved the problem according to its own individual needs, and without much attention to future development or demands. In New York there is one state normal school of a high grade located at Albany; the others are of the common standard which generally prevails thruout the country. There is a tendency in the middle states to accept this plan as the best for future adoption: one school of high grade and many schools with a standard of admission as high as the condition of the elementary education of applicants will permit. In Maryland and New Jersey, where but one normal school is maintained in each state, the authorities require such a standard that they secure the preparation of the teachers who occupy the best-paid positions. The larger the salary obtainable, the better the candidate will prepare for his vocation, and the more is he drawn away from the rural schools, whose salaries are not sufficient to induce one to go into the business as a permanent calling.

The system of payment on enrollment, or even on results, makes the reputation or the income or the success of the school depend upon the number of students enrolled or the number passing the examinations. This produces a temptation to lower the requirements for entrance, and also for graduation, to the minimum that will be acceptable or permissible.

This condition does not necessarily exist to so large an extent where a school has a fixed income from state revenues or annual appropriations.

4. *The Mississippi valley normal school.* — In this section of the union the normal schools had their origin principally thru legislative action, the same as universities and agricultural colleges, except that in most cases they have had no advantages of land grants or special permanent endowments, as the higher educational institutions have had. These normal schools are, however, a part of the educational system of the states in which they are located, and are not dependent upon local support, local financial aid, or local management. Their students are of three kinds: (*a*) graduates of good high schools; (*b*) practical teachers already possessed of county teachers' certificates and of considerable experience as teachers in rural schools; (*c*) such persons as can pass an examination and are of prescribed age. None but professional students are received, and hence their enrollments mean much more to the teacher supply than it would in states where academic and commercial students are enumerated as attending the normal schools. These schools are generally recognized by the state universities as fitting schools, with the right to have their graduates admitted to advanced standing, the usual custom being to grant junior-class standing to normal-school graduates of the standard four-year course commonly offered. This has had the effect of benefiting both the normal schools and the universities, and of placing in the schools as superintendents and high-school teachers a large number of competent educators who are graduates of both the normal school and the university. The tendency in this region is to have one large and strong school of a high grade, approximating to a college for teachers, and a number of schools of lower grade to prepare teachers for the more elementary grades of public schools. In most of the states this tendency has not yet assumed actual form, but there is gradually growing a sentiment in favor of this kind of an organization. The attendance at these schools is in most cases very large; and, as a consequence, they are gradually coming to a plan which offers all the work of the several terms of the several courses each term of the school year, thus allowing individual students to graduate at the close of any term of the school year. There is also a decided movement to open the schools for a summer term, making practically a continuous session of the school. This is due to the great need of better-educated teachers. There is no kind of schools in this region so rapidly developing, or so cordially supported, as the state normal schools. The chief problem of all these states is elementary education. The conditions compel the normal schools to meet the public demand rather than exploit theory, and it is a large work to undertake to unify the various nationalities into one people with the English language, and at the same time unite them in interest, sympathy, and labor for the common good of the common country. The normal schools, therefore,

seek to meet a known positive demand, and are thereby wielding a mighty influence in shaping public sentiment and educational practice.

The academic requirements of these schools are quite uniform, excepting the college grade school where already established. A four-year course of study beyond the county superintendent's license standard is the common course offered. This course usually allows some choice to the student, in which language, science, or history has minimum and maximum limits, permitting the individual student to have some preference according to his taste and special capability, but at the same time insisting upon enough uniformity to assume that either one of the lines elected is a satisfacfory preparation for a public-school teacher. The practice school is a department essential to proper normal training. The method of using this part of the prescribed course greatly varies. Where the need of scholarship is the chief public demand, there practice is at a minimum ; where the demand is strong for the critically trained teacher, there practice is at a maximum. The coming plan, therefore, promises to require no actually definite amount as to time of either observation or practice, but that each student being trained shall satisfy the department of practice the same as he now does the other departments of the school.

The majority of these schools believe that, to secure the kind of academic instruction which their students need as to thoroness and extent in the branches to be taught, the function of the normal school, while professional in the main, will always continue to give academic instruction, despite the theory, so frequently advanced, that this academic work ought to be relegated to other educational agencies. It should be borne in mind that the academic instruction here mentioned is from the teacher's standpoint, which renders it a different kind of work from that given in other kinds of schools.

5. *The Pacific slope normal school.* — The normal schools of this section do not need to furnish all the teachers required by their elementary schools, since many reasons have led to a large teacher population, well-educated and professionally trained, coming from other states. This condition of population has enabled these schools, in even the younger states, to set a higher standard for entrance than has been possible in other states of the union. The general opinion, therefore, prevails here that a full high-school education should be the minimum standard of entrance. In addition, many of these schools do not undertake to prepare teachers for any work beyond primary and grammar grades, as the limits placed upon the certificates of authority granted as teachers to their graduates forbid their teaching in higher grades, an additional college-standard examination being required to enable one to teach in high-school grades. This has the effect of keeping the course of study within the essential limits, and also enables more attention to be given to special lines and to training in the practice school than is common in

other regions of the union. The welcome granted in these states to graduates of normal schools from the other states and from Canada, as shown by the courtesy quite generally conceded to them by accepting their diplomas as evidence of ability to teach and authorizing them to teach anywhere in elementary grades, has induced thousands of teachers of high-grade preparation to make their home here, thus giving this region, in fact, an excellent corps of teachers.

Conclusion. — All these observations lead to the conclusion that there has been constant progress in the three-quarters of a century the state normal schools have existed. That progress has been both experimental and evolutionary. The changes that have come to the possibilities and needs have always found the normal school ready to adapt itself to the new conditions. The normal school has been so near the public thought all this time that it is more nearly today an actual exponent of public sentiment than any other public institution of equivalent magnitude. It is specially sensitive to public demand, and sincerely endeavors to do for the people what is assumed to be essential to prepare teachers for the public schools. This accounts for much of the variation that is known to exist at present, and it is evident that, with a better knowledge of what has been accomplished in the different states in the preparation of teachers, and what ideals prevail in producing the different characteristics of strength and successful results now known to be attained, there will be found more satisfactory and uniform results, more sympathetic relation among the workers in this great field of labor, and a loftier conception of what the American teacher must become to fill the place of destiny conferred by democracy and Christianity.

THE INNER LIFE OF A NORMAL SCHOOL

The establishment and organization of a normal school has a definite design — that of preparing teachers for public-school work. To meet this designed purpose certain kinds of work are naturally undertaken. These lines are definitely determined, and plans are arranged to accomplish the purpose with certainty and with efficiency. The plans of the board of trustees, the legislation of the faculty, the class work required, the course of study arranged, are all designed influences that have constantly in view the end to be reached.

But there are other influences in the school that must not be left out of the reckoning in developing and training a teacher for public work, as they are among the most powerful agents in bringing out the character, in testing strength, and in measuring the manly gifts, original and acquired, that betoken leadership and promise in the active life beyond the school days. While not underestimating the efforts of board and faculty

in bringing to bear upon the student body these designed personal influences, it is certainly not necessary to forget what the students do for themselves socially, personally, intellectually, and morally, thru the inner life of the institution.

1. *Intellectual life and culture.* — Under proper management and care the literary life of the institution can be much elevated and encouraged by the students thru self-help and self-dependence, as exhibited thru the literary societies. If there are good reasons why students of colleges and other schools should be encouraged to organize and maintain literary societies, there are yet many more important reasons why student teachers should enjoy and use this privilege. Teachers should be trained to write and speak. They should be at home on the page of the periodical and on the platform. They should not only have ideas and theories, but they should acquire the power to impress them upon others. In no way can public educational interest be advanced and public opinion better established than thru a proper use of the press and the platform. These literary societies should control their own internal affairs, they should do more to develop their members than to entertain audiences, and they should have great encouragement from faculties and boards of trustees, as after-years will demonstrate the fact that no work at the school gave a student better command of himself than active membership in the literary society.

2. *Religious life and culture.* — In recent years there has been great development in the social and religious organizations of young men and women of America. In the school life of normal schools there is probably collected a larger percentage of serious-minded, thoughtful, earnest people than in any other kind of an educational institution. The majority of them have a definite purpose, and are prepared to do very much for each other socially, morally, and religiously. Wherever the student organizations known as Young Men's Christian Associations and Young Women's Christian Associations are encouraged and authorized to exist, there great benefit has always come to the moral and religious life of the general student body. These associations conduct social meetings that are of marked benefit in developing the social spirit and nature of the whole student body. They provide for religious meetings, such as public service or Sunday prayer-meetings, Sunday schools, missionary circles, pledged Bible-study classes, systematically conducted, lectures on social and religious subjects, that have a decided influence in giving a chance for the exercise of the religious and spiritual nature of all interested.

They also have a positively good effect upon the government of the school. Where they are given reasonable freedom and co-operation, they will be able to prevent nearly all the cases of discipline that would arise, as they seek ways and means as organizations to reach all students whose personal and social life does not conform with the high standard assumed for a teacher.

3. *Social life and culture.*— It is a well-known fact that many persons who decide to give their lives to educational work are deficient in a personal knowledge of social courtesies, and have no experience in the practice of such amenities as must have much to do with their careers as men and women of power and efficiency. At the normal school this work of regeneration and reform must be accomplished, if the life to be consecrated to the profession is to receive the recognition its natural gifts merit. The members of the faculty can do something to meet this need, but the students themselves, thru the advanced classes, must carry on a work that means as much in the education of a teacher as any other exercises regularly designed and organized. This work can be kept in the foreground by certain friendly conversational lectures given by members of the faculty and other well-informed persons on these problems of social life and culture. These lectures should be given to the sexes separately, the subjects being selected by the students themselves and the discussion to follow being more in the form of an inquiry than a quiz. By this means cultivated ladies and gentlemen can give presentation of these topics in such a manner that remarkable effects are noticeable. Then these advanced students can easily maintain a kind of social life in the boarding-houses by their example and their instruction, so that great things are accomplished without much labor. It is better to leave the management of such things to the students, as it will always be received with more favor, and will accomplish more with less work, than when supported and directed by the faculty. To accomplish these effects, and to reach the broader opportunity for the extension of this culture, the speakers and the conductors of these meetings should be men and women of special gifts and training thru experience in social life, without regard to membership in the faculty. In fact, the outside speaker will frequently be more effective in creating interest and producing results than persons intimately acquainted with the students, as members of the faculty are.

4. *The spirit of the school.*—Among those influences that count for most in the development of the individual is the spirit of the school in which he is a member. This spirit has decided effect upon the student, according as it stands for excellence in scholarship, high-minded purpose, and strength of character. It creates a public opinion in the student body that practically determines the conduct and tendency of individual life and decides the ideals that are assumed as foremost in student careers. The so-called college spirit that is noted by yells and confusion and organized enthusiasm, and that frequently contributes to disorder and to lawlessness, is not the student spirit needed at a normal school. Teachers who are to become administrators of work and managers of children need a training in self-government and self-control that the so-called school spirit common in America would depreciate and destroy. To this end the spirit of normal-school life should be of that law-abiding,

authority-supporting, quiet-preserving kind which makes the students representatives of what is best in public and social life.

There is also a tendency in modern education, thru athletic contests, oratorical contests, debating contests, etc., that cannot be omitted from present attention in this report. These organizations, while excellent agencies of themselves in developing the power, the skill, and the spirit of student life, are very frequently allowed also to develop a disposition to scheme, to deceive, and to practice fraud. Further than this, a spirit of gambling on possible results has begun to be marked to such a degree that the best possible results to student life are often greatly depreciated. The ambition to win at all hazards, and by any method, without regard for merit, honesty, or candor, is greatly to be deplored as an evil tendency of the times. The spirit of the true normal school must always be free from such types of student character and aim, as such influences degenerate individual character and debase conscience — essential elements in a teacher. Hence normal schools, in order to be able fully to reach the end and object of their founding, must continually be preserved from these vices of school spirit wrongly directed and falsely assumed and interpreted, however much they may be popularized in recent educational thought and practice.

In the creation of this ideal spirit the influence of the president and faculty may be decided in effect, but, after all, the main characteristics of this element in human training must depend upon the public sentiment of the students. They should never be able to get away from the thought that teachers, servants of a critical public, should stand as models in character, purpose, and ideals for those types of ambition, application, and manhood which are essential to the improvement and proper development of American citizenship.

NORMAL-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The management of a state normal school is governed by the legislation of its board of trustees, which is authorized by law to make such regulations as the work and the needs of the institution require. The successful administration of such an organization depends upon the proper defining of the exact province of each individual officer whose authority and power interfere with the conduct of the work. It takes considerate discretion in the management to so divide the responsibility that each officer becomes a useful and co-operative member of the administrative body, and has also the opportunity to employ his influence, authority, and ability to such an extent as to make his services economical as to effort and efficient as to results. To this end it is deemed expedient and essential to define the chief executive departments of the school administration

whose harmonious co-operation is necessarily essential to the proper conduct of the school.

I. *The board of trustees.*—At the original organization of the school the official province of the board of trustees includes all the power that is to be permanently assumed by it or temporarily delegated to others. Prudent management on its part will insure that it will delegate everything that is possible to the president and the faculty, without surrendering its responsibility conferred by law. The real function of the board of trustees is to give specific, authoritative attention to the financial and business management, so as to prevent undue extravagance or unnecessary loss and general supervisory attention to all professional management, the original conduct of which has been properly conferred upon the president and the faculty. It is the function of the board of trustees to know the plans of the internal management, and to comprehend the aims and principles involved, so that it can be helpful in advancing the interests by moral support and sympathy; but the power to be exercised should be one of investigation, discussion, and suggestion, rather than one of construction, definition, and decision. A faculty is greatly hampered when the board of trustees does not delegate the entire professional management to the wisdom and discretion of those that have been selected as experts and administrators, as it is not able to use its experience or its judgment in directing the internal affairs of the school.

The most important duty of the board of trustees is the selection of a president. He should be so qualified personally as to character, experience in the work, and breadth of view as to the problems involved that the next duty of the board is to give him cordial support and hearty co-operation in his arduous executive duties. He should, therefore, hold the official relation to the board of chief executive officer, being its professional advisor and director in all that pertains to the development and the internal management of the work in progress. To this end the president should be required to attend all board meetings and have a seat in the board, with the privilege of the discussion of all problems under consideration.

II. *The president.*—The success of the administrative work of the school depends very largely upon the executive ability and fairness of the president. He should be a man of such judicial mind that he is capable of seeing consequences of policies and results of action, and deems this his chief function, rather than the supervision of details and the policies and plans of department work. He should be specially notable for his ability to eliminate personal prejudice from his official duties, and thus possess the ability to secure the hearty co-operation of associates thru sympathetic helpfulness and sensible advice. His ability to manage and direct others, without belittling their province of usefulness or arousing their opposition, is a magic power of vital importance. His relations with the

board of trustees, faculty, and students should be such as to give him the maximum of influence with the minimum of personal attention or effort, while the spirit of fairness and consideration that is about his every day's work should win confidence, inspire sympathy, and insure real co-operation in everything important or essential.

He should be granted the authority, as chief executive officer, to select and nominate all members of the faculty, subject to the approval of the board of trustees. His chief aim should be to choose persons of such capability that their becoming members of the faculty would lighten, rather than increase, the burdens of administration, as they should be competent to show such discretion and prudence in the management of their part of the assigned work that their superiors in office are thereby relieved and rendered capable of a broader and more positive service.

He should occupy such official relations to all departments of the school that he may thereby be able to secure harmony in the entire administration in all essential respects, and have progress and development as the fruits of effort. His supervision should be authoritative, yet general, but so generous-spirited and so naturally helpful that all realize that they are benefited by consultation and co-operation.

He must be willing to assume the official responsibility for the conduct of the work in all important particulars, and also be willing to share the credit for the success secured with his associates who have been his faithful colaborers. He should be worthy to be fully depended upon as to policies and procedure, even where there are reasons for difference of opinion as regards the work in progress. Good executive management always produces harmony, not discord; confidence, not distrust; unity of effort, not uncertainty of purpose. It secures the best endeavors without urgency or argument, preserves unanimity without seeming externally to emphasize it, establishes a lasting sympathy between student and faculty by true diplomacy, and emphasizes the best things thru a practical exposition of them in the daily conduct of affairs.

Leadership in such a field exacts: (1) the unusual in personality, capability, power, and character; (2) ability to do work with readiness and thoroness; (3) reliability in all transactions which touch the individual rights of all concerned; (4) diplomacy in manner, language, and method, so as to secure what is needed without hostility or opposition; and (5) a spirit of helpfulness and sincerity that insures growth and inspires confidence in the coworkers.

III. *The faculty.*

1. The faculty must be a unit in all administrative affairs, so that the work done may not be disintegrated by diversity of spirit or of action.

2. Each member of the faculty should have his definite part of the work, so that he shall share in the responsibility according to his experience and ability, and thus render the management as easy and successful as possible.

3. To simplify the general management, all department business should be transacted with the members in charge of said department, subject only to the general regulations adopted by the faculty, and to such necessary modifications as the president may be occasionally compelled to make in adjusting individual cases.

4. To further simplify and render possible the reasonable dispatch of executive business, the faculty should be subdivided by the president into certain standing committees with certain definite powers, said committees to be allowed to remain in organization as nearly permanently as possible from year to year, and thus be intrusted to manage at discretion the assigned business, subject to such instructions in general as the faculty may decide upon, and to such modifications by the president in individual cases as may in his judgment be fair, just, and reasonable to protect all interests.

5. General faculty meetings for the purpose of transacting the regular business of the school in committee of the whole, except in matters of general interest, are not conducive to securing the best interests of the school, waste the time in minor and unimportant matters, and use energy and time that could be more profitably employed in the actual improvement of the school.

6. It is profitable to have faculty meetings at regular stated intervals, at which time the fundamental problems of normal schools and the best methods of conducting the work in hand, as well as the real objects and aims of teacher-training, should be freely discussed and thoroly examined. Such meetings harmonize interests, provoke sympathy, and awaken a genuine spirit of emulation and of desire for improvement.

7. To enable the members of the faculty to do the kind and character of work needed, as well as to insure in them the best possible attitude toward the work, the maximum amount of class-room work required should not exceed twenty class hours per week, and it would be much better for all interests concerned if the maximum amount was placed at fifteen class hours per week. The overworking of teachers, as is common in normal schools, on the theory that the more hours required in the class-room, the more economical the management, is contrary to business judgment or common sense, and always depreciates the character of the work where practiced. There are many other duties that each teacher owes his students and his work besides hearing class recitations, and not until this is recognized and the teacher allowed to be more of a personal and social factor in a school is more than half of the necessary work that ought to be done for the student actually accomplished.

IV. *The student.*

1. The student has his share of the responsibility in assisting to make the administrative work as successful as possible, for thereby he is much

more able to get out of the school and the teachers the training and instruction which he needs.

2. To the student body can be left many things that frequently are transacted by the faculty, the president, and the board. Students who are to become administrators and executives themselves must begin to practice in the school they attend the tenets of self-government and direction.

3. The student body can co-operate with the faculty in developing a better spirit in the school — that spirit which is essential to growth, to development, and to progress; and the aim should be to encourage this self-reliance, independence, and also co-operation which is so essential when they leave the school and undertake public work.

4. The students need to be so treated that they realize that their judgment amounts to something. They can be of large social, moral, and religious benefit to each other. They can become of such importance that they know they are responsible for the tone, the tendency, and the ideals of the life of the school; and thus they occupy a province which, as individuals, insures them the preparation so necessary to the real development they should individually have.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

The nineteenth century will be known as the period in which all civilized nations began to attack in earnest the problem of banishing illiteracy and making ignorance impossible. The establishment of schools by the state emphasized, as never before, the need of trained teachers to instruct the young. This need led to the creation of schools for the training of teachers.

The preparation of teachers for the elementary schools has everywhere been regarded as the special function of the state normal schools, altho, where the means were at hand, very excellent work has also been done in the preparation of teachers for high schools and academies. Some states have made provision for a general system of normal schools; others have centered their efforts upon one large institution. The latter plan has made it easier to adopt a satisfactory standard of admission, but, from the nature of the case, it has failed to supply teachers in sufficient numbers for all the rural schools. The states with a system of normal schools have thus far not succeeded in furnishing an adequate supply of teachers trained at normal schools. New York has gone farthest in the direction of requiring candidates to avail themselves of professional training.

Chapter 1031, Laws of 1895, contains an act to encourage and to promote the professional training of teachers which deserves to be quoted

in full as showing the advanced ground taken by the legislature of that state:

Section 1. The board of education or the public-school authorities of any city, except the city of New York, or any village employing a superintendent of schools, may establish, maintain, direct, and control one or more schools or classes for the professional instruction and training of teachers in the principles of education and in the method of instruction for not less than thirty-eight weeks in each school year.

Sec. 2. Toward the maintenance and support of these schools and classes established pursuant to this act, or heretofore established and maintained for similar purposes, and whose requirements for admission and whose course of studies are made with the approval of the state superintendent of public instruction, and under whose direction such classes shall be conducted, the said superintendent is hereby authorized and directed in each year to set apart, to apportion, and pay from the free school fund one dollar for each week of instruction of each pupil, provided, however, that said apportionment and payment shall not exceed in the aggregate one hundred thousand dollars in each year. Such apportionment and payment shall be made upon the report of the local superintendent of schools filed with the state superintendent of public instruction, who shall draw his warrant upon the state treasurer for the amount apportioned.

Sec. 3. If the total sum to be apportioned and to be paid, as provided by section two of this act, shall in any year exceed the said sum of one hundred thousand dollars, the said state superintendent of public instruction shall apportion to each school and class its *pro rata* of said sum, upon the basis prescribed in section two of this act.

Sec. 4. After January first, eighteen hundred and ninety-seven, no person shall be employed or licensed to teach in the primary or grammar schools of any city authorized by law to employ a superintendent of schools, who has not had successful experience in teaching for at least three years, or, in lieu thereof, has not completed a three-years' course in, and graduated from, a high school or academy having a course of study of not less than three years, approved by the state superintendent of public instruction, or from some institution of learning of equal or higher rank, approved by the same authority, and who, subsequently to such graduation, has not graduated from a school or class for the professional training of teachers, having a course of study of not less than thirty-eight weeks, approved by the state superintendent of public instruction. Nothing in this act shall be construed to restrict any board of education of any city from requiring such additional qualifications of teachers as said board may determine; nor shall the provisions of this act preclude the board of education of any city or village from accepting the diploma of any state normal and training school of the state of New York, or a state certificate obtained on examination as an equivalent for the preparation of scholarship and professional training herein required.

In 1897 the law was amended so as to remove the phrase, "except the city of New York."

CONTROL AND MAINTENANCE

With reference to the control and maintenance of the state normal schools the following conclusions have been reached:

1. That, as a rule, the external affairs of the state normal schools are under the control and management of a board of trustees, usually appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate.

2. That there is a general unanimity among state superintendents and presidents of the normal schools that the plan is good.

3. That, in addition to the external control of affairs, the trustees select the teachers and delegate to the faculty or its head the powers that must be exercised by those having the internal control.

4. That usually the wishes of the president are consulted in the selection of his colleagues. If this right is not accorded to him, either tacitly or by statute, there is constant danger of discord and friction in the faculty.

5. That, to increase the efficiency of control and management, more money, less politics, limitation of the power of local trustees, the vesting of greater power in the head of the faculty, and the raising of the standard of admission, are necessary.

DETAILS OF CONTROL

The following particulars relating to the control of normal schools have been obtained by correspondence with leading educators in the several states, and may be regarded as typical of the state normal school systems in the United States. The exact language of the person giving the information has been used as far as possible.

In California each state school has a local board of five members, appointed by the governor. There is also a joint board, composed of the presidents of the several normal schools, the presidents of the boards, and two elective members from each board. This joint board formulates the courses of study, altho much freedom is left to the management of each school. The local board directs the expenditure of money for its school. Appropriations are made for each school separately.

The State Normal School of Colorado is controlled by a board of seven trustees; six are appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate. Every two years he appoints two. The state superintendent is a member of the board *ex officio*. These trustees have entire control of the school under the law. The law does not limit them in any way.

There are at present four normal schools in Illinois, two of which are in operation. Each school has its own board. A fifth school was provided for at the last session of the general assembly, and it will have its own board. All authority in the management of the institution is put into the hands of their boards. Each institution gets a biennial appropriation from the general assembly.

The members of the board of regents of the State Normal School at Emporia, Kan., are appointed by the governor, subject to the approval of the state senate. They hold office for four years, one-half of the board being appointed every two years. They formulate courses of study, elect teachers, and fix their salaries. The last biennium, however, the legislature took it in hand to fix salaries, but the plan was abandoned by the legislature making appropriations for the coming two years.

The Maryland State Normal School (there is but one) is governed and controlled by the state board of education, whose members are *ex officio* the trustees of the school. Said board formulates the courses of study (usually great respect is paid to the recommendation of the principal, who is a member of the board). The board appoints all the teachers, and also directs how the annual revenues are expended. The principal is the secretary and treasurer of the board.

In Massachusetts "the general management of the several state normal schools shall be vested in the board of education, and moneys appropriated for their maintenance may be expended under its direction" (chap. 41, p. 12, Public Statutes). "The boarding-houses of the state normal schools shall be under the general management of the state board of education" (*ibid.*, chap. 384, 1891). The board has entire control of the state normal schools.

The normal schools of Minnesota are governed and controlled by a special board of nine members, of which the secretary is the state superintendent of public instruction. This board formulates the course of study, appoints the teachers, and directs how the annual revenues are to be expended. Four members of this board reside in the several cities where the normal schools are located, and these resident directors, together with the presidents of the schools, manage the several schools, subject to the general directions of the normal board. The nomination of teachers is in the hands of the presidents of the schools.

The normal schools of the state of Missouri are governed by boards of regents, holding office each for six years, appointed by the governor and approved by the senate. There are three state normal schools, and each has its board of regents. The course of study, appointment of teachers, direction of the annual revenue, are wholly in the hands of these respective boards of regents. The state board of education is merely nominal. The state superintendent of education is a member, *ex officio*, of each of these boards, with power to vote.

The law creating the State Normal School of Nebraska (there is but one up to this date) created a board of education for its control and management. This board of education is composed of seven persons—two of them members *ex officio*, and the other five appointed by the governor. The two are the superintendent of public instruction for the state and the state treasurer. The five are appointed by the governor—one each year for five years.

The faculty formulates the courses of study, and the same is submitted to the board of education. The board of education appoints the teachers. The manner in which the appropriations are spent is left, very largely, to the president, under the general direction of the board.

The governor of New Jersey appoints the state board of education, which consists of sixteen men, two from each congressional district,

representing two different political parties. This board of education governs the state normal school.

The normal schools of New York state are governed and controlled by a local board of trustees, who are appointed by the state superintendent of public instruction and hold their positions for life, unless they resign or are removed for cause by the joint action of the state superintendent and the chancellor of the university.

These boards have local supervision of the schools, subject to the direction and approval of the state superintendent. They select and nominate teachers subject to his approval, and he fixes the salary.

The revenues, which are appropriations from state funds by the legislature, and receipts from tuition in certain departments of the schools, are expended by the local boards, subject to the approval of the state superintendent.

At the end of each school year the local boards make a detailed report of all receipts and expenditures to the legislature thru the state superintendent. This report is made directly to him, and he incorporates it into his annual report to the legislature.

The normal-school policy of Pennsylvania is in many respects unique. By law a school must have a faculty of six professors, accommodations for three hundred boarders, and a chapel seating a thousand adults, before it can be recognized as a state normal school. On applying for recognition the school is inspected by a committee appointed by the state superintendent, and if the requirements of the law have been fulfilled, the school is officially recognized, and legislative appropriations are made, partly to assist the students in paying their tuition, and partly to complete the equipment or liquidate any indebtedness which may be resting upon the buildings. The law places the business management in the hands of a board of trustees of eighteen citizens, six of whom are appointed by the state superintendent for a period of three years (two each year), and twelve are elected by the contributors for a term of three years (four each year). The quarrels and lawsuits which have grown out of these elections show conclusively that the plan should be rejected by new states in organizing a system of state normal schools.

The courses of study are fixed by the convention of normal-school principals, and are subject to approval by the state superintendent. In order to graduate the students must pass a final examination before a board appointed (for each school) by the state superintendent, consisting of himself or deputy, two normal-school principals, of whom the principal where the students are to be examined shall be one, and not less than two nor more than six county, city, boro, or township superintendents of schools.

The rates of boarding and tuition are subject to the approval of the state superintendent, but he has no voice in the appointment or selection of members of the faculty or in the fixing of their salaries.

There is but one normal school in Rhode Island. It is governed by a board of trustees. Its functions are separate from those of the board of education, altho the membership is nearly identical. The course of study and practice is recommended by the principal and indorsed by the board. The committee on qualifications and the board of trustees appoint principal and teachers. In practice the principal is consulted.

The revenues are expended thru the board, the auditor approving the accounts. Practically, however, there is much freedom of action for the principal.

All the state educational institutions in South Dakota are governed and controlled immediately by a board of regents of education, created and empowered by the state constitution. They have all the usual powers of such boards in any state. They have the same control over the normal schools that they have over the State University, Agricultural College, and the School of Mines.

This board of regents of education formulates the course of study upon the recommendation of the faculty or president, tho this recommendation is not required; appoints all teachers and officers or employees, and fixes their salaries; directs the expenditure of all revenues from whatever source — state appropriations, endowment land fund, and "local fund." The latter is from tuition, dormitory fees, etc.

The board is directed in its duty by statute, tho the general powers are "legislated" in the constitution.

The board now consists of five members only, but may by law be increased to nine. There are five educational institutions — two normal schools. The board appoints a committee for each. The chairman of this committee is granted limited powers, and may authorize special minor expenditures. The whole board meets two or three times a year at each institution, and oftener when important building operations are in progress.

The board grants all degrees and diplomas, upon the recommendation of the faculties.

The state treasurer holds all money, and the accounts are audited by the regents, and then by the state auditor, and paid by his warrant.

The seven normal schools of Wisconsin are controlled by a board of ten regents. The board of regents is supposed to formulate the course of study and appoint the teachers, altho these two functions of the board are administered by the presidents of the schools as a matter of fact. The board, however, determines how the annual revenues are to be expended.

MAINTENANCE OF STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

The manner of supporting the faculty of a state normal school is a matter of prime importance. If the schools are dependent upon an annual or biennial appropriation, there is more or less danger of shipwreck, as

often as a so-called reform wave sweeps over the state. This crisis, in the history of the state normal schools of New York, was met by the heroic rally of friends who temporarily supplied the means for carrying forward the instruction during the interim. The Pennsylvania system, by which each student pays tuition, lifts the schools somewhat above the whim and caprices of political combinations, but it is hard upon those who prepare for teaching. By reason of a large attendance and careful management some of these schools have shown a tempting cash balance in the treasury at the end of the year. This has never been distributed as dividend among the so-called stockholders, but has always been put back into the school in the shape of improvements, sometimes in the purchase of additional ground or in the erection of additional buildings. The plan of requiring the students to aid in the erection of buildings can only be excused on the ground of imperative necessity, and is only less deserving of criticism than the policy of the private normal schools whose owners have grown rich on the fees paid by those who are to be educated as teachers.

The necessity for these state normal schools is so generally acknowledged that for a number of years the legislatures of the various states have been quite liberal in their appropriations. An inquiry has elicited the following interesting statistics:

Alabama has eight state institutions (three for colored and five for white), furnishing technical education to more than four thousand students, at a cost annually to the state of about $49,000. The sum of $164,285 was expended for the maintenance of these schools. The Fifty-fifth Congress of the United States passed a bill granting 25,000 acres of land each to the Tuskegee and Montevallo schools.

Arizona has one normal school in operation. It is supported entirely by a territorial tax, which amounts to about $10,000 per year, and has amounted to about that sum during each of the past five years.

Arkansas has a normal department in connection with the Arkansas Industrial University, having one teacher in charge, whose salary is $2,000; and a branch normal at Pine Bluff for colored teachers, for which there is an annual appropriation of about $5,000.

In *California* state appropriations have been made for the support and maintenance of state normal schools as follows:

State normal schools at:	For the fiscal year ending June 30: 1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
San José - - - -	$74,000	$45,000	$45,000	$53,700	$53,750
Los Angeles -	30,000	41,000	41,000	52,750	52,750
Chico -	24,500	53,250	23,250	30,000	30,000

State Normal School at San Diego, established by law March 13, 1897, the sum of $50,000 being at that time appropriated for construction and maintenance, to cover the period between that date and July 1, 1899.

The state normal schools are supported by direct appropriations made by the state legislature.

The *Colorado* Normal School has been supported by a tax of one-sixth mill on the state assessment ever since it opened. This millage has averaged, for the nine years it has been running, $35,000 a year. The last legislature raised this millage from one-sixth to one-fifth mill on the assessment. In round numbers the assessment will be, under the new law, $200,000,000. The one-fifth mill tax is expected to realize about $40,000 a year.

From time to time the school has received special appropriations.

In 1890–91 it received		$20,000	special
" 1892–93	"	35,000	"
" 1894–95	"	10,000	"
" 1898–99	"	25,000	"

Connecticut has three normal schools. The appropriations by the legislature during the last five years are as follows:

	Maintenance	Buildings
1894	$60,000	$71,880.39
1895	60,000	48,974.42
1896	60,000	34,070.96
1897	60,000	26,206.75
1898	60,000	1,650.96

The normal schools have never received anything from land grants made by the United States government.

In *Florida* there are two state normal schools (one for each race) supported by state appropriations. The one for whites, at De Funiak Springs, receives $6,000 a year, and the one for negroes, located at Tallahassee, receives an average appropriation of about $3,000, besides one-half of the Morrill Bill Fund, which has been increasing $500 per year until the present year, when it reaches the maximum of $12,500.

Georgia has two state normal schools. For the last four years they have received an appropriation of $22,900 each. For the next two years the appropriation will be $20,400 each.

There are in *Illinois* two normal schools in operation, and two more which will probably be opened in September, 1899. The last general assembly passed an act authorizing the establishment of a fifth normal school, known as the Western Illinois Normal. The building will likely be completed within the next two years.

For the school years 1893 and 1894 there was appropriated for current expenses of the Illinois State Normal University, each year, $31,493.56; for each year of 1895 and 1896, $35,000; and for each year of 1897 and 1898, $35,000; for the year 1895 there was appropriated for a gymnasium building $40,000, and in 1897, for the completion of the gymnasium building, $10,000. For the two years beginning July 1, 1899, the appropriation for each year is $39,493.56, and there is an additional appropriation of $5,300 for repairs.

For each year of 1893 and 1894, for the Southern Illinois Normal University for current expenses, $22,116.44; for each year of 1895 and 1896, $22,116.44; and for 1897 and 1898, each year, $23,826.44; for library and museum building, for 1895, $40,000, and in 1897, for completing the library and gymnasium building, $6,000.

Of the amount appropriated for these institutions for current expenses about $6,500 came each year from the College and Seminary Fund. Except this, they have received no support from land grants made by the United States government.

In 1895 the Northern Illinois Normal School received for building purposes $50,000, and the Eastern Illinois Normal School for the same purpose, $50,000; and in 1897 these institutions received each $50,000 for building purposes. The two normal schools received from the last general assembly $33,000 each for regular expenses, and for completing and equipping the Northern Normal a special appropriation of $98,339, and for the Eastern Illinois Normal a special appropriation of $46,000.

Indiana has one state normal school, which, under the act of 1895, receives about $65,000 each year. Previous to that time the normal school received about $30,000 annually.

Iowa has but one state normal school. The following table shows the amount of expenses for building, support, and contingent expenses for fiscal term ending:

June 30, 1889	$40,550.00	June 30, 1895	$68,125.00
June 30, 1891	37,508.31	June 30, 1897	97,325.00
June 30, 1893	58,791.69		

The school is supported by permanent and temporary appropriations as follows:

I. Permanent appropriations — not needing legislative action to continue:	
1. Teachers' fund annual	$28,500
2. Contingent fund annual	9,000
3. Tuitions, students covering all contingencies and laboratory fees	16,500
Total permanent support	$54,000
II. Temporary appropriations made by last assembly, annual	7,000
Total annual support	$61,000

Buildings, $120,000; grounds, $10,000; water plant, $10,000; equipment, $30,000.

The revenues of the State Normal School at Emporia, *Kansas*, are derived from three sources:

1. From appropriations by the legislature.
2. From income on the endowment fund, which now brings about $13,500 per year.
3. From fees from model-school and special pupils, making about $3,000 per year.

The income from interest on endowment fund, fees, and the appropriations by the legislature approximates as follows:

For the year ending June 30, 1895	$40,000
" " " " 1896	44,250
" " " " 1897	44,000
" " " " 1898	45,000
" " " " 1900	72,000[1]
" " " " 1901	51,500

Kentucky has two state normal schools, one for the preparation of white and one for the preparation of colored teachers. During the past five years the state has paid to the former $190,495.74, or an average each year of $38,099.15. During the same period this institution has received from the national government $98,422.25, or an annual average appropriation of $19,684.45, its average yearly income from both sources having been $57,783.60. During the last five years the latter has received from the state $27,173.15, or an annual average of $5,434.63, and from the national government $15,945, an average yearly appropriation of $3,189; total average from both sources, $8,623.63.

Louisiana has one state normal school. The new state constitution requires the legislature to appropriate annually for its support not less than $15,000 a year. In addition to this the legislature has given yearly varying sums for buildings, etc. The appropriation in 1898 was:

For the year ending January 30, 1899	$16,000
Repairs	6,500

Maine has three normal schools, and a special training school in her territory, occupied by French-speaking citizens.

The state appropriates annually for current expenses $9,000 for each normal school and $4,000 for the training school.

Special appropriations:

	Farmington	Castine	Gorham	Fort Kent
1895-96	$20,000	$3,500	$15,000	$2,100
1897-98	20,000	3,500	33,500	2,500
1899-1900	700	700	700	500

There is but one state normal school in *Maryland*. The legislative appropriation for its support during each of the last five years, prior to 1898, was $10,500. The legislature of 1898 increased its annual appropriation to $20,000. It is allowed by law to receive one pay student, at $50 per annum, for every two students holding free scholarships by appointments of the school boards of the several counties of the state and Baltimore city. From this source from $7,000 to $8,000 per annum are received. It is strictly a state school. The building, furniture, apparatus, etc., are the property of the state, and it is entirely controlled by the state board of education, who are *ex officio* the trustees of the school.

[1] Of this amount $19,000 is for buildings.

There is also a normal school for colored students, which was established by private donations, and to which the state makes an annual appropriation of $2,000, but it is not owned nor controlled by the state.

The last legislature (1898) appropriated $20,000 to build another state normal-school building, and $5,000 per annum for its support. This will be built during the present year and will be under the control of the state board of education.

Massachusetts :

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898
State appropriation for current expenses	$128,500	$143,858	$171,832	$217,056	$266,527
Amount apportioned to each normal school:					
Bridgewater	31,697	32,948	35,813	37,699	40,052
Fitchburg	.....	5,966	19,532	32,030	35,344
Framingham	22,618	22,217	22,229	22,230	24,499
Hyannis	.....	.....	.....	9,123	22,474
Lowell	.....	.....	.....	11,999	25,713
North Adams	.....	.....	6,000	13,797	24,934
Salem	16,098	21,944	24,815	26,870	25,024
Westfield	22,066	23,123	23,736	22,992	24,989
Worcester	17,549	18,749	19,974	20,524	21,449
Normal Art, Boston	18,500	18,790	19,790	19,780	22,050

In addition to appropriation for current expenses, sums have been appropriated by the state legislature as follows :

1894.	Bridgewater	$75,000	Addition to building.
	Framingham	1,000	Sanitary improvements.
	Fitchburg	75,000	New normal-school building.
	Hyannis	75,000	New normal-school building.
	Lowell	75,000	New normal-school building.
	North Adams	75,000	New normal-school building.
	Total	$376,000	
1895.	Bridgewater	$59,000	Additional buildings, etc.
	Fitchburg	25,000	New normal schools.
	Hyannis	25,000	New normal schools.
	Lowell	50,000	New normal schools.
	North Adams	25,000	New normal schools.
	Worcester	15,000	Gymnasium.
	Worcester	20,000	Repairs.
	Total	$219,000	
1896.	Framingham	$31,000	Improvements.
	Salem	25,000	New building.
	Worcester	10,000	Completing and furnishing gymnasium.
	Fitchburg	25,000	Grading grounds, furnishing and finishing for occupancy.
	Hyannis	25,000	Same purpose as Fitchburg app.
	Lowell	50,000	Same purpose as Fitchburg app.
	North Adams	25,000	Same purpose as Fitchburg app.
	Salem	43,000	Same purpose as Fitchburg app.
	Total	$234,000	
1897.	Bridgewater	$12,888	Repairs and improvement.
	Fitchburg	17,000	Equipment, etc.
	Hyannis	7,000	Additional land.
	Lowell	20,000	Completing and furnishing.
	North Adams	15,000	Equipment, etc.
	Total	$71,888	
1898.	Lowell	$2,000	Building sidewalks, etc.
	North Adams	1,500	Purchase of additional land.
	Normal Art, Boston	35,000	Erection of annex.
	Total	$38,500	

The State Normal College at Ypsilanti, *Michigan*, has support as follows:

For the two years	State appropriations	Other sources
1889–90	$ 84,700	$20,471.80
1891–92	99,520	23,037.97
1893–94	120,220	23,147.37
1895–96	116,900	23,030.73
1897–98	134,800	26,273.94

Michigan has another normal school at Mt. Pleasant, called the Central State Normal School, which has received almost $25,000 per year for four years — $29,000 in 1897.

The state legislature of *Minnesota*, in the last five years, appropriated for the current expenses of the state normal schools as follows:

	Winona	Mankato	St. Cloud	Moorehead
1894–95	$24,000	$24,000	$22,000	$15,000
1895–96	26,000	26,000	24,000	15,000
1896–97	26,000	26,000	24,000	16,000
1897–98	37,000	37,000	26,000	18,000
1898–99	37,000	37,000	26,000	18,000

Eight thousand dollars of the $37,000 appropriated for Winona and Mankato in 1898 was for continuous (all-summer) sessions. The state normal schools of Minnesota receive no part of their support from land grants made by the United States government.

Missouri has three state normal schools for white teachers and one for colored teachers. The legislature makes biennial appropriations for these schools. In 1895 there was appropriated for these four schools, for maintenance during the years 1895–96, $114,750. In 1897 the legislature appropriated for these four schools, for maintenance during the years 1897–98, $127,830.

Nebraska has but one state normal school, located in the extreme southeastern portion of the state. The state superintendent thinks that there has been much prejudice against making a reasonable appropriation for the school because of its location, and that the state needs at least two more state normal schools. To the one now in existence the appropriation for the biennium 1895–96 was $48,296.89, and for the biennium 1897–98 it was $73,815.01.

Nevada has no separate normal institution, but the normal school is a branch of the State University; there is no separate fund appropriated for its maintenance.

Part of the support of the university comes from land grants, and part is appropriated by the legislature from the general fund.

New Hampshire has one state normal school, for the support of which the sum of $10,000 is annually appropriated. This year there is an extra appropriation of $8,000 for a new heating plant.

There is but one state normal school in *New Jersey*. It is located at Trenton.

The legislature makes an annual appropriation, according to the estimated needs of the school.

For		For	
1894–95	$35,000	1897–98	$42,000
1895–96	35,000	1898–99	45,000
1896–97	40,000		

This fund is supplemented by the tuition fees from the Model School, which have averaged $2,500 annually for the past five years.

New York has eleven normal schools and one normal college. The amount expended for these schools for the last five years is as follows:

	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898
Albany Normal College	$34,361.59	$34,505.65	$35,985.20	$51,242.26	$55,179.58
Brockport	21,948.20	27,966.49	43,558.14	26,711.63	37,220.54
Buffalo	39,596.80	24,139.65	26,743.31	28,336.01	38,631.39
Cortland	25,258.72	35,614.29	37,786.13	31,261.58	31,774.57
Fredonia	27,589.82	31,948.66	24,791.90	25,880.39	25,136.97
Geneseo	30,257.69	26,45.120	95,734.04	42,402.61	34,217.86
Jamaica	.....	.....	.....	.....	70,763.80

	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898
New Platz	$22,320.99	$ 20,989.66	$21,114.87	$22,066.26	$23,679.53
Oneonta	79,674.51	166,355.18	63,860.21	27,978.68	25,000.00
Oswego	22,686.20	34,415.50	31,317.29	28,698.17	27,437.50
Plattsburg	22,859.75	24,290.37	73,212.47	37,377.23	23,789.07
Potsdam	25,641.06	31,931.65	27,721.85	31,308.75	27,843.05

The school at Jamaica was recently established, hence it is possible to give figures for the last year only. The ordinary expenses of running these schools vary from $22,000 to $35,000 per year. In the above table, wherever the amounts in any one year exceed the figures given, it indicates that an extra amount has been expended for repairs or new buildings.

North Dakota has two regularly established normal schools, besides the normal department at the State University. It appropriates for the support of the schools about $50,000 for the biennial period. A land grant of 80,000 acres was made for normal schools by the federal government, and a small amount is received each year from the rental of these lands.

Ohio has no state normal schools, but her state universities maintain departments of pedagogy. Sections 3951 and 3951*a*, R. S., provide for the levying of funds for the state institutions. There is levied upon the grand duplicate of Ohio for the Ohio State University $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 mill; for the Ohio and Miami Universities, $\frac{8}{100}$ of a mill, to be divided, $\frac{5}{12}$ for Miami and $\frac{7}{12}$ for the Ohio University.

In addition to these, there is $\frac{1}{100}$ of a mill levied for the colored school, Wilberforce University, near Xenia.

The territory of *Oklahoma* has supported one normal school for nine years, and two since September, 1897. The last legislature made a levy and an appropriation aggregating about twenty-five thousand dollars per annum for each of these institutions. These institutions are each to receive five or six thousand dollars per annum. The amount is to be paid out of the rentals derived from the thirteenth section in each township of what is known as the Cherokee Strip.

Oregon has five state normal schools. There have been no land grants from the United States government, and the legislative appropriations, from January 1, 1893, to December 31, 1900, have been as follows: Monmouth, $98,408.76; Weston, $73,500; Lakeview, $5,000; Drain, $7,500; Ashland, $7,500. Total, $191,908.76.

Pennsylvania has been making an annual appropriation of $130,000 in aid of students preparing to teach who are in attendance at the state normal schools, and an equal sum for maintenance, which was equally divided among the thirteen schools recognized as state normal schools. On the latter amount, the schools, by arrangement with the governor, accepted for the last two years a reduction of 25 per cent., in view of the diminished revenues of the state. No extra appropriations for buildings have been made in the last five years. For each of the two years beginning June, 1899, the legislature made the usual appropriation of $130,000 to the state normal schools, and a like amount to aid students preparing to teach; but the appropriation in aid of students for the year 1900–1901 was vetoed by the governor, on account of a probable shortage of funds in the state treasury.

Within the past four years *Rhode Island* erected near its state capitol a new building for its state normal school. Over $500,000 was expended for the land, building, and equipment of the new school. The appropriation for the current year is $54,000.

The money received by Winthrop Normal and Industrial College from the state of *South Carolina* for the scholastic year of 1897–98 is as follows:

Scholarship appropriation	$ 5,456
Regular appropriation (1897)	13,000
Regular appropriation (1898)	17,500
Appropriation for sewerage	3,000
Total (appropriated for one year)	$38,956

The amount appropriated to the Colored Normal and Industrial College for February, 1899, for the ensuing scholastic year, is $15,000.

South Dakota has three state normal schools under state control, but the legislature has only made appropriations for two of them, one being supported almost entirely by tuition from the pupils; a small amount being received from interest on money derived from the sale and rent of school lands.

The following amounts were appropriated by the legislature for the different years designated and for the schools mentioned above:

	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898
Madison	$ 9,300	$ 9,300	$16,050	$12,250	$12,500	$12,500	$12,900	$12,900
Spearfish	10,700	10,700	13,350	13,050	13,500	12,500	13,200	13,000

Tennessee appropriates $20,000 per annum to the Peabody Normal College.

The annual appropriation for the support of the *Texas* Normal Institute made by the state was $39,500. It gets no endowment, and is entirely dependent upon legislative appropriations. It is the only Texas state normal school for white teachers. The Prairie View Normal is established by the state for colored teachers. It is probable that the present legislature will establish an additional normal school.

Utah has but one normal school, which is a department, in fact, of the state university. It has a branch at Cedar City, in the southern part of the state. While this normal school or department receives indirectly material aid from the legislature in its biennial appropriations to the University of Utah, the amount is not segregated from the general appropriation to the university. This department, in much of its work, is so intimately connected with the other departments of the university that the same professor may have students in his classes from several different departments in the institution. The normal work is specialized in a few branches only, as pedagogy, educational psychology, etc.

The only land grant the normal school, as it is called, has received from the United States government is that of 100,000 acres, made on the admission of the state into the union, in 1896. These lands have not yet been a source of revenue to the department. It has also participated, as an element of the university, in what little benefit that institution has received from its land grants — 46,080 acres by the act of Congress, February 21, 1855, and 110,000 acres by act of Congress, July 16, 1894.

There are other normal schools in the state, but they are of a private or denominational character.

Vermont maintains three state normal schools. The appropriation to each is $5,000, with $1,000 additional to each for supplies and appliances.

The legislature of *Virginia* appropriates annually $45,000 for the support of the state normal schools, of which amount the State Female Normal School for whites gets $15,000, the normal department of the College of William and Mary for white males, $15,000, and the Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute for negroes of both sexes, $15,000.

In addition to the foregoing, the state appropriates $2,500 a year for the support of summer normal schools.

The state of *Washington* has three state normal schools. The last legislature made appropriations as follows:

State Normal School at Cheney:		
Maintenance two years	$25,000	
Library and repairs	1,400	
		$26,400
State Normal School at Ellensburg:		
Maintenance two years	$30,000	
Repairs, furniture, library, etc.	8,500	
		$38,500
State Normal School at Whatcom:		
Maintenance two years	$17,500	
Equipment of building, etc.	16,000	
		$33,500
		$98,400

West Virginia has six normal schools.

The appropriation for teachers' fund for 1898–99 was $25,200, an increase of $6,000 over the old appropriation. For 1899–1900 the appropriation is $30,000, an increase over the old appropriation of $10,800. The appropriations for the several schools are given below. Huntington gets $15,000 for additions to building, and Concord gets a large appropriation to furnish a new building. The other schools received liberal appropriations for their running expenses and repairs and improvements.

NORMAL SCHOOLS, WHITE, INDIVIDUAL FUNDS

	1899	1900	Total
Marshall College	$9,236.21	$14,050.00	$23,286.21
Fairmont	5,883.40	6,030.00	11,913.40
West Liberty	5,580.75	2,200.00	7,780.75
Glenville	5,079.45	4,650.00	9,729.45
Concord	4,500.00	7,184.50	11,684.50
Shepherd College	3,578.00	3,050.60	6,628.00
	$33,857.81	$37,165.10	$71,022.31

Wisconsin claims to be the normal-school state *par excellence* of all the union.

The "Normal School Fund," amounting to more than $1,922,000, was derived from the sale of public lands originally granted to the state as swamp lands. This fund is invested in public stocks and bonds, and yields an annual income, at present, of nearly $10,000. Until the opening of the fifth normal school, in 1885, this was the sole income of the board, save a few thousand dollars from local tuition receipts from pupils in the model schools. But the opening of the Milwaukee school necessitated an appropriation by the legislature of $100,000 a year for its partial support. Here matters stood for eight years more. But in 1893 an upward movement began. The legislature authorized the establishment of two new normal schools, and ordained a tax for their support of one-twentieth of a mill on a dollar of the assessed valuation of the state. This enlargement of the system by the establishment of two more schools rendered still further aid necessary from the state treasury. Accordingly, the legislature of 1895, besides stated appropriations amounting to $72,500, for specified purposes, changed the one-twentieth mill tax to a one-fifth mill tax upon the assessed valuation of the state, this yielding an annual revenue of $120,000 in addition to previous income. This appropriation enabled the board to equip the schools more adequately and put salaries on a somewhat better scale. From this and other causes the schools have experienced a large increase in popularity, as evinced by membership, in the last two years, calling for enlargement of buildings and teaching force. Again appeal was made to the legislature, at its session in 1897, and a further appropriation of a one-tenth mill tax on the valuation of the state was secured. The annual revenue of the normal-school system amounts, therefore, at the present time, to nearly $300,000, of which about one-third is derived from invested funds and two-thirds from taxation. These figures afford convincing proof of the attitude of the people of Wisconsin toward its normal schools. No other state is spending a proportionate amount for the professional training of teachers. Even in these recent years of financial stringency, no one has ever proposed any other than a most liberal policy toward the educational institutions of the state.

The legislature of 1899 made a special appropriation of $70,000 for additional buildings at Stevens Point and Oshkosh, and some repairs at other schools; repealed all laws granting aid in different ways, and substituted therefor an act appropriating directly $198,000 per year, in addition to the income derived from invested funds, tuition, and other sources.

The only normal school in the state of *Wyoming* is that connected with the State University at Laramie—that is, the normal school is conducted as a department of the university.

The state appropriation for the maintenance of the State University is a tax of one-fourth of a mill on all taxable property in the state. Altho a grant of land was made by the United States for the benefit of the institution, the income from this grant has been very small, not averaging more than two hundred dollars per year.

Indirectly, the normal school received some benefit from the government appropriations for an agricultural college, the institutions being all conducted together.

APPENDIX A

PROFESSOR REIN'S PRACTICE SCHOOL, JENA, GERMANY

BY JOHN W. HALL, SUPERINTENDENT OF TRAINING DEPARTMENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, GREELEY, COLO.

Professor Rein's work at Jena is along two lines — a theoretical and a practical one. The first line, the theoretical one, is carried out in the university proper, where he lectures five hours a week, usually on two different lines of pedagogy; in one semester he lectures three hours a week on general didactics, and two on empirical psychology; in another semester, two hours a week on Herbart, three on systems of pedagogy; in a third, two hours on fundamentals of philosophical ethics, three on special didactics, etc.

The second line of work, the practical, is done in the practice school, situated about a fourth of a mile from the university. The practice school consists of three classes of from twelve to fifteen boys each, from the poorer families. The boys enter usually in the first grade and continue thru the eight school years. For example, one year the classes would be the first, fourth, and sixth grades; another year they would be the second, fifth, and seventh grades; a third year they would be the third, sixth, and eighth grades. The number of classes is limited by the lack of money. Each class is in charge of a critic teacher, who devotes his whole attention to it, is present at every recitation, and does all teaching not done by the students. The teaching by the students is voluntary.

This line of work resembles that of our best normal schools, being distinguished from them by the inferiority of the equipment and the class of people from which it draws its pupils.

Perhaps the greatest distinguishing characteristic of the school is the relationship that is established between the theoretical and practical lines just mentioned. This relationship is brought about in three ways:

First, by the frequent visits of Professor Rein to the practice school — observing the work, offering friendly suggestions, frequently taking part in a recitation, and sometimes conducting an entire one — a university professor actually engaged in the teaching of children.

The second means of establishing this relationship is thru the teaching of the students in the practice school. There the student strives to realize his theory in his practice. To do this he puts himself in closest touch with his critic teacher and the class by close observation and conference. Usually much time is spent on the preparation and discussion of his plan before he is allowed to go before the class. In this way he realizes the difference between talking about a recitation plan and actually making one which will stand the test; he appreciates the difference between talking about the aim of a recitation and finding and really stating it properly; between talking about preparing the mind for the reception of the new and actually framing the questions that will do the work. The plan being satisfactory, he is permitted to take the class. He is led to see the imperfections of his recitations and to discover the causes. With this experience he prepares for

the next recitation, each recitation calling for two thoro and helpful criticisms, the one of the plan, the other of the recitation.

The third means of contact, and perhaps the most important, is the so-called *Praktikum*, or recitation for public criticism, and its criticism a few days later in what is called the *Konferenz*, to which an entire evening is devoted.

This recitation is held at the practice school, in the presence of Professor Rein, the critic teachers, and the students — sometimes numbering over sixty. It is held by a student during regular teaching or by a critic teacher, and is always one of a series — never an unrelated individual, never a show. The teacher who is to hold it is notified by Professor Rein a week in advance, and the plan is prepared with special care, for it is subject to inspection and criticism as well as the recitation itself. The chief critic is also appointed a week in advance, and begins at once to make himself thoroly acquainted with that which he is to criticise, in order to see the work in fitting perspective, and in order to distinguish between accidental mistakes and those indicating tendencies. His is a written criticism. The other students content themselves with notes on the recitation, more or less copious.

There is an interval of several days between the recitation and the *Konferenz*, in order to allow time for the careful preparation of the criticism. This criticism forms the basis for the dicussion, and attention is directed to the following points :

1. A description of the recitation.
2. Criticism of —

(*a*) Subject-matter, its fitness, its relation to other subjects, and its relation to the preceding and following recitations in the same subject.

(*b*) Method : aim, movement, leading questions, tests, and summaries.

(*c*) Results.

(*d*) Government.

(*e*) Manner.

The principal criticism is preceded by the reading of the self-criticism by the practician.

In the preparation of the self-criticism it behooves the practician to keep in mind the old precept of the seminar : "Seek the error in thyself, not in the conditions, nor in the children." The actual time spent in the discussion of the practice recitation is, on the average, two hours. Here it is determined how far the practician stands from his ideals. The judgment is softened by circumstances, but the discussion is as nearly scientific as possible.

In the course of the semester such problems as the following come up time and again for discussion in these conferences : "Does the aim, as stated, fulfill the essentials of a good aim ?" "Did the preparation of the mind for the new matter really prepare ?" "Wherein was the failure ?" "Did it make use of what the children had learned in certain other subjects ?" "Is the step of preparation the proper place to emphasize correlation ?" "What formal steps were involved ?" "How ?" "Were they violated ?" "How ?" "Was sufficient interest manifested ?" "When and why was it lacking ?" The list might be continued indefinitely.

Aside from this discussion of the recitation, the outline of work for the three classes in all subjects is read from week to week in the *Konferenz*, and suggestions or objections are called for. Opportunity is given for criticism of any point in the general management, discipline, curriculum, and method, or of anything done or not done in the whole field of their practice. Professor Rein presides at the *Konferenz*, and with exceptional tact controls the discussion. Direct attacks upon any practice or phase of the school is not only allowed, but it is invited, for, in Professor Rein's own words : "We can conceive of criticism only from the standpoint of helpfulness, and as given only in aid of friends and fellow-workers. Personalities underlying criticism adjust themselves."

In this way ample provision is made for bringing together the theoretical and the practical lines of work. Of these the practical, or that done in connection with the practice school, is by far the more important. It is, in fact, the very center of the educational activity at Jena. At least this is the opinon of Professor Rein and of all Americans who have been seriously engaged there. On this point Professor Rein says: "The work of the schoolroom is, and will remain, the test for how much the educator must yet add to his inner treasures, first of knowledge, but above all of clearness, depth, and warmth of moral sentiment. Let us conceive the work of our little practice school in this spirit. We are fortunate that we have it, small and modest as it is, for here we can separate the chaff from the wheat. Here is the field for the growth of character in the teacher who is willing to lessen the distance between himself and his ideal by unceasing effort, by deeds rather than words. To him who is in earnest every criticism will be welcome, for criticism challenges self-examination and frightens one to greater safety."

What Professor Rein is striving for is, again in his words, "that each one acquire a pedagogical fundamental tendency; that it pervade his entire moral disposition; that he not only acquire such a tendency, but live it; that he shun all ostentation, and place truth above everything, even tho it often be bitter." (See article on Professor Rein's practice school in reports for the National Educational Association, 1896.)

HISTORICAL

Aside from his lecture on philosophy in the university at Königsberg, where he went in 1809, Herbart was required to lecture on pedagogics. Soon after this he established a pedagogical seminary, in connection with which was to be a practice school where scientific method might be exemplified in the teaching of twelve to fourteen boys. Students did the teaching under the closest supervision and direction of Herbart himself. The students were not obliged to follow the directions of Herbart, if they differed from him and could support their points with good reasons.

These students were to become superintendents of schools when they had finished their course. One of them, Karl Volkmar Stoy, afterward established a similar seminary and practice school at Jena, based upon Herbart's ideas, according to his own interpretation of them. Professor Stoy died in 1885. This seminary and practice school are now conducted by Professor W. Rein, who succeeded Professor Stoy. Herbart's ideas are still followed at Jena, altho the interpretation is somewhat different.

Professor Ziller conducted a similar seminary and practice school at the university at Leipzig, from about 1857 until his death in 1883, when the practice school was discontinued. Ziller's work was based upon Herbartian ideas. Professor Rein was a student and a teacher in Ziller's school, and agreed largely in his interpretation of Herbart.

APPENDIX B

GENERAL VIEW OF THE WORK OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL

BY ALBERT G. BOYDEN, BRIDGEWATER, MASS.

The function of the state normal school is to educate teachers for the schools of the state. The state supports its public schools for the education of its children. It supports the normal school that its children may have better teachers.

1. The first requisite in the discharge of its function is that the normal school shall inspire the student with the spirit of the true teacher.

Its atmosphere must be such that he will be continually breathing in this spirit. He is to consider the acquisition and use of knowledge, the exercises of the school, his own

purpose, manners, and conduct from the point of view of the teacher. It is vitally important to awaken in the normal student a just appreciation of the work of the teacher, that he must have the spirit of service, must love his work, love his pupils, feel that he has a mission which he must accomplish, and come to his pupils, as the Great Teacher comes to men, that they may have life abundantly. This end can be accomplished only by a school whose sole purpose is the education of teachers, and whose faculty is consecrated to this service.

2. The second requisite is that the normal student must be carefully led thru the educational study of the subjects of the public-school curriculum, that he may learn how to use each in the teaching process and thereby learn the method of teaching.

In the elementary and secondary school the student is a learner, seeking the knowledge of the object and the mental discipline which comes from right exertion in learning. In the normal school he is a teacher; he must think the object as the learner thinks it, he must also think the process by which the learner knows, and the means he is to use to cause the learner to take the steps of this process. For instance, the teacher is leading the learner to acquire the knowledge of a bird. The learner, directed by the teacher, is occupied in finding the parts, qualities, movements, habits of the bird. In doing this he perceives, remembers, imagines, compares, generalizes, reasons, but he does not notice these modes of activity thru which his mind moves. The teacher thinks the facts with the learner; he also must think the movement of the learner's mind, and how he shall incite him to the most effective thinking. The teacher thinks the mind to be taught into unity with the subject by which it is taught. The object of thought is used as the means to teaching. Studying a subject as a teacher is much more than studying the same subject as a learner. The study of the subject for teaching is educational study.

It is important to notice that the teaching process cannot be studied apart from the subjects which form the course of studies for the schools. As we have seen, these subjects furnish the objects of thought which must be used in teaching. It is a well-known law of mental activity that the mind proceeds from the particular and concrete to the general and abstract. We must proceed from the particular ideas of individual objects to the general idea of a class which is composed of the individual objects. We must proceed from the knowledge of many red objects to the abstract idea of redness. The same law controls the learning of the teaching process. The normal student must be led thru the learning and teaching process in each subject; he must buckle himself to the subject, and study it definitely for teaching; then teach and be criticised on his work until he has firmly grasped the process. When he has thus gone thru the study of the concrete process in the several subjects, he can compare his experiences in these several studies and find the aim, the steps, and the means of the teaching process and the general method. This is the law which governs all learning. We can acquire skill in any mechanical or mental process only by going thru the intelligent performance of the process.

No one can produce the best quality of teaching in any grade without this educational study of the subjects he is to use as instruments in the unfolding of the life of the pupil. There is no substitute for this study. The end cannot be accomplished by reading about it, by hearing lectures upon it, or by observing others do it. The separation of normal-school work into "the academic study of subjects and the study of methods" is not sound educational practice.

The teacher must have a full knowledge of each subject at his ready command. He needs to be saturated with his subject, if he would teach effectively, so that he can give his attention to the pupil's mind, put himself in full sympathy with the pupil, and be ready to use the subject as the needs of the pupil may require. The normal student must consider the subject philosophically, to know why it has its place in the course of studies. Take the subject-reading as an instance of the need of this study. What is it to be able to read an author? What is this power as a factor in life? Why should

reading be taught? What is its place in the course of studies? These questions must be answered by the teacher before he can effectively teach reading. Without this philosophical study of the subject the teacher will be formal, empirical, and fall into routine. He must consider the subject scientifically, that he may know its principles in their systematic arrangement, and to place the subject in its true relation to other subjects. The principles of the subject in their orderly arrangement are the things essential to be taught, if the pupil is to be able to use his knowledge in solving the problems of life. Without this scientific study of the subject the teacher's work will be fragmentary, will lack order, method, vitality. He must study the subject pedagogically, to know its relation to the pupil, to know what parts are to be used and emphasized in teaching, and the best method of using them. Without this pedagogical study of the subject the teacher will fail to adapt his teaching to the needs of the pupil. He needs to consider each subject from this threefold point of view. The study of one subject in this way does not enable him to use another subject in teaching without studying it in the same way. Teaching should be rational, not empirical.

The normal student should have, at the beginning of his work in the normal school, an elementary course in psychology, to indicate distinctly the principles and the method of teaching in the school; then begin at once upon the educational study of the subjects and continue it thru the curriculum.

The pupil in the elementary and secondary school has not the purpose, the attainments, or the maturity necessary for the educational study of the subject. He leaves the elementary subjects when he enters the secondary school, he takes the secondary subjects for the first time in that school, and he is far from being saturated with the subjects when he leaves the secondary school. The secondary-school courses are elective. The best graduate of the secondary school often has not taken at all some of the subjects called for in the enrichment of the elementary-school course, as recommended by the Committee of Ten and the Committee of Fifteen. Hence it not unfrequently happens that some of the best students in the normal school must take their first study of a subject from the educational point of view. It is by no means certain that this is a disadvantage to the student as a teacher.

To be well equipped for teaching in the elementary schools the normal student must take the educational study of the secondary-school subjects as well as that of the elementary-school subjects. The teacher in any grade cannot do his own work properly unless he knows the relation it holds to what precedes and follows. He must know more than he teaches. Confining one's effort to any one grade is narrowing in its effect upon teacher and pupil. One cannot teach the program given by the Committee of Fifteen for the elementary schools without this study. He cannot teach the language required by this program effectively without this study of other languages than English; he cannot teach the arithmetic and elementary algebra in their proper relation to the study of higher mathematics without this study of algebra and geometry; he cannot teach geography intelligently without this study of history and the several sciences upon which geography depends; he cannot teach nature study acceptably without this study of the natural sciences; he cannot effectively use the myths and stories from ancient history now called for in the earlier grades, or make United States history a living study, without this study of general history; he cannot use the gems of literature and art without something of this study of literature and art; and to these must be added this study of drawing, vocal music, manual training, and physical culture.

There is a prevalent misconception of the true work of the normal school. It finds expression in the statement, so often made, that the so-called academic studies should be left out of the normal-school course of study, and the school should give its whole attention to strictly professional work — that is, to the study of psychology, the principles and methods of teaching, the history of education, and training in the practice school. The study of psychology may be just as academic as that of arithmetic or grammar, and when

so studied it does not meet the teacher's needs. The study of these subjects is not professional until they are studied with direct reference to the teaching process.

This view of the work of the normal school is based on the false assumption that we may supply the normal student with educational theory in the abstract, and leave him to make the application of the theory in teaching in each of the particular subjects; whereas all philosophy and experience show that theory and practice must be conjoined in the concrete teaching process. Persons equipped with educational theories may be good talkers about teaching, but they never will become good teachers under this divorce of theory and practice.

The academic studies should not be taken in the normal course for academic study, but the time will never come when we can safely dispense with the educational study of these subjects in the normal school. The normal school is to be made professional, not by the exclusion of these studies from its course, but by the inclusion of the educational study of them. All the studies of the normal school should be strictly professional, that is, studied in their direct bearing upon the teaching process, whether the course be shorter or longer, for elementary or for higher work. The one function of the normal school is the education of teachers. This function is capable of indefinite extension. All teachers, from the kindergarten thru the university, should have their professional training.

3. The third requisite is that the school should lead the normal student, after the educational study of the subjects of the school curriculum, thru the broader study of man, body and mind, to find the principles of education which are derived by this study and which underlie all true teaching. This study is invaluable for its "influence in expanding the mind, enlarging the views, elevating the aims, and strengthening the character of the student." After this study the student should be led thru a careful analysis of the art of teaching, school organization and school government, and the study of school laws, and the history of education. In this study the student is constantly referring to his experience in the educational study of subjects for illustrations to establish the general views he is now discussing.

4. The fourth requisite is that the normal student shall be led to make a practical study of children, which he should do as fully as possible thruout the course under intelligent suggestion; that he should have ample observation under intelligent guidance in all the grades of a good public school, with a first-class teacher at work in charge of each room; that he breathe the atmosphere, become familiar with the workings, and become acquainted with the children as pupils in such a school; that in the latter part of his course, when he has some just conception of the nature and method of true teaching, and when he has become acquainted with the pupils, he should have ample practice in teaching under such supervision as he needs, whether it be more or less. To put the student to teaching before this preparation is a wrong to him, and a much greater wrong to the children. We have no right to waste the child's birthright by ignorant attempts to teach him.

These four requisites are the minimum requirements for a true normal school, which has its distinctive place as a professional school. The child who is to be developed by the teacher is a self-active, rational being; a person, not a thing; a free personality, a moral cause; therefore self-exertion is the first condition of his development. "He stands all by himself in the world as an individual, with his own thoughts and feelings, his own hopes and fears and possibilities, his own relations to his fellow-beings and to God." His individuality is to be respected. The development of the individual according to his needs is the end toward which all are to be trained.

The art of teaching is the finest of fine arts, inasmuch as it deals with the spiritual material of human life. Its exercise calls for an artist who has the greatest natural aptitude, the noblest character, the fullest knowledge, the ripest experience, and the most delicate skill. We cannot set the standard of the normal school too high.

SUBJECTS FOR COURSE OF TWO YEARS

The students entering upon the course are graduates of a good high-school course of four years, or have had an equivalent of this course.

1. An elementary course in psychology to indicate distinctly the principles and the method of the teaching in the school.

2. The educational study of the following subjects for knowledge of their educational value, their principles, and the method of teaching in each:

(*a*) *Mathematics.*— Arithmetic and bookkeeping, elementary algebra, and plane geometry.

(*b*) *Nature studies.* — Minerals, plants, animals, physical force, chemical force, geological agencies, geography, the human body, physical training, manual training.

(*c*) *Language.*— Reading and vocal culture, English, including orthography, orthoëpy, etymology, grammar, composition, rhetoric, literature, drawing and color, vocal music.

(*d*) *History.*— History of United States and civil government, school laws of the state, history of education.

3. The educational study of man, body and mind, for the principles of education, the art of teaching, school organization, school government.

4. Child study, observation and practice in the model school.

STUDIES FOR COURSE OF FOUR YEARS

The students start with the same qualifications as in the two-years' course.

1. Elementary course in psychology, to indicate distinctly the principles and the method of the teaching in the school.

2. The educational study of the following subjects for the knowledge of their educational value, their principles, and the method of teaching in each:

(*a*) *Mathematics.*—Arithmetic and bookkeeping, algebra, geometry, plane and solid, trigonometry, and surveying.

(*b*) *Nature studies.*—The same subjects as in the two-years' course. *Science:* physics, chemistry, mineralogy, botany, zoölogy, geology, and astronomy.

(*c*) *Language.*—More extended study of the subjects of the two-years' course, Latin, Greek, French, and German.

(*d*) *History.*—History of the United States and civil government, school laws of the state, general history, history of education, political economy, sociology.

3. The educational study of man, body and mind, for the principles of education, the art of teaching, school organization, school government.

4. Child study, observation and practice in model school.

The subjects should be taken in the order of their dependence, and the distribution of time upon them will vary with the internal conditions of each school. Minimum and maximum courses should be arranged to meet the varying abilities of the students.

A three-years' course may be arranged for the accommodation of those desiring an elective course, by taking the studies of the two-years' course with electives from the advanced subjects of the four-years' course. In some schools a special course is arranged for college graduates, and for teachers of long experience.

The four-years' course is especially helpful in the proper training of teachers for the upper grades of the schools. Its necessity becomes increasingly apparent with the increasing demand for teachers of higher qualifications. Its influence upon those pursuing the shorter course is of great benefit in raising the standard of qualification and in strengthening the desire for more extended professional study.

The graduates from these courses will find their places in the schools according to their ability as teachers. The provision for certificates, diplomas, and degrees varies very much in the different states, and can be improved only as the better quality of the graduates of the normal school commends them to the best public sentiment.

APPENDIX C

A TYPICAL ENGLISH TRAINING COLLEGE

BY GEORGE MORRIS PHILIPS, PENNSYLVANIA

To most American teachers Sir Joshua Fitch is the best-known educator in England; and so, when last November I went to London to learn something of English schools, I naturally called upon him for suggestions. A letter of introduction from an American friend secured a most cordial welcome from Sir Joshua; and let me suggest just here that, while I have no doubt any American teacher would be welcomed by Sir Joshua Fitch, the American traveler who wishes to get any intimate knowledge of European people or institutions should be sure to take with him letters of introduction. They are much more essential there than they would be in America.

Sir Joshua Fitch was, a few years ago, knighted by Queen Victoria for his eminent services to education, but he was recently retired from active school work. Apparently, however, this only allows school committees and boards to now demand all of his time for addresses, conferences, etc. Thru him I met Mr. Buxton Morrish, of London, chairman of the British and Foreign Society's committee on teachers' training colleges, a typical English gentleman, who, having retired from active business, is able to devote his time largely to serving the public and, of course, without compensation. Instead of paying school directors for their services, as is often suggested, it seems to me that we should be much better served in this country if many more of our officers were unpaid, in the hope that, when made posts of honor instead of profit, more of them would be filled by capable, public-spirited men, like Mr. Morrish.

The British and Foreign Society was organized about the beginning of the present century to promote Lancaster's scheme of general elementary education. In 1870 Parliament, for the first time, authorized a public-school system in England, and as the British and Foreign Society's schools then began to be gradually turned over to the school boards organized under this act, the society now devotes its attention and its resources largely to the training of teachers. It must be borne in mind that in England there are no state normal schools, in the ordinary American sense of the term. All of the teachers' training colleges, as normal schools are universally called there, are private enterprises, many of them under the auspices of the British and Foreign Society, or its great rival, the National Society. Such of these as provide training for teachers in the elementary schools may be aided liberally by the government, provided they comply with the government's conditions. There is a great gulf fixed in England between elementary- and secondary-school teachers, and, as the state makes practically no provision for assisting in secondary instruction, so it gives no help to the training of teachers for secondary or high schools.

Separate training colleges are generally provided for the two sexes. Accompanied by Mr. Morrish, I spent a day at the Isleworth Training College for men, which is situated a few miles west of London, and which is considered one of the best schools of its class in England. Like most of the training colleges generally, I found this to be a boarding school, with a two-years' course of study. It has a fine building, well adapted to its purpose, surrounded by considerable grounds. Practically all of its students are Queen's scholars, that is, they have passed an entrance examination by government examiners and, almost without exception, have been pupil teachers for four years in the elementary schools. This pupil-teacher system, by the way, which provides that boys and girls who intend to become teachers may, when they have finished the elementary schools at the age of fourteen, become assistent teachers in elementary schools for four years, assisting

the regular teachers for a part of each day, and studying the remainder of the time, is universal in England, and the great majority of elementary teachers are ex-pupil teachers.

At the end of each year's course the college students are required to pass a state examination, which, like the preliminary examination, is uniform all over England. The course of study is also carefully laid down by the government authorities, and all students must have physicians' certificates of physical fitness before entering the school.

The pupils sleep in small cubicles, each about nine by five feet, separated from each other by partitions six feet high. Of these there are some seventy-five in one great room. Each contains simple but comfortable furniture, and teachers occupy certain of these small bedrooms among the students. They are not separately lighted; students must, therefore, study either in the schoolrooms or in the large "common room," the latter being an important feature in English schools.

In the dining-hall the teachers and a few postgraduate students sat at a table on a raised platform; the undergraduates at long tables below. While there evidently were two bills-of-fare, yet all the tables were apparently well provided, and I was told that the dietary of the school was arranged by a physician. Some of the teachers wore the scholastic gowns which in English schools everywhere mark teachers who hold university degrees.

The school contains about one hundred and fifty young men, the total cost of maintaining the school being rather more than three hundred dollars per year for each student. The government gives each training college three-fourths of the legitimate cost of maintaining each student for the time he is in attendance. This is the general rule thruout England. A student at Isleworth pays one hundred dollars as an entrance fee, and has no other school expense during his two-years' course. The balance of the cost is made up by the society itself, and generally in England almost all the living expense, as well as the tuition of students in the training colleges, is paid for them.

The course of study is largely academic, only about one hundred hours of class-room work in the whole two years being given to pedagogic branches, including methods of teaching, psychology, etc. One hundred and fifty hours are required by law to be spent in practice and observation in practice schools. Here there had been considerable difficulty in securing sufficient facilities for practice work, and the school authorities, in connection with some public-spirited neighbors, had built and equipped a private school for the neighborhood, which was used also as a practice school. Each graduate is obliged to pledge himself to teach for two years in the elementary schools of the kingdom, altho I found a few students in the school not intending to teach in the English schools. These, however, got no benefit from the government grant for support, and paid the full cost of their board and tuition. Special inspectors are appointed by the government for the training colleges, and the facilities and details of the work generally must conform to the government requirements, and are carefully looked after.

The teachers of the training college are scarcely as well paid as corresponding teachers in America, and yet there is no more difference than between salaries in other callings in the two countries. I was informed that the average salary received by graduates of this college for their first year's work was about $425. This, however, was said to be in excess of that received by recent graduates of the training colleges generally.

At the end of the two-years' course, and after passing the final examinations, graduates get preliminary certificates which permit them to teach in the elementary schools of the kingdom without further examination; but, at the end of two years' successful teaching in the same school, they may get second diplomas, technically called "parchments."

Teachers are not yet everywhere required to be graduates of training colleges, but in London, and some other places, the local school authorities now require that all teachers in board schools must be graduates of training colleges.

Students of educational systems will be struck with the resemblance between the training colleges of England and the state normal schools of Pennsylvania. In both cases these schools are privately founded and controlled, altho in Pennsylvania the state now appoints one-third of the trustees, and, in Pennsylvania also, the founding and organization of the schools are more closely regulated by law.

The normal schools of Pennsylvania, like the training colleges of England, are all boarding schools, and must be so under the laws of the state.

In Pennsylvania the normal schools all charge tuition, but the students' expenses are reduced by "state aid" appropriated regularly by the legislature, and paid to the schools to reduce the expenses of the students preparing to teach, tho this state aid is very much less for each student than the corresponding government grant in England.

In both cases the final examinations are conducted by examiners not connected with the schools, and graduates who receive benefit of the state aid are required to agree to teach in the state schools for two years, and, in England as in Pennsylvania, at the close of two years of successful teaching, a second certificate or diploma is granted to the student.

It would seem from these coincidences that the framers of the normal-school law of Pennsylvania must have been familiar with, and to a certain extent have copied, the English system, which took substantially its present form in 1843.

APPENDIX D

CONTINUOUS SESSIONS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

BY IRWIN SHEPARD, PRESIDENT STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WINONA, MINN.

[The following extract from a paper read at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Chattanooga, Tenn., in February, 1898, is reprinted at the request of the Committee on Normal Schools.]

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No feature of our educational system is, by virtue of any authoritative adoption, exempt from criticism or change.

The conservative force in our national system of education is the strength of tradition. This conservatism often binds the teachers more strongly than the people, for it frequently happens that the former have progressed more slowly than the latter and have yielded tardily to the advanced demands of public opinion. The traditional close classification of the graded schools, with its rigid system of annual promotions, altho long since condemned by public sentiment, still quite generally prevails; or at most has yielded only to the extent of substituting semi-annual for annual promotions. The method of determining qualification for promotion by written examinations alone was generally retained long after the people distrusted its efficiency and even demanded its discontinuance. The three-months' annual vacation season has come to be regarded by most teachers as an inalienable right, as well as a necessity, and any disposition to lengthen the school year is generally looked upon as an unjustifiable encroachment upon this right.

It requires some courage to suggest, even in a convention of progressive superintendents, that other seasons than summer time may be equally profitable for vacation purposes, and that the intellectual work of the schoolroom may be as well done in summer as the intellectual work of other callings.

I. *In elementary schools.*—The average school year for the United States is about seven months. In many places, especially cities, it has been extended to ten months in

answer to popular demands. It is not entirely clear why the extension should stop here. In fact, very good reasons can be given why the school should be open as continuously as the factory, the workshop, and the store.

If it is replied that pupils and teachers need two or three months annually for rest and recuperation from the intense strain and pressure of the year's work, it may be questioned if a system which produces strain and pressure so near to the point of exhaustion is not unwise and indefensible, and if a distribution of the same work over a longer period would not be wiser, tho it involved longer or even continuous sessions. It is certain that the point of efficient work on the part of both teacher and pupil is passed long before strain, over-pressure, or exhaustion appears.

We may even question if the valuable enrichment of the courses of study in elementary schools, made in recent years, has not unwisely increased the pressure of daily work in the absence of any corresponding extension of the school year.

The annual vacation itself, deemed so essential for rest, contributes in no slight degree to the burdens of the already overtaxed year which follows, by the necessity for recovering the loss incident to the breaking down of intellectual habits and the waste of acquired knowledge during the long vacation, even if no more serious results appear.

There are certain valuable compensations for the long school vacation when the pupil can turn to some helpful occupation, as may usually be done in rural communities; but this is seldom the case in cities or even small towns; therefore the question of continuous sessions *versus* short school years and long vacations belongs rather to the graded than to the rural schools.

The profitable employment of the time of children of school age during the long summer vacations is often the most serious and perplexing problem that confronts parents living in cities and towns, even under the most favorable circumstances; while in the case of children living in crowded districts of large cities, or in the saloon-cursed village, it becomes a question of vital importance to society as well as to the family.

It is not difficult to conceive of such an adjustment of school work, rest, and recreative occupations that continuous attendance upon school may not only be free from overwork or strain, but may furnish the most healthful and enjoyable life that a child can live; especially if vacations may be taken, without prejudice to progress, whenever needed or whenever the time could be otherwise more profitably spent. The ideal school life is that of the most healthful living, and does not admit the necessity for long vacations as periods for recuperation from overtaxing or unhealthful requirements.

However, the plan of continuous sessions does not necessarily involve continuous attendance on the part of the pupils or continuous service by teachers. It means, rather, continuous opportunities to the pupil for attendance on regular school sessions, and relief to the teachers from enforced vacations, always annual and always at the same season.

In view of the growing demands for vacation schools, especially in large cities, it is important to determine whether these schools shall be preventive and sporadic, without organic connection with the school system; or shall be constructive, progressive, and so adjusted as to contribute to advancement in the regular courses of the schools or to proportionate relief from the daily requirements of the following year. A division of the present school year into three quarters of twelve weeks each, with quarterly promotions, would be the first and most important step toward the organic connection of vacation schools as a regular part of the school year with the work accredited as such.

The question may be asked if as much work can be accomplished in the twelve weeks of a vacation quarter as in any other quarter of the year. We have come to understand that the ability of anyone (children especially) to do intellectual work is dependent upon individual vitality rather than atmospheric temperature. We know that the vitality is lowest in winter and early spring and at its maximum in the growing season—late spring and summer. The general experience of summer vacation schools confirms the

belief that as much and as effective work can be accomplished in summer time as in any other part of the year if the early morning hours are substituted for the afternoon session; while the opportunities to pursue the various forms of nature study excel those of any other season.

If, however, continuous attendance is not desired, continuous sessions, with the quarter of twelve weeks as the promotion unit, would make possible the distribution of vacations thruout the year, and the relief of crowded rooms to a correspondiug extent; or, in other words, would increase the school accommodations by 33⅓ per cent.

Is it a wise policy for a city whose enrollment exceeds its seating accommodations to close its buildings for three months of the year, if by any plan of administration these buildings may be made available to relieve the excessive demands of the other nine months? Under the pressing demands everywhere for greater school accommodations, is it justifiable that the common-school property of the nation, valued at five hundred millions of dollars, should be permitted to lie idle from three to five months annually? Compulsory school attendance and compulsory exclusion from school during the long vacation are antagonistic principles. The general tendency of the educational world to "hibernate" in summer time is contrary to all of the analogies of nature as well as of life in other callings.

II. *In normal schools.*—The great increase in the number, importance, and attendance of summer schools is not more significant than the fact that this attendance is largely made up of teachers in regular service, who are pleased to devote no small share of a meager salary and of the annual vacation to professional advancement.

The reports of the United States Commissioner of Education show that 75 per cent. of the teachers of the country enter upon their work without any special training whatever, while the training of a large share of the others is much less extensive and satisfactory than is required in any other profession. Few who continue in teaching resign to make further preparation. Therefore the training of the teacher *while in service* is a problem of the utmost importance.

This problem would seem to be not difficult of solution when we reflect that the average school year for the entire country is but seven months, and rarely exceeds forty weeks. No other calling affords such generous vacation leisure for self-improvement. The difficulties of the problem lie in the fact that the three to five months of enforced vacation include or coincide with the annual long vacation of the normal schools and all higher educational institutions.

Teachers' institutes and the summer schools are designed to supply the demands for vacation opportunities for professional improvement not offered by the normal schools and colleges; either because their doors are closed, or because their courses of study and term arrangements do not enable a teacher to use with profit the long vacation periods. While summer schools and institutes have accomplished much, they do not by any means solve the problem of the efficient training of the teacher in service.

The state of Minnesota has led all other states in the establishment of vacation training schools for teachers. About fifty of these schools are in session every summer, for four weeks each, with a total attendance which usually equals or exceeds the entire teaching force of the state; while, until the summer of 1897, all of the four normal schools of the state, equipped at an expense of more than a million dollars, were closed, their laboratories and libraries deserted, and their faculties scattered, supposedly taking much-needed vacations, but many of them in reality teaching in these same summer schools, often under most adverse conditions as to surroundings and appliances.

In September, 1895, when the faculty of the State Normal School at Winona reassembled after the annual vacation, during which half of the members had been teaching in the summer schools, a series of special meetings were held to consider the relation of the normal schools to these summer schools. A few conclusions were soon reached:

1. That the phenomenal growth of summer training schools for teachers indicated a demand which the normal schools had not met.

2. That these summer schools were creating new demands which only normal schools could efficiently meet.

3. That, under the existing conditions for admission to teaching service, it is quite as much the proper function of the normal schools to provide for training teachers *in service* as to furnish a preparation for entering such service.

4. That the rural-school teachers, with an average vacation of five months each year, furnished at the same time the most needy and the most available constituency for such training.

5. That the policy is indefensible which closes the normal schools during that period of the year when teachers are most at leisure to attend school.

6. That the terms of normal schools should be so adjusted in time that the usual long vacations of teachers could be utilized for further preparation, and that the courses so provided should not be special, but regular and progressive, and should constitute organic parts of the full courses offered.

It was decided, after full discussion, to recommend and, if possible, secure the adoption of the following general plan:

1. The school year should be divided into four quarters of twelve weeks each, commencing, respectively, January 1, April 1, July 1, and October 1.

2. The courses of study should be organized by quarters; the work of each quarter constituting a full unit on which credit should be given whenever completed.

3. Classes should be graduated at the close of each quarter and new classes organized at the opening of each quarter, if necessary.

4. Special classes should be organized for graded-school teachers for the first six weeks of the summer quarter (July 1 to August 15), and this work should apply upon regular courses, with provisions for completing the quarter's work by non-resident study thru correspondence during the ensuing school year.

5. Since the chief aim of this plan was to bring the normal schools into more helpful relations to the rural schools, whose interests they were primarily created to serve, the quarters should be so arranged that a rural-school teacher could teach the usual winter term of four or five months — which would always come within the autumn and winter quarters (October to April) — and attend a normal school one or both of the remaining quarters, with a reasonable vacation; or he could teach the entire school year (October to July) and attend one full quarter each year (July to October).

In this way progressive courses of normal-school work could be completed without withdrawing from rural-school service. This alone would be a distinct gain to the teaching supply of the rural schools.

Incidentally this plan would prove a boon to hundreds of self-supporting young men and women, from whom the best teachers of the state are drawn, who would be enabled to work their way thru the normal-school courses with little difficulty and with little or no loss of time from teaching service.

It was believed that the results of training received while alternately teaching and attending school would also commend the policy.

The plan was subsequently approved by the presidents and faculties of the other normal schools of the state and presented to the state normal board for adoption. After full consideration for a year it was unanimously adopted and steps taken to secure the needed appropriation for putting the plan into operation in all of the normal schools of the state. It was estimated that an increase of 25 per cent. in revenue would cover the expense of the proposed increase in the length of the school year of 33⅓ per cent.

The teachers generally thruout the state approved the plan and gave it active support. Sixty-two out of eighty of the county superintendents, and almost an equal

proportion of city superintendents, joined personally in urging upon individual members of the legislature its advantages. No more popular educational measure ever came before the legislature of the state. The year 1897 was not a favorable one in which to secure appropriations for new or untried measures. The avowed policy of the legislature was to grant sparingly appropriations for the actual necessities only of the state institutions, but nothing for enlargements. Yet, so great was the confidence in the plan that the full appropriation asked for the two older schools — at Winona and Mankato — was granted — a larger increase than had ever been granted for extension of normal-school revenues in any one year in the history of the state.

On July 1, 1897, these two schools entered upon the new plan. Duplication of the work of the summer schools was avoided. Students were not admitted for less than a full term or quarter. Those only were admitted to the six-weeks' special courses whose schools would begin before the close of the quarter. Rural-school teachers were not admitted for less than the full quarter of twelve weeks. At Winona the standard of admission was radically advanced to the point of admitting only graduates of high schools or teachers actually in service.

Altho the announcement of the plan was not made until late in May, and forty county summer schools, enrolling seven thousand, were in session thruout the state, the attendance during the summer was all that could be desired in numbers and surprisingly good in quality. Five hundred were enrolled in the two schools. At Winona 15 per cent. of the enrollment were former graduates of the school, all occupying important positions as teachers in the state, who had returned to enter upon the work of the recently extended advanced course; 40 per cent. were graded- and rural-school teachers; 40 per cent. were high-school graduates. Only 5 per cent. did not belong to one of the above-named classes. The average age was twenty-three years and the average teaching service four years, varying from one term to twenty years.

It was predicted by some that the model or training schools could not be maintained during the summer months; but here again the success was marked, notwithstanding the fact that these are tuition schools.

Many parents have transferred their children permanently to the model schools because of the evident advantages of continuous sessions. In the model schools promotions occur quarterly. Vacations of one quarter may be taken any quarter of the year, either semi-annually, annually, or biennially; or the pupils may attend continuously, taking full or partial work, with corresponding advancement if such attendance is deemed advisable.

The advantages of these various options are quickly seen, and different plans are chosen to suit individual pupils. The work of last summer's quarter was not more exhausting to teachers or pupils than that of any other quarter, nor has it appeared to be less efficiently done.

No year in the history of the schools has shown so large an increase in enrollment as the present. While the lengthened year will show a proportionate increase in results, in graduates, and numbers instructed, the most important advantages appear in the large number of teachers in service who are preparing to take up regular courses while continuing their work in teaching, while many students, who formerly could not see the way to complete more than the short elementary course, now choose the full advanced course, under the facilities offered for vacation attendance.

Continuous sessions do not involve continuous teaching service by the faculty. Vacations will be granted as heretofore, with the difference that any quarter may be selected, subject to the approval of the management of the school; or, by continuous service, vacations may be accumulated to enable a teacher to secure a longer leave of absence. Additional teachers will be employed as assistants in the various departments, who will be competent to take the classes of the absent teachers.

A proposed plan, which is favored by many, provides that each teacher may serve four consecutive quarters and take the fifth quarter for a vacation. This would bring each successive vacation of any teacher at a different season of the year.

Students are not expected to attend continuously except by permission of the faculty. It is already found that they are not so averse to stopping for rest when it is needed, since work may be resumed at the opening of the next quarter. Similarly, students are more willing to repeat work that has been imperfectly done than under the usual plan of classification, which imposes the penalty of a year's delay if the work of a single quarter is lost or repeated.

Under the usual plan normal-school graduates are annually thrown upon the market in the month of June, just when the graded-school authorities are seeking teachers to fill vacancies for the following year. The natural result is that the supply is exhausted before the rural-school authorities are ready to act on the employment of teachers for the schools to begin later, in October or November. Hence only the undergraduate supply is left for the rural-school service.

Under the Winona plan the classes graduating in September, December, and March will be available for rural-school service. Even tho this service shall be brief because of the competition of the graded schools offering a longer year, more certain tenure of appointment, and higher wages, it will be a distinct gain to the rural schools, as well as to the teacher herself, if she is able to say: "My first teaching service after graduation was in a rural school."

The plan was presented to the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools at its meeting in Chicago in 1896, and received its indorsement and approval in both the report of the General Committee and of the Subcommittee on Supply of Teachers.

The 160 state normal schools of the United States, equipped with buildings and appliances at an expense of over $17,000,000, graduate about 8,000 teachers annually, which is a small proportion of the needed supply; and yet all of these buildings are closed during three months of the year. An additional annual expenditure of about $600,000 would open every one of these 160 state normal schools for the additional three months of each year, afford 50,000 teachers annual vacation opportunities for professional study, and secure to all teachers the many other advantages of continuous sessions.

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