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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL(AL) ASSOCIATION of the United States

111

Proceedings
vol. 39

JOURNAL

OF

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

THIRTY-NINTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA

JULY 7-13, 1900

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CONSTITUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

PREAMBLE

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

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I—NAME

This association shall be styled the NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

ARTICLE II—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. It shall consist of eighteen departments: first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth, of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, for the Education of the Deaf, Blind, and Feeble-Minded; seventeenth, of Indian Education; and eighteenth, the National Council of Education.

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

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. There shall be three classes of members, namely, active, associate, and corresponding.

SEC. 2. Teachers and all who are actively associated with the management of educational institutions, including libraries and periodicals, may become active members. All others who pay an annual membership fee of two dollars may become associate members. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by the Directory to be corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall at no time exceed fifty.

SEC. 3. Any person eligible may become an active member upon application indorsed by two active members, and the payment of an enrollment fee of two dollars and the annual dues for the current year.

Active members only have the right to vote and to hold office in the general association or in the several departments.

All active members must pay annual dues of two dollars, and will be entitled to the volume of proceedings without "coupon" or other conditions. The annual membership

fee shall be payable at the time of the annual convention, or by remittance to the Secretary before September 1 of each year. Any active member may discontinue membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before September 1, and may restore the same only on payment of the enrollment fee of two dollars and the annual dues for the current year.

All life members and life directors shall be denominated active members, and shall enjoy all the powers and privileges of such members without the payment of annual dues.

Associate members may receive the volume of proceedings in accordance with the usual "coupon" conditions, as printed on the membership certificate.

Corresponding members will be entitled to the volume of proceedings without the payment of fees or other conditions.

SEC. 4. The names of active and corresponding members only will be printed in the volume of proceedings, with their respective educational titles, offices, and addresses, the list to be revised annually by the Secretary of the association.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The officers of this association shall consist of a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, a Board of Trustees, and an Executive Committee, as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 2. The Board of Directors shall consist of the President of the National Educational Association, First Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each state, territory, or district, to be elected by the association for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of all life directors elected previous to July 10, 1895.

All past presidents of the association now living (July 10, 1895), and all future presidents at the close of their respective terms of office, and the United States Commissioner of Education shall be life directors of the association.

The President of the National Educational Association, First Vice-President, Treasurer, chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the association to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, which member shall hold office for one year, shall constitute the Executive Committee.

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

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

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

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

SEC. 7. The Treasurer shall receive, and under the direction of the Board of Trustees hold in safe-keeping, all moneys paid to the association; shall expend the same only upon the order of said board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the 1st day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Trustees, and, when approved by said board, he shall report the same to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the association next succeeding that for which he is elected.

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

SEC. 9. The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members, elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the election of the trustees in 1886, one trustee shall be elected for one year, one for two years, one for three years, and one for four years; and annually thereafter, at the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the annual meeting of the association, one trustee shall be elected for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership therein. The Board of Trustees thus elected shall constitute the body corporate of the association, as provided in the certificate of incorporation under the provisions of the Act of General Incorporation, Class Third, of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, dated the 24th day of February, 1886, at Washington, D. C., and recorded in Liber No. 4, "Acts of Incorporation for the District of Columbia."

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

SEC. 11. The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the association, who shall also be secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix the compensation and the term of office for a period not to exceed four years.

ARTICLE V—MEETINGS

SECTION 1. The annual meeting of the association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

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

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

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

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

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

ARTICLE VI—BY-LAWS

By-laws not inconsistent with this constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the association.

ARTICLE VII—AMENDMENTS

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

BY-LAWS

1. At the first session of each annual meeting of the association there shall be appointed by the President a committee on resolutions; and at the third session of such meeting there shall be appointed a committee on nominations, consisting of one member from each state and territory represented, the same to be appointed by the President on the nomination of a majority of the active members in attendance from such state or territory; provided, however, that such appointment shall be made by the President without such nomination, when less than three active members from a state or territory are in attendance, and also when a majority of the active members in attendance from any state or territory shall fail to make a nomination.

The meetings of active members to nominate members of the nominating committee shall be held at 5:30 P. M. on the first day of the annual meeting of the association, at such places as shall be announced in the general program.

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

3. Each paying member of the association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

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

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

ACT OF INCORPORATION

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

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

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

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

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION

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

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

NORMAN A. CALKINS. [L. S.]

JOHN EATON. [L. S.]

ZALMON RICHARDS. [L. S.]

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

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

- 1857.—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized.)
JAMES L. ENOS, Chairman.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
- 1858.—CINCINNATI, O.
Z. RICHARDS, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
A. J. RICKOFF, Treasurer.
- 1859.—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. RICKOFF, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
C. S. PENNELL, Treasurer.
- 1860.—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. BULKLEY, President.
Z. RICHARDS, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
- 1861, 1862.—No session.
- 1863.—CHICAGO, ILL.
JOHN D. PHILBRICK, President.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
- 1864.—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. WELLS, President.
DAVID N. CAMP, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1865.—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. GREENE, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1866.—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. WICKERSHAM, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
S. P. BATES, Treasurer.
- 1867.—No session.
- 1868.—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. GREGORY, President.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, Secretary.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Treasurer.
- 1869.—TRENTON, N. J.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
A. L. BARBER, Treasurer.
- 1870.—CLEVELAND, O.
DANIEL B. HAGAR, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
W. E. CROSBY, Treasurer.

NAME CHANGED TO

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

- 1871.—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. PICKARD, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1872.—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. WHITE, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1873.—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. NORTHROP, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1874.—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. WHITE, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1875.—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. HARRIS, President.
W. R. ABBOTT, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1876.—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. PHELPS, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1877.—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. NEWELL, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1878.—No session.
- 1879.—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
JOHN HANCOCK, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1880.—CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.
J. ORMOND WILSON, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.

- 1881.—ATLANTA, GA.
JAMES H. SMART, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.
- 1882.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. ORR, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
H. S. TARBELL, Treasurer.
- 1883.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. TAPPAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1884.—MADISON, WIS.
THOMAS W. BICKNELL, President.
H. S. TARBELL, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1885.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. LOUIS SOLDAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1886.—TOPEKA, KAN.
N. A. CALKINS, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1887.—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. SHELDON, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1888.—SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
AARON GOVE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1889.—NASHVILLE, TENN.
ALBERT P. MARBLE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1890.—ST. PAUL, MINN.
J. H. CANFIELD, President.
W. R. GARRETT, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1891.—TORONTO, ONTARIO.
W. R. GARRETT, President.
E. H. COOK, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1892.—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. H. COOK, President.
R. W. STEVENSON, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1893.—CHICAGO, ILL.
(International Congress of Education.)
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1894.—ASBURY PARK, N. J.
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1895.—DENVER, COLO.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1896.—BUFFALO, N. Y.
NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1897.—MILWAUKEE, WIS.
CHARLES R. SKINNER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1898.—WASHINGTON, D. C.
J. M. GREENWOOD, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1899.—LOS ANGELES, CAL.
E. ORAM LYTE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. MCNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1900.—CHARLESTON, S. C.
OSCAR T. CORSON, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
CARROLL G. PEARSE, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF THE UNITED STATES

OFFICERS FOR 1899-1900

GENERAL ASSOCIATION

OSCAR T. CORSON	<i>President</i>	Columbus, O.
IRWIN SHEPARD	<i>Secretary</i>	Winona, Minn.
CARROLL G. PEARSE	<i>Treasurer</i>	Omaha, Neb.

VICE-PRESIDENTS

E. ORAM LYTE, Millersville, Pa.	W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Louisville, Ky.
J. A. FOSHAY, Los Angeles, Cal.	W. A. BELL, Yellow Springs, O.
H. M. SLAUSON, Ann Arbor, Mich.	W. F. SLATON, Atlanta, Ga.
E. B. McELROY, Eugene, Ore.	L. W. BUCHHOLZ, Tampa, Fla.
J. P. HENDRICKS, Butte, Mont.	MRS. GASTON BOYD, Newton, Kan.
J. M. GREEN, Trenton, N. J.	GEORGE H. CONLEY, Boston, Mass.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES

(See Art. IV, sec. 9, of the constitution.)

ALBERT G. LANE	<i>Chairman</i>	Chicago, Ill.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER	<i>Secretary</i>	New York, N. Y.
J. ORMOND WILSON	Washington, D. C.	Term expires July, 1900
F. LOUIS SOLDAN	St. Louis, Mo.	Term expires July, 1901
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER	New York, N. Y.	Term expires July, 1902
ALBERT G. LANE	Chicago, Ill.	Term expires July, 1903
OSCAR T. CORSON	Columbus, O.	<i>Ex officio</i>

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

(See Art. IV, secs. 2 and 11, of the constitution.)

OSCAR T. CORSON	<i>President</i>	Columbus, O.
E. ORAM LYTE	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Millersville, Pa.
CARROLL G. PEARSE	<i>Treasurer</i>	Omaha, Neb.
ALBERT G. LANE	<i>Chairman Board of Trustees</i> ...	Chicago, Ill.
WM. T. HARRIS	<i>Member by election</i>	Washington, D. C.
IRWIN SHEPARD	<i>Secretary</i>	Winona, Minn.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Directors ex officio

(See Art. IV, sec. 2, of the constitution.)

OSCAR T. CORSON, Columbus, O.	C. G. PEARSE, Omaha, Neb.
E. ORAM LYTE, Millersville, Pa.	ALBERT G. LANE, Chicago, Ill.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.	

Life Directors

(See Art. IV, sec. 2, of the constitution.)

BICKNELL, THOMAS W., Providence, R. I.	CANFIELD, JAMES H., New York, N. Y.
BOARD OF EDUCATION, Nashville, Tenn.	COOK, E. H., Yonkers, N. Y.
BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY, New York, N. Y.	DOUGHERTY, NEWTON C., Peoria, Ill.

Life Directors—continued

FAIRCHILD, GEORGE T., Berea, Ky.	HELPS, W. F., St. Paul, Minn.
GARRETT, W. R., Nashville, Tenn.	PICKARD, JOSIAH L., Iowa City, Ia.
GOVE, AARON, Denver, Colo.	PIKE, JOSHUA, Jerseyville, Ill.
GRAHAM, H. A., Grayling, Mich.	RICHARDS, ZALMON, Washington, D. C.
GREENWOOD, J. M., Kansas City, Mo.	SHELDON, W. E., Boston, Mass.
HALL, CALEB G., New Berlin, N. Y.	SKINNER, CHARLES R., Albany, N. Y.
HARRIS, Wm. T., Washington, D. C.	SMART, JAMES H., Lafayette, Ind.
HUNT, MARY H., Boston, Mass.	SOLDAN, F. LOUIS, St. Louis, Mo.
JEWETT, A. V., Abilene, Kan.	STRATTON, C. C., University Park, Ore.
LANE, ALBERT G., Chicago, Ill.	TAYLOR, A. R., Emporia, Kan.
LYTE, E. ORAM, Millersville, Pa.	TEACHERS' INSTITUTE, Philadelphia, Pa.
MARBLE, ALBERT P., New York, N. Y.	WHITE, CHARLES G., Lake Linden, Mich.
MARSHALL, T. MARCELLUS, Glenville, W. Va.	WHITE, E. E., Columbus, O.
PARKER, CHARLES I., South Chicago, Ill.	WILSON, J. ORMOND, Washington, D. C.

Directors by Election

North Atlantic Division

Maine	JOHN S. LOCKE	Saco
New Hampshire.....	CHANNING FOLSOM.....	Dover
Vermont	MASON S. STONE.....	Montpelier
Massachusetts.....	WILL S. MONROE.....	Westfield
Rhode Island.....	GEORGE E. CHURCH	Providence
Connecticut	C. N. KENDALL	New Haven
New York.....	AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING	New York
New Jersey.....	H. BREWSTER WILLIS	New Brunswick

South Atlantic Division

Pennsylvania	H. W. FISHER.....	Pittsburg
Delaware.....	A. H. BERLIN.....	Wilmington
Maryland	E. B. PRETTYMAN	Baltimore
District of Columbia.....	W. B. POWELL.....	Washington
Virginia.....	E. C. GLASS	Lynchburg
West Virginia.....	J. N. DEAHL.....	Claude
North Carolina.....	E. A. ALDERMAN	Chapel Hill
South Carolina.....	F. C. WOODWARD	Columbia
Florida.....	W. N. SHEATS.....	Tallahassee

South Central Division

Kentucky.....	McHENRY RHOADS.....	Frankfort
Tennessee.....	H. C. WEBER.....	Nashville
Georgia.....	WILLIAM M. SLATON.....	Atlanta
Alabama.....	J. H. PHILLIPS	Birmingham
Mississippi	R. B. FULTON	University
Louisiana.....	WARREN EASTON.....	New Orleans
Texas.....	ALEXANDER HOGG	Fort Worth
Oklahoma.....	DAVID R. BOYD.....	Norman
Arkansas	J. R. RIGHTSELL.....	Little Rock
Indian Territory.....	W. A. CALDWELL	Muskogee

North Central Division

Ohio.....	J. A. SHAWAN	Columbus
Indiana.....	J. W. CARR	Anderson
Illinois.....	J. H. COLLINS	Springfield
Michigan	D. W. SPRINGER.....	Ann Arbor
Wisconsin.....	L. D. HARVEY	Milwaukee
Iowa.....	W. M. BEARDSHEAR	Ames
Minnesota.....	F. V. HUBBARD	Red Wing
Missouri.....	W. T. CARRINGTON	Jefferson City
North Dakota.....	W. E. HOOVER.....	Park River
South Dakota.....	FRANK CRANE	Watertown
Nebraska	J. H. MILLER	Lincoln
Kansas	FRANK R. DYER	Wichita

Directors by Election—continued

Western Division

Montana.....	SAMUEL D. LARGENT	Great Falls
Wyoming.....	ESTELLE REEL	Washington, D. C.
Colorado.....	L. C. GREENLEE.....	Denver
New Mexico.....	MRS. E. R. JACKSON.....	Silver City
Arizona.....	F. A. COOLEY.....	Tucson
Utah.....	F. B. COOPER.....	Salt Lake City
Nevada	J. E. STUBBS.....	Reno
Idaho.....	J. W. DANIELS	Boise
Washington.....	O. C. WHITNEY.....	Tacoma
Oregon.....	E. D. RESSLER.....	Eugene
California.....	JOHN SWETT.....	Martinez

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ELMER E. BROWN	<i>Vice-President</i>	Berkeley, Cal.
Miss BETTIE A. DUTTON.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Cleveland, O.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.....	<i>Executive Committee</i>	New York, N. Y.
Miss LUCIA STICKNEY.....	<i>Executive Committee</i>	Cleveland, O.
ELMER E. BROWN	<i>Executive Committee</i>	Berkeley, Cal.

Kindergarten

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Miss MINNIE MACFEAT.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Rock Hill, S. C.
Miss EVELYN HOLMES.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Charleston, S. C.

Elementary

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J. W. DINSMORE.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Beatrice, Neb.
Miss BETTIE A. DUTTON.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Cleveland, O.

Secondary

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G. B. MORRISON.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Kansas City, Mo.
H. L. BOLTWOOD.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Evanston, Ill.

Higher

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WILLIAM F. KING.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Mt. Vernon, Ia.
OSCAR J. CRAIG.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Missoula, Mont.

Normal

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Miss N. CROUSE.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Indianapolis, Ind.
CHARLES B. DYKE	<i>Secretary</i>	Hampton, Va.

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G. R. GLENN	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Atlanta, Ga.
J. A. SHAWAN.....	<i>Second Vice-President</i>	Columbus, O.
C. M. JORDAN.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Minneapolis, Minn.

Manual

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CHARLES A. BENNETT	<i>Vice-President</i>	Peoria, Ill.
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Art

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HENRY T. ARDLEY	<i>Vice-President</i>	Berkeley, Cal.
Miss MARY A. WOODMANSEE	<i>Secretary</i>	Dayton, O.
WILLIAM A. MASON	<i>Executive Committee</i>	Philadelphia, Pa.

Music

HERBERT GRIGGS.....	<i>President</i>	Denver, Colo.
Mrs. GERTRUDE B. PARSONS.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Los Angeles, Cal.
Mrs. CONSTANCE B. SMITH.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Jacksonville, Ill.

Business

CARL C. MARSHALL.....	<i>President</i>	Battle Creek, Mich.
M. B. WICKS.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Philadelphia, Pa.
I. O. CRISSY.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Albany, N. Y.
W. C. STEVENSON.....	<i>Chairman Executive Committee</i>	Emporia, Kan.

Child Study

FREDERIC L. BURK.....	<i>President</i>	Santa Barbara, Cal.
THOMAS P. BAILEY, JR.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Berkeley, Cal.
Miss CELESTIA S. PARRISH.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Lynchburg, Va.

Physical Training

GEORGE W. FITZ.....	<i>President</i>	Cambridge, Mass.
W. O. KROHN.....	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Hospital, Ill.
Miss ELLEN LE GARDE.....	<i>Second Vice-President</i>	Providence, R. I.
Miss MABEL PRAY.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Toledo, O.

Science

GEORGE MANN RICHARDSON.....	<i>President</i>	Stanford Univ., Cal.
CHARLES WILLIAM DABNEY.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Knoxville, Tenn.
CHARLES B. WILSON.....	<i>Secretary and Acting President</i>	Westfield, Mass.

School Administration

E. E. BARTHELL.....	<i>President</i>	Nashville, Tenn.
THOMAS M. GAFNEY.....	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Syracuse, N. Y.
E. F. BRADT.....	<i>Second Vice-President</i>	Ishpeming, Mich.
WILLIAM GEORGE BRUCE.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Milwaukee, Wis.
CHARLES CASSATT DAVIS.....	<i>Chairman of Executive Committee</i>	Los Angeles, Cal.

Library

SHERMAN WILLIAMS.....	<i>President</i>	Glens Falls, N. Y.
Mrs. HARRIET CHILD WADLEIGH.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Los Angeles, Cal.
Miss MARY EILEEN AHERN.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Chicago, Ill.

Deaf, Blind, etc.

WARRING WILKINSON.....	<i>President</i>	Berkeley, Cal.
Miss MARY McCOWEN.....	<i>V.-Pres. Subdept. for the Deaf</i>	Chicago, Ill.
EDWARD E. ALLEN.....	<i>V.-Pres. Subdept. for the Blind</i>	Overbrook, Pa.
Miss MARGARET BANCROFT.....	<i>V.-Pres. Subdept. for Ment. Deficient</i>	Haddonfield, N. J.
EDWARD ALLAN FAY.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Washington, D. C.

Indian Education

MAJOR R. H. PRATT.....	<i>President</i>	Carlisle, Pa.
MERRILL E. GATES.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Washington, D. C.
EDGAR A. ALLEN.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Albuquerque, N. M.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF THE UNITED STATES

OFFICERS FOR 1900-1901

GENERAL ASSOCIATION

JAMES M. GREEN.....	<i>President</i>	Trenton, N. J.
IRWIN SHEPARD.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Winona, Minn.
LEWIS C. GREENLEE.....	<i>Treasurer</i>	Denver, Colo.

VICE-PRESIDENTS

OSCAR T. CORSON, Columbus, O.	W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Louisville, Ky.
J. A. FOSHAY, Los Angeles, Cal.	O. H. COOPER, Waco, Tex.
H. P. ARCHER, Charleston, S. C.	WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON, Topeka, Kan.
H. B. BROWN, Valparaiso, Ind.	R. B. FULTON, University, Miss.
FRANCIS W. PARKER, Chicago, Ill.	GERTRUDE EDMUND, Lowell, Mass.
L. W. BUCHHOLZ, Tampa, Fla.	H. E. KRATZ, Sioux City, Ia.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES

(See Art. IV, sec. 9, of the constitution.)

ALBERT G. LANE.....	<i>Chairman</i>	Chicago, Ill.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.....	<i>Secretary</i>	New York, N. Y.
F. LOUIS SOLDAN.....	St. Louis, Mo.....	Term expires July, 1901
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.....	New York, N. Y.....	Term expires July, 1902
ALBERT G. LANE.....	Chicago, Ill.....	Term expires July, 1903
NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY.....	Peoria, Ill.....	Term expires July, 1904
JAMES M. GREEN.....	Trenton, N. J.....	<i>Ex officio</i>

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

(See Art. IV, secs. 2 and 11, of the constitution.)

JAMES M. GREEN.....	<i>President</i>	Trenton, N. J.
OSCAR T. CORSON.....	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Columbus, O.
LEWIS C. GREENLEE.....	<i>Treasurer</i>	Denver, Colo.
ALBERT G. LANE.....	<i>Chairman Board of Trustees</i>	Chicago, Ill.
WM. T. HARRIS.....	<i>Member by election</i>	Washington, D. C.
IRWIN SHEPARD.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Winona, Minn.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Directors ex officio

(See Art. IV, sec. 2, of the constitution.)

JAMES M. GREEN, Trenton, N. J.	LEWIS C. GREENLEE, Denver, Colo.
OSCAR T. CORSON, Columbus, O.	ALBERT G. LANE, Chicago, Ill.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Winona, Minn.	

Life Directors

(See Art. IV, sec. 2, of the constitution.)

BICKNELL, THOMAS W., Providence, R. I.	CANFIELD, JAMES H., New York, N. Y.
BOARD OF EDUCATION, Nashville, Tenn.	COOK, E. H., Yonkers, N. Y.
BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY, New York, N. Y.	CORSON, OSCAR T., Columbus, O.

Life Directors—continued

DOUGHERTY, NEWTON C., Peoria, Ill.	MARSHALL, T. MARCELLUS, Glenville, W. Va.
FAIRCHILD, GEORGE T., Berea, Ky.	PARKER, CHARLES I., South Chicago, Ill.
GARRETT, W. R., Nashville, Tenn.	PHELPS, W. F., St. Paul, Minn.
GOVE, AARON, Denver, Colo.	PICKARD, JOSIAH L., Iowa City, Ia.
GRAHAM, H. A., Grayling, Mich.	PIKE, JOSHUA, Jerseyville, Ill.
GREENWOOD, J. M., Kansas City, Mo.	SKINNER, CHARLES R., Albany, N. Y.
HALL, CALEB G., New Berlin, N. Y.	SOLDAN, F. LOUIS, St. Louis, Mo.
HARRIS, WM. T., Washington, D. C.	STRATTON, C. C., University Park, Ore.
HUNT, MARY H., Boston, Mass.	TAYLOR, A. R., Emporia, Kan.
JEWETT, A. V., Abilene, Kan.	TEACHERS' INSTITUTE, Philadelphia, Pa.
LANE, ALBERT G., Chicago, Ill.	WHITE, CHARLES G., Lake Linden, Mich.
LYTE, E. ORAM, Millersville, Pa.	WHITE, E. E., Columbus, O.
MARBLE, ALBERT P., New York, N. Y.	WILSON, J. ORMOND, Washington, D. C.

Directors by Election

North Atlantic Division

Maine.....	JOHN S. LOCKE.....	Saco
New Hampshire.....	Vacant.....	
Vermont.....	JOHN L. ALGER.....	Bennington
Massachusetts.....	FRANK A. FITZPATRICK.....	Boston
Rhode Island.....	GEORGE E. CHURCH.....	Providence
Connecticut.....	CHARLES H. KEYES.....	Hartford
New York.....	A. S. DOWNING.....	New York
New Jersey.....	H. BREWSTER WILLIS.....	New Brunswick
Pennsylvania.....	H. W. FISHER.....	Pittsburg

South Atlantic Division

Delaware.....	A. H. BERLIN.....	Wilmington
Maryland.....	M. BATES STEPHENS.....	Baltimore
District of Columbia.....	W. B. POWELL.....	Washington
Virginia.....	GEORGE J. RAMSEY.....	Richmond
West Virginia.....	J. WALTER BARNES.....	Fairmont
North Carolina.....	W. T. WHITSETT.....	Whitsett
South Carolina.....	W. K. TATE.....	Charleston
Florida.....	MISS CLEM HAMPTON.....	Live Oak

South Central Division

Kentucky.....	MC HENRY RHOADS.....	Frankfort
Tennessee.....	M. M. ROSS.....	Nashville
Georgia.....	D. Q. ABBOTT.....	Macon
Alabama.....	JOHN W. ABERCROMBIE.....	Montgomery
Mississippi.....	H. L. WHITFIELD.....	Jackson
Louisiana.....	WARREN EASTON.....	New Orleans
Texas.....	J. M. FENDLEY.....	Galveston
Oklahoma.....	DAVID R. BOYD.....	Norman
Arkansas.....	J. R. RIGHTSSELL.....	Little Rock

North Central Division

Ohio.....	N. H. CHANEY.....	Chillicothe
Indiana.....	T. A. MOTT.....	Richmond
Illinois.....	J. H. COLLINS.....	Springfield
Michigan.....	D. W. SPRINGER.....	Ann Arbor
Wisconsin.....	L. D. HARVEY.....	Madison
Iowa.....	W. M. BEARDSHEAR.....	Ames
Minnesota.....	C. M. JORDAN.....	Minneapolis
Missouri.....	W. T. CARRINGTON.....	Jefferson City
North Dakota.....	W. E. HOOVER.....	Park River
South Dakota.....	E. E. COLLINS.....	Vermillion
Nebraska.....	C. G. PEARSE.....	Omaha
Kansas.....	FRANK R. DYER.....	Wichita

Western Division

Montana.....	E. A. CARLETON.....	Helena
Wyoming.....	MISS ESTELLE REEL.....	Washington, D. C.
Colorado.....	H. S. PHILLIPS.....	Denver

Directors by Election—continued

Western Division—continued

New Mexico.....	MRS. E. R. JACKSON.....	Silver City
Arizona.....	MILTON J. NEEDHAM.....	Alger
Utah.....	F. B. COOPER.....	Salt Lake City
Nevada.....	J. E. STUBBS.....	Reno
Idaho.....	J. C. BLACK.....	Albion
Washington.....	O. C. WHITNEY.....	Tacoma
Oregon.....	E. B. McELROY.....	Eugene
California.....	T. J. KIRK.....	Sacramento

DEPARTMENT OFFICERS

National Council

CHARLES M. JORDAN.....	<i>President</i>	Minneapolis, Minn.
Miss BETTIE A. DUTTON.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Cleveland, O.
J. H. PHILLIPS.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Birmingham, Ala.
ELMER E. BROWN.....	<i>Executive Committee</i>	Berkeley, Cal.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.....	<i>Executive Committee</i>	New York, N. Y.
JOSEPH SWAIN.....	<i>Executive Committee</i>	Bloomington, Ind.

Kindergarten

Miss EVELYN HOLMES.....	<i>President</i>	Charleston, S. C.
Miss CAROLINE HART.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Baltimore, Md.
Miss ANNIE LAWS.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Cincinnati, O.

Elementary

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J. C. HARRIS.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Rome, Ga.
Mrs. SARA D. JENKINS.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Ithaca, N. Y.

Secondary

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Miss NETTIE FILMORE.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Cincinnati, O.
C. A. GRAESER.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Charleston, S. C.

Higher

CHARLES F. THWING.....	<i>President</i>	Cleveland, O.
WILLIAM M. BEARDSHEAR.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Ames, Ia.
WILLIAM H. BLACK.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Marshall, Mo.

Normal

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Z. X. SNYDER.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Greeley, Colo.
N. A. HARVEY.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Chicago, Ill.

Superintendence

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A. K. WHITCOMB.....	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Lowell, Mass.
W. F. SLATON.....	<i>Second Vice-President</i>	Atlanta, Ga.
F. B. COOPER.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Salt Lake City, Utah

Manual

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B. A. LENFEST.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Waltham, Mass.
L. A. BUCHANAN.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Stockton, Cal.

Art

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Miss MYRA JONES.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Detroit, Mich.
FRED J. ORR.....	<i>Secretary</i>	Athens, Ga.

Music

A. J. GANTVOORT.....	<i>President</i>	Cincinnati, O.
H. W. FAIRBANKS.....	<i>Vice-President</i>	Chicago, Ill.
H. W. GRAY.....	<i>Secretary</i>	New York, N. Y.

Business

WILLIAM E. DOGGETT	<i>President</i>	Brooklyn, N. Y.
WILLARD J. WHEELER	<i>Vice-President</i>	Birmingham, Ala.
EDWARD W. STITT	<i>Secretary</i>	New York, N. Y.

Child Study

THOMAS P. BAILEY, JR.	<i>President</i>	Berkeley, Cal.
Miss MARION BROWN	<i>Vice-President</i>	New Orleans, La.
PATTERSON WARDLAW	<i>Secretary</i>	Columbia, S. C.

Physical Training

GEORGE W. FITZ	<i>President</i>	Boston, Mass.
W. O. KROHN	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Hospital, Ill.
Miss ELLEN LE GARDE	<i>Second Vice-President</i>	Providence, R. I.
Miss MABEL PRAY	<i>Secretary</i>	Toledo, O.

Science

N. A. HARVEY	<i>President</i>	Chicago, Ill.
CHARLES B. WILSON	<i>Vice-President</i>	Westfield, Mass.
CHARLES N. COBB	<i>Secretary</i>	Albany, N. Y.

School Administration

W. S. ELLIS	<i>President</i>	Anderson, Ind.
ISRAEL H. PERES	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Memphis, Tenn.
JOHN OGREN	<i>Second Vice-President</i>	Charleston, S. C.
W. A. HUNT	<i>Third Vice-President</i>	Northfield, Minn.
WILLIAM GEORGE BRUCE	<i>Secretary</i>	Milwaukee, Wis.

Library

ROBERT C. METCALF	<i>President</i>	Boston, Mass.
JEROME H. RAYMOND	<i>Vice-President</i>	Morgantown, W. Va.
Miss MARY EILEEN AHERN	<i>Secretary</i>	Chicago, Ill.

Deaf, Blind, etc.

Miss MARY McCOWEN	<i>President</i>	Chicago, Ill.
E. R. JOHNSTONE	<i>Vice-President</i>	Vineland, N. J.
E. A. GRUYER	<i>Secretary</i>	New York, N. Y.
EDWARD E. ALLEN	<i>Chairman of Executive Committee</i>	Overbrook, Pa.

Indian Education

H. B. FRISSELL	<i>President</i>	Hampton, Va.
Miss ESTELLE REEL	<i>Vice-President</i>	Washington, D. C.
F. F. AVERY	<i>Secretary</i>	Miles, Wash.

TREASURER'S REPORT

TO THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

JULY 1, 1899, TO JUNE 30, 1900

MEETING AT LOS ANGELES, CAL.

Carroll G. Pearse, Treasurer, in account with the National Educational Association

DR.

To BALANCE from last report:			
In Union National Bank, Denver, (unavailable)	\$	66.19	
Cash		2,489.99	
			\$ 2,556.18
To RECEIPTS:			
From railroad and steamship lines, delayed receipts, Washington meeting	\$	822.00	
From railroad receipts, Los Angeles meeting:			
Gross	\$	20,216.00	
Less refunded membership		1,277.00	
			18,939.00
From memberships and enrollments paid Secretary at Los Angeles			7,029.00
From Secretary's office during year:			
Membership, enrollment, etc.	\$	3,436.26	
Sale of back volumes		1,141.50	
Sale of committee reports, etc.		677.35	
			5,255.11
From Board of Trustees, interest on permanent funds			3,451.39
From meeting of Department of Superintendence, Chicago, February, 1900			624.00
From copyrights			69.95
			<u>36,190.45</u>
			<u>\$38,746.63</u>

CR.

By EXPENDITURES:

Of department meetings:

National Council (971)*	\$	13.94	
School Administration (972)		25.00	
Music (972)		25.00	
Art Instruction (972)		25.00	
Manual Training (972)		13.10	
Secondary Education (972)		14.50	
Business Education (972)		24.65	
Physical Education (972)		21.00	
Kindergarten (972)		14.00	
Higher Education (972)		24.06	
Science (972)		8.50	
Child Study (972)		7.28	
Normal Schools (972)		22.50	
Elementary Education (972)		19.15	
Library (972)		25.00	
Deaf, Dumb, etc. (972)		23.10	
Superintendence (1000, 1008, 1012, 1014, 1017, 1018)		201.10	
			<u>\$ 506.88</u>

* Denotes number of trustees' order on which payment was made,

Of state directors and managers:

Maine (973)	\$ 14.75
Massachusetts (973)	11.56
Rhode Island (973)	9.75
Connecticut (973)	12.50
New York (973)	20.00
New Jersey (973)	20.00
Pennsylvania (973)	20.00
Delaware (973)	2.00
District of Columbia (973)	20.00
West Virginia (973)	20.00
North Carolina (984)	11.00
Florida (973)	15.00
Georgia (973)	20.00
Mississippi (973)	16.00
Arkansas (973)	20.00
Ohio (973)	20.00
Indiana (973)	20.00
Illinois (973)	20.00
Michigan (973)	20.00
Wisconsin (973)	20.00
Iowa (973)	11.00
Minnesota (973)	20.00
Missouri (973)	20.00
North Dakota (973)	20.00
South Dakota (973)	20.00
Nebraska (973)	5.50
Kansas (973)	18.35
Montana (973)	20.00
Wyoming (995)	20.00
Colorado (973)	20.00
New Mexico (973)	11.00
Arizona (973)	20.00
Utah (973)	16.00
Washington (973)	20.00
Oregon (958)	18.00
California (973)	20.00

Of special committees:

Committee on College-Entrance Requirements:

A. F. Nightingale (969)	\$ 32.00
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Committee on Necrology:

E. C. Hewett (968)	5.00
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Committee on Normal Schools:

N. C. Schaeffer (970)	16.62
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Committee on Libraries:

J. C. Dana (945)	\$ 65.96
Louise Jones (945)	32.00
F. A. Hutchins (945)	17.00
Sherman Williams (945)	2.99
	<u>117.95</u>

Of Executive Committee:

O. T. Corson, President:

Traveling (979, 986, 994, 1013, 1045)	\$ 165.80
Stenographer (1045)	75.00
Miscellaneous office expenses (1045)	33.74
	<u>\$ 274.54</u>

E. O. Lyte, President (1898-99):

Traveling (957)	\$ 113.42
Stenographer (957)	100.00
	<u>213.42</u>

E. O. Lyte, Vice-President:

Traveling (980, 989, 1022)	183.06
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I. C. McNeil, Treasurer (1898-99):

Traveling (967)	\$ 72.95
Stenographer and clerk (967)	70.70
Miscellaneous office expenses (967)	11.60
	<u>155.25</u>

612.41

171.57

C. G. Pearse, Treasurer:		
Traveling (987, 1004, 1023)	\$ 140.10	
Premium on bond (956)	50.50	
Miscellaneous office expenses (955)	32.18	
		222.78
A. G. Lane, chairman Board of Trustees:		
Traveling (953, 985)	\$ 95.55	
Miscellaneous office expenses (953)	8.15	
		103.70
W. T. Harris, member of Executive Committee:		
Traveling (988)	49.05	
		1,201.80
Of Secretary's office:		
Salary (946, 983, 1007, 1031)	\$ 4,000.00	
Stenographer (952, 977, 981, 990, 999, 1009, 1019, 1027, 1030, 1040, 1042)	464.33	
Postage (952, 977, 981, 990, 999, 1009, 1019, 1027, 1030, 1040, 1042)	642.76	
Telegraph (952, 977, 981, 990, 999, 1009, 1019, 1030, 1040, 1042)	118.86	
Freight and express (952, 977, 981, 1009, 1019, 1027, 1030, 1042)	55.44	
Traveling (952, 981, 990, 999, 1009, 1017, 1019, 1027, 1042)	398.63	
Miscellaneous office expenses (952, 977, 981, 990, 999, 1009, 1019, 1027, 1030, 1040, 1042)	160.07	
Clerks and messengers, Los Angeles (965, 966, 951)	561.55	
Filing cabinets (962, 950)	91.29	
Office desk (1015)	27.86	
		6,520.79
For printing and stationery:		
7,500 volumes of proceedings (997, 1021)	\$5,514.98	
Committee reports (1002, 1020, 1041, 954)	2,096.80	
Bulletins, programs, etc. (959, 960, 1029, 1038)	1,021.60	
Miscellaneous (961, 963, 1005, 1006, 1016, 1028, 1037)	288.63	
		8,922.01
For telegraph (964)		
		32.23
For express and freight:		
Volumes of proceedings (982, 991, 996, 1001, 1003, 1010, 1011, 1025, 1032, 1033, 1034, 1035, 1044)	\$ 2,662.43	
Committee reports, bulletins, etc. (948, 949, 1024, 1026, 1039)	80.00	
		2,742.43
Rent depository at Washington (944, 978, 998, 1026)		100.00
Official stenographer, Los Angeles meeting (947)		64.10
Auditing of securities in hands of trustees (993)		11.92
J. O. Wilson, services as custodian (975)	\$ 50.00	
Office expenses (975)	2.15	
		52.15
Press clippings (1043)		11.67
Total expenditures		\$20,949.96
Excess of receipts over expenditures		17,796.67
		<u>\$38,746.63</u>
SUMMARY		
Excess of receipts over expenditures.. ..		\$17,796.67
Transferred to Board of Trustees for permanent investment (974, 992, 1036)	\$14,000.00	
In Union National Bank, Denver, (unavailable)	\$ 66.19	
Cash on hand	3,730.48	
		3,796.67
		<u>\$17,796.67</u>

CHARLESTON, S. C., July 9, 1900.

The undersigned trustees of the National Educational Association have this day examined and approved the foregoing accounts of Mr. C. G. Pearse, the Treasurer, with all statements of receipts and vouchers for expenditures,

(Signed) { ALBERT G. LANE, *Chairman*.
 OSCAR T. CORSON.
 NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

To the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

The Board of Trustees presents the following report of the Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association, and its income, for the year ending June 30, 1900:

Permanent Fund, July 1, 1899:	
Mortgages on real estate.....	\$21,000.00
Kansas school and municipal bonds	27,000.00
Illinois, Indiana, and Missouri school bonds	19,500.00
Cash on hand for investment.....	6,500.00
	<u>\$74,000.00</u>
Cash received from C. G. Pearce, Treasurer, transferred to Permanent Fund from proceeds of Los Angeles meeting and from income of Permanent Fund.....	<u>14,000.00</u>
Total in Permanent Fund July 1, 1900.....	\$88,000.00
In the following items:	
Mortgages on real estate.....	\$45,500.00
Kansas school and municipal bonds	18,890.00
Illinois, Indiana, and Missouri school bonds	18,500.00
Total.....	\$82,890.00
Cash on hand for investment	5,110.00
Total	\$88,000.00

INVESTMENTS

Investment July 1, 1899	\$67,500.00
Bonds paid during the year:	
White township, Kingman county, Kan.	\$ 7,000.00
Washington county, Kan., S. D. 136.	500.00
Greenwood county, Kan., S. D. 2	200.00
Osborne county, Kan., S. D. 52.....	310.00
Eudora City, Kan., Bond No. 8	100.00
DeKalb, Ill., Bond No. 1.....	1,000.00
	<u>9,110.00</u>
	\$58,390.00
Investments during the year—real-estate mortgages:	
First mortgage, 5603 Madison avenue, Chicago.....	5,000.00
First mortgage, First Universalist Church, Englewood, Chicago	10,000.00
First mortgage, 4762 Lake avenue, Chicago.....	5,000.00
First mortgage, 4802 Lake avenue, Chicago.....	4,500.00
	<u>\$22,890.00</u>
Total investment July 1, 1900.....	\$82,890.00

INCOME STATEMENT

RECEIPTS	
Receipts from interest.....	\$ 3,474.12
DISBURSEMENTS	
Paid exchange for coupon collections.....	\$ 3.51
Paid express charges on bonds.....	6.82
Paid rent of box, Merchants' Safe Deposit Co., Chicago	10.00
Paid expense on loans	2.40
Total.....	\$ 22.73
Paid C. J. Pearce, Treasurer.....	3,451.39
Total.....	\$ 3,474.12

STATEMENT OF SECURITIES AND BONDS BELONGING TO THE PERMANENT FUND OF
THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, JULY 1, 1900

KANSAS SCHOOL BONDS

County	Number school district	Amount	Rate of interest per cent.	Interest payable	Bond due
Barton	66	\$ 330	6	Jan. and July	July, 1900
Cowley	143	360	6	"	July 1, 1900
Garfield*	24	800	6	"	Jan., 1910
Ness	41	200	6	"	July, 1905
Ness	70	500	6	"	July, 1903
Norton	95	200	6	"	July, 1902
Reno	51	1,000	6	"	July, 1902
Reno	129	300	6	"	Jan., 1902
		\$3,690			

KANSAS COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL BONDS

County	Kind of bond	Bond Nos.	Amount	Interest per cent.	Interest payable	Bond due
Cloud.....	City of Concordia. Invested on Sept. 24, 1895	35 to 40	\$3,000	6	Jan. and July	July 1, 1918
Douglass	Eudora City	9 to 20	1,200	6	March	One due each year March 1
Grant*	County	47, 48	2,000	6	Jan. and July	February, 1920
Hodgeman	County	1	1,000	6	Jan. and July	July 1, 1918
Lane*	County	11 to 13	3,000	6	Jan. and July	July 1, 1918
Marion*	City of Marion	1	1,000	5½	Mar. and Sept.	March 1, 1900
McPherson	Sharp's Creek Tp. Invested Dec. 12, 1895	1	1,000	6	Jan. and July	Sept. 1, 1916
Montgomery.....	Caney township	1, 2	1,000	6	April and Oct.	Oct. 1, 1916
Reno*	City South Hutchinson	1, 2	1,000	7	Feb. and Aug.	April, 1908
Seward*	With Bentley & Hatfield, Wichita, Kan.		1,000		Judgm't obtain'd	
			\$15,200			

ILLINOIS, INDIANA, AND MISSOURI SCHOOL BONDS

County	Amount	Interest per cent.	Interest payable	Bond due
Jackson, Kansas City, Mo.....	\$ 2,000	5	January and July	July 1, 1901
Noblesville, Ind.....	5,000	5	January and July	July 1, 1912
DeKalb, Ill.....	2,000	5	April 1	April 1, 1902
Cook, village of Morgan Park, Ill.	3,500	5	March and Sept.	September, 1905
Lemont, Ill., School Nos. 4, 6, 8, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 30, 32	6,000	5	June and Dec.	Issue \$16,000, \$1,000 due each year, Dec. 1
	\$18,500			
REAL ESTATE				
Providence real estate, first mortgage.....	\$ 3,000	6		
First mortgage, 1919 Wabash ave., Chicago...	5,000	5	May and Nov. 1	May 1, 1903
First mortgage, 5136 Hibbard ave., Chicago..	5,000	5	May and Nov. 1	Nov. 1, 1903
First mortgage, 428 W. Adams st., Chicago..	8,000	6	March and Sept. 15	March 15, 1904
First mortgage 5603 Madison ave., Chicago..	5,000	5	July and January	July 1, 1905
First mortgage, First Universalist Church, Chicago.....	10,000	5	October and April	October, 1905
First mortgage, 4762 Lake ave., Chicago.	5,000	5	March and Sept.	March, 1905
First mortgage, 4802 Lake ave., Chicago.....	4,500	5	March and Sept.	March, 1905
Total	\$45,500			

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed) { ALBERT G. LANE, *Chairman*,
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
OSCAR T. CORSON,
F. LOUIS SOLDAN,
J. ORMOND WILSON, *Trustees*.

The foregoing securities were examined at the Merchants' Safety Deposit Vaults, Chicago, June 29, 1900, and I certify that the above is a correct statement of the investments belonging to the Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association in the custody of A. G. Lane, chairman of the Board of Trustees.

(Signed) GEORGE P. BROWN.

*Interest or principal in default.

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
THIRTY-NINTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION
CHARLESTON, S. C., JULY 10-13, 1900

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

OPENING SESSION.—TUESDAY, JULY 10, 3:30 P. M.

The association met in Thomson Auditorium, and was called to order by W. H. Welch, Esq., chairman of the Local Executive Committee of Charleston.

Prayer was offered by Rev. A. Toomer Porter, D.D., rector of Porter Military Academy, Charleston, S. C.

Music by the First United States Artillery band, under the leadership of Professor Gustav Koitzsch.

Addresses of welcome were made by Hon. Miles B. McSweeney, governor of South Carolina, on behalf of the state; Hon. J. B. McMahan, state superintendent of public instruction, on behalf of the educational interests of the state; Hon. J. Adger Smyth, mayor of Charleston, on behalf of the city of Charleston; and Henry P. Archer, superintendent of city schools, on behalf of the educational interests of the city.

The conduct of the meeting was then transferred by the chairman of the Local Executive Committee to Hon. Oscar T. Corson, President of the National Educational Association.

Responses to the addresses of welcome were made by Dr. Eliphalet Oram Lyte, principal of the First Pennsylvania State Normal School, Millersville, Pa.; J. W. Carr, superintendent of city schools, Anderson, Ind.; and James A. Foshay, superintendent of city schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

Music by the First United States Artillery band.

President Oscar T. Corson then delivered the annual presidential address.

The President then announced the following Committee on Resolutions:

Nicholas Murray Butler, New York, *chairman*.

Edwin A. Alderman, Louisiana.

James A. Foshay, California.

Charles D. McIver, North Carolina

James H. Van Sickle, Maryland.

William B. Powell, District of Columbia.

William R. Harper, Illinois.

Alfred Bayliss, Illinois.

Charles F. Thwing, Ohio.

The Secretary read the following announcement:

"I am instructed by the Board of Directors to give notice of proposed amendments to Art. III of the constitution, concerning membership, to the effect—

"First, that active members only shall have the right to vote in the general association and in the several departments.

"Second, that active membership dues shall be payable at the time of the annual meeting, or subsequently before September 1 of each year, and that notice of discontinuance shall be given before September 1 to be effective for that year."

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—TUESDAY, JULY 10, 8:30 P. M.

The meeting was called to order in Thomson Auditorium by President Corson.
Music by the First United States Artillery band.

The topic of the evening, "The Small College," was presented by President W. O. Thompson of the Ohio State University, who spoke on "Its Work in the Past," and by President W. R. Harper of the University of Chicago, who spoke on "Its Prospects."

The meeting then adjourned.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

THIRD SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 10 A. M.

The association was called to order in Thomson Auditorium, President Corson in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Rev. D. M. Ramsey, D.D., pastor of Citadel Square Baptist Church of Charleston.

Music by the First United States Artillery band.

The topic for the morning discussion was "The Contributions of Religious Organizations to the Cause of Education." Papers were presented by President Oscar H. Cooper of Baylor University, Waco, Tex., on "Contributions by the Baptist Church," and by Dr. Conde B. Pallen, St. Louis, Mo., on "Contributions by the Catholic Church."

The following Committee on Necrology was appointed:

E. E. White, of Ohio, *chairman*.

Aaron Gove, of Colorado.

R. C. Metcalf, of Massachusetts.

E. Oram Lyte, of Pennsylvania.

Alexander Hogg, of Texas.

The Committee on Nominations, appointed by the President in accordance with sec. 1 of the By-Laws, was announced as follows:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

JOHN R. KIRK, of Missouri, *chairman*.

North Atlantic Division

Maine	John S. Locke	Rhode Island.....	T. B. Stockwell
New Hampshire	Vacant	Connecticut.....	F. E. Howard
Vermont.....	Mason S. Stone	New York	A. S. Downing
Massachusetts.....	Gertrude Edmund	New Jersey.....	J. L. Hays

South Atlantic Division

Pennsylvania	J. W. Lansing	West Virginia.....	J. Walter Barnes
Delaware.....	A. H. Berlin	North Carolina.....	Charles B. McIver
Maryland	E. B. Prettyman	South Carolina	Henry P. Archer
District of Columbia.....	W. B. Powell	Florida.....	J. L. Hollingsworth
Virginia.....	Wm. F. Fox		

South Central Division

Kentucky	W. H. Bartholomew	Louisiana.....	Miss Marion Brown
Tennessee.....	M. M. Ross	Texas.....	Alexander Hogg
Georgia.....	M. L. Brittain	Oklahoma	David R. Boyd
Alabama.....	J. H. Phillips	Arkansas	J. R. Rightsell
Mississippi.....	John C. Fant		

North Central Division

Ohio.....	John A. Heizer	Minnesota.....	Charles M. Jordan
Indiana.....	Joseph Swain	Missouri.....	John R. Kirk
Illinois.....	Alfred Bayliss	North Dakota.....	J. G. Halland
Michigan.....	William Lightbody	South Dakota.....	W. D. Anderson
Wisconsin.....	Miss Mae E. Schreiber	Nebraska.....	A. H. Waterhouse
Iowa.....	Richard C. Barrett	Kansas	William B. Davidson

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS—*continued**Western Division*

Montana	S. D. Largent	Nevada	T. B. Brown
Wyoming	Miss Estelle Reel	Idaho	Miss Doris McMaster
Colorado	Aaron Gove	Washington	R. S. Bingham
New Mexico	Hiram Hadley	Oregon	E. B. McElroy
Arizona	M. J. Needham	California	J. H. Francis
Utah	Frank B. Cooper		

The meeting then adjourned.

FOURTH SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 8:30 P. M.

The meeting was called to order by President Corson.

Music by the First United States Artillery band.

An address on "The State University," by President Joseph Swain of the University of Indiana, was followed by an address by Booker T. Washington, president of the Normal and Industrial Institute, Tuskegee, Ala.

Adjourned.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

FIFTH SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 10 A. M.

The association met in Thomson Auditorium, President Corson in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Rev. E. O. Watson, pastor of Bethel Methodist Episcopal Church of Charleston.

Music by the First United States Artillery band.

The topic of the morning was "The Problem of the Grades."

"The Problem of Discipline" was discussed by Miss Gertrude Edmund, principal of the Teachers' Training School, Lowell, Mass.

"The Problem of Classification and Promotion" was presented by Miss Elizabeth Buchanan, Kansas City, Mo.

"The Problem of Instruction" was presented by Mrs. Alice Woodworth Cooley, supervisor of primary grades, Minneapolis, Minn.

Dr. Emerson E. White, chairman of the Committee on Necrology, submitted the following report of the committee:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY

Your Committee on Necrology, appointed on Wednesday, finds it not possible to obtain the necessary information for the preparation of its report in time for submission at this meeting of the association. We therefore ask for permission to present a report, when prepared, to the Secretary for insertion in the volume of proceedings.

It has received from the Secretary the names of the following ex-officers and active members of the association who have departed this life since our last annual meeting:

Zalmon Richards, District of Columbia.
James H. Smart, Indiana.
William E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.
Henry Barnard, Connecticut.
Larkin Duntton, Massachusetts.
Emanuel R. Boyer, Illinois.
Edwin H. Owen, Illinois.
H. R. Blaisdell, Kentucky.
John Russell Olin, Massachusetts.
S. S. Parr, Minnesota.
A. E. Engstrom, Minnesota.
Miss M. J. B. Thomas, New Jersey.

Louis H. Galbreath, New York.
Elias J. Beardsley, New York.
Frederick H. Lane, New York.
Christine Gordon Sullivan, Ohio.
W. H. Morgan, Ohio.
John T. Flavin, Wisconsin.
Frank Ostrander, Wisconsin.
Miss A. N. Miller, Colorado.
William H. Shelley, Maryland.
Charles M. Davis, New Jersey.
S. Olin Garrison, New Jersey.
John Braden, Tennessee.

The committee will be greatly obliged if those who can supply needed data for an appropriate minute of any of the deceased named will communicate the same to the chairman of the committee at an early day.

Respectfully submitted,

EMERSON E. WHITE.
E. ORAM LYTE.
AARON GOVE.
R. C. METCALF.
ALEX. HOGG.

Dr. White then spoke as follows :

"It seems fitting that we pause in our proceedings long enough to place at least a few flowers on these fresh graves. The committee's report contains the names of three ex-Presidents of the association, and also the names of several other deceased members, who contributed much to the success of the association in its earlier history. Their work is done, and the places that once knew them will know them no more.

"Zalmon Richards was the first President of this association, and for near forty years he was a faithful attendant upon its meetings. It is believed that Mr. Richards attended more meetings of the association, and, to do this, traveled more miles, and at greater expense, than any other member. He always took a deep interest in the work of the association, frequently participated in its proceedings, and held various important offices, which he filled with marked fidelity and ability. For years past he has been looked up to and honored as one of the fathers of the association.

"William E. Sheldon was the first Secretary of the association, and, like Dr. Richards, he was a most faithful member for near forty years. He presided at the great meeting in Chicago in 1887, the largest meeting then held, and outnumbered by few meetings since. His organization and conduct of this meeting put Mr. Sheldon among the most successful Presidents in the history of the association. Mr. Sheldon filled the office of Secretary several years at different times, and always with marked ability. He was called to various other positions, which he filled most acceptably. No face or voice was more familiar in the association than his. We missed him at Milwaukee, and were pained to learn that he was ill, but all rejoiced to see him again at Washington, showing his old-time vigor and activity. This was his last meeting, and we sadly miss him from his accustomed place.

"Dr. Henry Barnard was never an officer of the association, but he took a lively interest in its success in all its history, and especially in its early history—the years of struggle and promise. Dr. Barnard was in a large sense the organizer of public education in several states, notably in Connecticut and Rhode Island. He was the forerunner, and later colleague, of Horace Mann in what has been called the 'common-school revival in New England.' He was not only among the earliest, but the ablest advocates of common schools, and in his later years he carried in his memory the history of common-school progress in the United States. He was a part of that history. Dr. Barnard, as well as Horace Mann, anticipated by many years the more important features of what is now called the 'new education.' His great work on the kindergarten preceded the practical recognition of kindergarten training in the United States. Dr. Barnard was the first United States Commissioner of Education.

"Time forbids even the briefest reference to other distinguished members of the association who have departed this life since our last annual meeting. It is hoped that the volume of proceedings may contain fitting tributes to their memory.

"We thus must take our leave of the dear colleagues with whom we have been so closely associated in the years that are passed. They have passed out of sight and into silence, but at each recurring annual meeting memory will bring back their forms, and we shall hear again their voices. As we stand for the moment by their fresh graves, our prayer is that our memory of them may long be green."

The meeting then adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING OF THE ACTIVE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

THOMSON AUDITORIUM, THURSDAY, JULY 13

The annual meeting of active members was called to order by President Corson at 12 M.

The first order of business was the presentation of the annual report of the Treasurer, C. G. Pearce, of Omaha, following which the annual report of the Board of Trustees was

read by Chairman A. G. Lane, of Chicago. Both of these reports had been printed and distributed to the members. A few explanations were called for and were duly made.

Attention was called to the fact that both reports had been carefully examined by the Board of Directors, and had been adopted by that body without dissent.

On motion, each report was adopted and ordered printed in the annual volume of proceedings, and a vote of thanks tendered the Treasurer and the chairman of trustees for their efficient services, and for the complete and satisfactory financial reports presented.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was read by the chairman, John R. Kirk, of Missouri, with the introductory statement that the nominating committee understood it to be the policy of the association, since the election of a permanent Secretary, to make the Treasurer's office an honorary office to be held for one year only, as in the case of the office of President.

Explanation was made that Miss Estelle Reel, of Wyoming, had been nominated as the thirteenth vice-president, but as the constitution provides for only twelve vice-presidents, the nomination was necessarily withdrawn.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

CHARLESTON, S. C., July 12, 1900.

To the Members of the National Educational Association:

Your Committee on Nominations respectfully reports and recommends the following nominees to fill the offices of the National Educational Association for the ensuing year :

NOMINATIONS

<i>President</i>	J. M. GREEN.....	New Jersey
<i>Treasurer</i>	L. C. GREENLEE.....	Colorado
<i>First Vice-President</i>	O. T. CORSON	Ohio
<i>Second Vice-President</i>	J. A. FOSHAY.....	California
<i>Third Vice-President</i>	H. P. ARCHER	South Carolina
<i>Fourth Vice-President</i>	H. B. BROWN	Indiana
<i>Fifth Vice-President</i>	FRANCIS W. PARKER	Illinois
<i>Sixth Vice-President</i>	L. W. BUCHHOLZ.....	Florida
<i>Seventh Vice-President</i>	W. H. BARTHOLOMEW	Kentucky
<i>Eighth Vice-President</i>	O. H. COOPER	Texas
<i>Ninth Vice-President</i>	WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON	Kansas
<i>Tenth Vice-President</i>	R. B. FULTON	Mississippi
<i>Eleventh Vice-President</i>	GERTRUDE EDMUND	Massachusetts
<i>Twelfth Vice-President</i>	H. E. KRATZ	Iowa

DIRECTORS

North Atlantic Division

Maine.....	John S. Locke	Connecticut.....	Charles H. Keyes
New Hampshire	Vacant	New York.....	A. S. Downing
Vermont.....	Vacant	New Jersey.....	H. Brewster Willis
Massachusetts.....	Frank Fitzpatrick	Pennsylvania.....	H. W. Fisher
Rhode Island.....	Vacant		

South Atlantic Division

Delaware.....	Vacant	West Virginia.....	J. Walter Barnes
Maryland.....	M. Bates Stephens	North Carolina	W. T. Whitsett
District of Columbia.....	W. B. Powell	South Carolina.....	W. K. Tate
Virginia.....	George J. Ramsey	Florida	Miss Clem Hampton

South Central Division

Kentucky.....	McHenry Rhoads	Louisiana.....	Warren Easton
Tennessee	M. M. Ross	Texas.....	J. M. Fendley
Georgia.....	D. Q. Abbott	Oklahoma.....	D. R. Boyd
Alabama.....	John W. Abercrombie	Arkansas.....	J. R. Rightsell
Mississippi.....	H. L. Whitfield	Indian Territory.....	J. D. Benedict

North Central Division

Ohio.....	N. H. Chaney	Minnesota.....	C. M. Jordan
Indiana.....	T. A. Mott	Missouri.....	W. T. Carrington
Illinois.....	J. H. Collins	North Dakota.....	Vacant
Michigan.....	D. W. Springer	South Dakota.....	E. E. Collins
Wisconsin.....	L. D. Harvey	Nebraska.....	C. G. Pearse
Iowa.....	W. M. Beardshear	Kansas.....	F. R. Dyer

Western Division

Montana.....	E. A. Carleton	Nevada.....	Vacant
Wyoming.....	Estelle Reel	Idaho.....	J. C. Black
Colorado.....	H. S. Phillips	Washington.....	O. C. Whitney
New Mexico.....	Mrs. E. R. Jackson	Oregon.....	E. B. McElroy
Arizona.....	M. J. Needham	California.....	T. J. Kirk
Utah.....	F. B. Cooper		

On motion, it was agreed to recommend that vacancies left in the Directory by this committee should be filled by the Executive Committee of the National Educational Association.

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN R. KIRK, *Chairman*.

J. H. PHILLIPS, *Secretary*.

Carroll G. Pearse, of Omaha, moved that the rules be suspended and the Secretary instructed to cast the ballot of the association for the nominees presented. The motion being duly seconded and unanimously carried, the Secretary cast the ballot as directed, and the nominees were declared elected.

President-elect Green was escorted to the platform by ex-Presidents Lane and Lyte, and briefly thanked the members of the association for the confidence shown in electing him to the high and honorable office of President of the National Educational Association.

The Secretary reported a communication from the Board of Directors recommending that certain amendments to the constitution be made, as follows :

In Art. III, sec. 3, to be added to the first paragraph the following :

Active members only have the right to vote and to hold office in the general association or in the several departments.

In the second paragraph, the second sentence to be amended to read :

The annual (active) membership fee shall be payable at the time of the annual convention or by remittance to the Secretary before September 1 of each year. Any active member may discontinue membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before September 1, and may restore the same only on payment of the enrollment fee and the annual dues for the current year.

PRESIDENT CORSON: What is the pleasure of the association with respect to the amendments to the constitution proposed and recommended by the Board of Directors ?

A motion was made and duly seconded that the amendments be adopted.

DR. E. E. WHITE, of Ohio: I hesitate to say a word in opposition to the recommendation of the Board of Directors. We may play a little fast and loose with constitutional provisions that refer simply to detail, but when we come to amendments that involve the fundamental rights of members, we must regard and follow strictly the terms of the constitution respecting its amendment. There is nothing clearer than that no changes can be made in the constitution except in the manner provided by the constitution itself. Now, under our present constitution—and I have had occasion to study it carefully recently—the active members have not the authority to change the constitution. No amendment can be made in the constitution except by vote of “the members of the association,” active and associate, at a regular meeting; and no amendment can be made at a meeting without notice at a previous meeting, except by unanimous vote. Now, it is clear that if amendments to the constitution are to be made by the members of the association, then such amendments cannot be made at a meeting of the active members called for business. This can only be done at a meeting of the association. And then, further,

note the infelicity of active members assuming the right of disfranchising all the other members of the association. As I see it, that question must be submitted to the membership of the association, and my suggestion is that these amendments be postponed one year, and that they then be referred to the general association at a regular meeting. Prior to 1897 all amendments to the constitution were made by the general association, and I think this is the proper course to take.

A. H. NELSON, of Chicago, Ill.: Mr. President, I am in favor of the motion that the proposed amendment be adopted. As I understand the matter, Dr. White is in error with respect to the right of associate members as well as active members to act on matters of this kind. Associate members in no organization with which I am acquainted have a right to act upon so vital a question as amendment of the constitution. Unless it is specifically provided in the constitution of this organization that associate as well as active members shall vote upon such questions as this, I believe that this body of active members has rightfully the authority and power to amend the constitution in accordance with the recommendations of the Board of Directors.

Upon request the Secretary read the provision of the constitution as to amendments, as follows:

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

The Secretary then stated that notice of the proposed amendments was given in accordance with the constitutional provision at the first meeting of the association on Tuesday afternoon, July 10, to the effect that action would be taken at this time on the amendments proposed by the Board of Directors.

CARROLL G. PEARSE, of Omaha, Neb.: Assuming that Dr. White's idea is the correct one, since notice was given at a former public meeting that action would be taken this day on this question, is there any reason why all members, associate and others, should not have been here at this time, had they desired to vote on this question?

DR. WHITE: This is an unusual interpretation. You cannot give a notice on one day of a meeting and have that avail in place of a notice at a previous meeting. Only one meeting of the association is held in 1900, and no amendment can be adopted at this meeting if proposed at any of its sessions except by unanimous vote. The word "meeting" has been thus understood ever since the adoption of the constitution. But my contention is that the constitution cannot be amended by vote of the active members. Notice the reading of Art. VII: "by vote of the members present." Who are the members of this association? The railroads have sold membership tickets thruout the country, and it is understood that those who pay two dollars are members of the National Educational Association. It ought to be clear that the fundamental right of a member of an organization to vote on all questions that come before it cannot be abridged except by a specific provision of the constitution. Now, the constitution limits the voting of members in but one direction, to wit: the active members alone can elect the officers of the general association. On all other questions in this association the associate members have the same right to vote that the active members have. And for one, I shall resist the disfranchising of the great body of the members by a change in the constitution without their consent, without their vote—a change by the active members of the association. We must respect the fundamental rights of the members of the association, and we can limit fundamental rights only in the way in which the constitution provides. The amendments must be adopted by the members of the association; and this business meeting of active members cannot pass the amendments proposed.

DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, of New York: I regret to detain the members of the association, even for a brief moment, but I am surprised at the obvious misunderstanding of the provisions of our constitution and the obvious forgetfulness of our constitutional history.

The amendments recommended by the Board of Directors accomplish a change in the merest details, and affect no existing principle and no existing practice other than to make perfectly clear what was the intent of the far-reaching amendments adopted at Denver in 1895. Those amendments were the result of an investigation, extending over four years, by a committee consisting of some of our oldest and most prominent members. The report was signed, if I remember correctly, by Aaron Gove, of Colorado; Irwin Shepard, of Minnesota; and James M. Greenwood, of Missouri. The purpose of those amendments was to rescue this association from the undignified and uneducational position of having its name, fame, and policies in the hands of any persons in the United States who might choose, under the provisions of the Interstate Commerce Law, to buy one of our excursion tickets with the coupon attached. Those gentlemen recommended, and we then unanimously adopted, a provision which was intended to make this impossible in the future. It was my fortune to be in the chair at the Denver meeting, and I followed each stage of the discussion with great interest. It was clear to me then, as it has been since, and as has been the consistent ruling of every President since 1895, that the amendments made this an educational association by limiting its active membership to teachers, and to those teachers and others interested in education who cared to take the trouble to pay an additional enrollment fee of two dollars and to keep up their membership whether they attended the annual meetings or not. If you will go back to the old volumes of proceedings, you will find that the membership roll contained the names of commercial travelers, ordinary tourists—a great collection of the names of persons who had bought the tickets. Under the provisions of the Interstate Commerce Law we could not procure our reduced rates without throwing them open to the public, and the question was: Shall the association be educational or excursionsal? The intent of the new amendments was not expressed with sufficient definiteness, and therefore it is the purpose of the impending amendment to make clear to everybody, what has been our practice for six years, and what every President has ruled, that no one but an active member is a real voting member of the association, able to participate in the formation of its policies or the conduct of its business. The associate members, who need not be teachers at all, but simply excursionists, are not in the least discriminated against. Our duty to them is discharged when they are given an opportunity to travel upon our tickets and to attend our public meetings. If they are teachers, they should simply pay the additional fee and come in on our roll. If you will look at that roll now, you will find that it includes numbers of the best teachers of the United States, and if you will contrast it with the old rolls, you will see what has been accomplished. Every President has ruled consistently, and there is no trouble here; but we have several departments, whose proceedings occupy several hundred pages in our annual volume, and it has not been made clear to them that they are subject to this general rule. This amendment makes that clear and nothing else. No person could be elected President of this association who would reverse the present ruling and turn over the control of the National Educational Association to chance excursionists.

Why was it provided that in some cases a unanimous vote should be required to amend the constitution, and in others a two-thirds vote only? Was it the idea that this association, coming together annually from all over the United States, could not take any step whatever to amend its constitution at one of these great annual gatherings? Obviously not. Why not? Because the Denver amendments were passed in this way—notice was given on Tuesday and the amendments passed on Thursday. The Milwaukee amendments were passed in that way; the Washington amendments were passed in that way.

I ask the members of this association not to be led into supposing that any great change is proposed. That was all accomplished in the most admirable and far-reaching manner at Denver, but the gentlemen who framed the amendments did not make it sufficiently clear that it included the departments. The directors have now framed an amendment to make that clear. The other amendment merely has reference to the conduct of the Secretary's office.

I desire to submit that by an unbroken series of rulings and acts, and by every principle for which we stand, this proposal is in order, and this amendment may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the active members present in this hall.

PRESIDENT CORSON: In view of what has been stated and of the precedents of the past several years, and in view of the fact that these proposed amendments do not in any far-reaching way affect the policy of this association, it is the ruling of your chairman that the motion before the house is in order and may be acted upon at this meeting, and that the constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the active members present.

A motion was offered by Dr. White, and duly seconded, that the consideration of the proposed amendment be postponed for one year.

DR. WHITE: The article of the constitution referring to its amendment is the old article; it is not a new article, but the article under which all of the amendments were made up to 1897; and now I think we are bound by the constitution, whatever may be the rulings, or whatever may have been the practice for three years past. Naturally, all were quite surprised to find that the constitution did not contain the provisions on which this ruling and practice were based. It is clear that the constitution has not justified the course that has been pursued. The question is whether it is too late to return to the constitution itself for direction and guidance. My judgment is that the constitution is the sole determiner of whether this motion is a correct one or not. All amendments to the constitution prior to the Milwaukee meeting, in 1897, were made by the members of the association and by unanimous vote. It seems to me the best way would be to put this action off for one year, consider it carefully, and then in the proper way, as the constitution provides, submit the matter to the association. We need not fear the vote of excursionists. Excursionists who are not teachers do not attend the business meetings of the association.

MR. PEARSE: May I be permitted to call attention again to a point which it seems to me that we ought to remember? I am entirely disposed to agree with the gentlemen who support the proposed amendments; but waiving that point for a moment, and assuming Dr. White's position on the matter of amendment to be right, notice of proposed action has been duly given. The custom in this association has been to give notice one day and to act on another day. Every member of the association can be summoned between the meeting of one day and the meeting of the next. There can be no snap judgment or advantage taken. The provision for amending the constitution evidently means what every President for five years past has said it did mean, viz., that notice may be given one day and action taken the next.

The motion of Dr. White to postpone consideration was then put and lost.

In response to a request, the Secretary explained the purpose of the second proposed amendment, in substance as follows: The constitution provides that membership shall lapse if not paid during the fiscal year, which closes nearly one year after the time of the annual meeting; but the active membership list must be compiled for publication, the annual volume published and delivered, before the fiscal year is half over. The Secretary is not able to determine who intend to continue on the active membership list unless payment of dues is made or notice of discontinuance given before the annual volume goes to press. The amendment proposed provides that notice of discontinuance of membership to be applicable for any year must be given before September 1 of that year—and simply removes the present indefiniteness as to the time when annual dues are payable and when notice of discontinuance shall be given.

A standing vote was taken on the motion to amend. The Secretary's count showing 53 for and 3 against the motion, the President declared the motion carried and the amendments adopted as proposed.

There being no further business, on motion the meeting adjourned.

IRWIN SHEPARD,

Secretary.

SIXTH SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 8:30 P. M.

The meeting was called to order in Thomson Auditorium at 8:30 P. M. by President Corson.

Introductory to the exercises of the evening the audience, under the leadership of the author, joined in singing the "National Teachers' Rallying Song," composed by Professor Arnold J. Gantvoort, words by W. H. Venable, of Cincinnati, O., as follows:

Under the banner of freedom rally
States of the snowdrift and states near the sun,
Lakeshore and seaside and mountain and valley,
Glorious commonwealths—many in one.

CHORUS

Swelling the chorus of proud exultation,
Army of peacemakers marching along!
Spreading the empire of free education,
Sing we the school-teachers' national song!

Legions of soldiers we drill in the college,
Reason's our arm'ry and books our supplies,
Pens are our sabers, our ars'nal is knowledge,
War we on ignorance, battle with lies.

Join in our anthem of conquering science,
Now be the banner of violence furled;
Truth, Love, and Justice, in holy alliance,
Shall, by our victory, govern the world.

A special program of patriotic music was presented by the First United States Artillery band, under the leadership of Professor Gustav Koitzsch.

The topic "The Influence of Music on National Life" was presented by Arnold J. Gantvoort, of the College of Music, Cincinnati, O., and president of the National Association of Music Teachers.

The address of President Gantvoort was interspersed by illustrative patriotic and national airs rendered by the First United States Artillery band.

Adjourned.

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

SEVENTH SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 10 A. M.

The association met in Thomson Auditorium, and was called to order by President Corson.

Prayer was offered by Rev. Charles S. Vedder, pastor of the Huguenot Church of Charleston.

Music—"The National Teachers' Rallying Song"—by the audience, led by Professor Gantvoort and accompanied by the First United States Artillery band.

The topic of the session was "Relations of Literature to Education."

The "Influence of Poetry in Education" was discussed by President William M. Beardshear, State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames, Ia.

"The Value of English Literature in Ethical Training" was presented by Principal Reuben Post Halleck of the Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.

"Educational Principles Applied to the Teaching of Literature" was discussed by Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh, professor of pedagogy, University of Pennsylvania, and commissioner of education for Porto Rico.

Adjourned.

EIGHTH SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13, 8:30 P. M.

The association met for its closing session in Thomson Auditorium, President Corson in the chair.

Music by the First United States Artillery band.

"The National Teachers' Rallying Song" was sung by the convention, led by Professor Gantvoort.

An address was delivered by Hon. G. R. Glenn, state superintendent of public instruction, Atlanta, Ga.; subject, "What Manner of Child Shall This Be?"

By special request, Dr. A. P. Montague, president of Furman University, Greenville, S. C., addressed the association in remarks appropriate to the closing of the thirty-ninth meeting of the National Educational Association.

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, as chairman, read the report of the Committee on Resolutions, which was, on motion, unanimously adopted, as follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, CHARLESTON, S. C., July 13, 1900.

In accordance with established custom, and in order better to enforce those beliefs and practices which tend most powerfully to advance the cause of popular education and a civilization based on intelligent democracy, the National Educational Association, assembled in its thirty-ninth annual meeting, makes this

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES

The common school is the highest hope of the nation. In developing character, in training intelligence, in diffusing information, its influence is incalculable. In last resort the common school rests, not upon statutory support, but upon the convictions and affections of the American people. It seeks not to cast the youth of the country in a common mold, but rather to afford free play for individuality, and for local needs and aims, while keeping steadily in view the common purpose of all education. In this respect it conforms to our political ideals and to our political organization, which bind together self-governing states in a nation, wherein each locality must bear the responsibility for those things which most concern its welfare and its comfort. A safe motto for the school as for the state is: In essentials, unity; in nonessentials, liberty; in all things, charity.

A democracy provides for the education of all its children. To regard the common schools as schools for the unfortunate and the less well-to-do, and to treat them as such, is to strike a fatal blow at their efficiency and at democratic institutions; it is to build up class distinctions which have no proper place on American soil. The purpose of the American common school is to attract and to instruct the rich, as well as to provide for and to educate the poor. Within its walls American citizens are made, and no person can safely be excluded from its benefits.

What has served the people of the United States so well should be promptly placed at the service of those who, by the fortunes of war, have become our wards. The extension of the American common-school system to Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands is an imperative necessity, in order that knowledge may be generally diffused therein, and that the foundations of social order and effective local self-government may be laid in popular intelligence and morality.

The provisions of law for the civil government of Porto Rico indicate that it is the intention of the Congress of the United States to increase the responsibilities of the Bureau of Education. We earnestly urge upon the Congress the wisdom and advisability of reorganizing the Bureau of Education upon broader lines; of erecting it into an independent department on a plane with the Department of Labor; of providing a proper compensation for the Commissioner of Education; and of so constituting the Department of Education that, while its invaluable function of collating and diffusing information be in no wise impaired, it may be equipped to exercise effective oversight of the educational systems of Alaska and of the several islands now dependent upon us, as well as to make some provision for the education of the children of the tens of thousands of white people domiciled in the Indian Territory, who are without any educational opportunities whatever.

Such reorganization of the Bureau of Education and such extension of its functions we believe to be demanded by the highest interests of the people of the United States, and we respectfully but earnestly ask the Congress to make provision for such reorganization and extension at its next session. The action so strongly recommended will in no respect contravene the principle that it is one of the recognized functions of the national government to encourage and to aid, but not to control, the educational instrumentalities of the country.

We note with satisfaction the rapid extension of provision for adequate secondary and higher education, as well as for technical, industrial, and commercial training. National prosperity and our economic welfare in the years to come will depend, in no small measure, upon the trained skill of our people, as well as upon their inventiveness, their persistence, and their general information.

Every safeguard thrown about the profession of teaching, and every provision for its proper compensation, has our cordial approval. Proper standards—both general and professional—for entrance upon the work of instruction, security of tenure, decent salaries, and an adequate pension system are indispensable if the schools are to attract and to hold the service of the best men and women of the United States; and the nation can afford to place its children in the care of none but the best.

We welcome the tendency on the part of colleges and scientific schools to co-operate in formulating and administering the requirements for admission to their several courses of instruction, and we rejoice that this association has consistently thrown its influence in favor of this policy, and has indicated how, in our judgment, it may best be entered upon. We see in this movement a most important step toward lightening the burdens which now rest upon so many secondary schools, and are confident that only good results will follow its success.

The efficiency of a school system is to be judged by the character and the intellectual power of its pupils, and not by their ability to meet a series of technical tests. The place of the formal examination in education is distinctly subordinate to that of teaching, and its use as the sole test of teaching is unjustifiable.

We renew our pledge to carry on the work of education intrusted to us in a spirit which shall be not only non-sectarian and non-political, but which shall accord with the highest ideals of our national life and character. With the continued and effective support of public opinion and of the press for the work of the schools, higher and lower alike, we shall enter upon the new century with the high hope born of successful experience and of perfect confidence in American policies and institutions.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, New York, *Chairman*;

EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, Louisiana;

CHARLES D. MCIVER, North Carolina;

WM. B. POWELL, District of Columbia;

ALFRED BAYLISS, Illinois;

JAMES A. FOSHAY, California;

JAMES H. VAN SICKLE, Maryland;

WILLIAM R. HARPER, Illinois;

CHARLES F. THWING, Ohio;

Committee on Resolutions.

RESOLUTIONS OF THANKS.

The following resolution was offered by Dr. Butler, on behalf of the Committee on Resolutions, and was, on motion, unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the National Educational Association hereby tenders an expression of sincere thanks and appreciation to all those persons, committees, and associations which have co-operated to promote the comfort and success of its thirty-ninth annual meeting at Charleston, S. C. Special mention is due of the obligation of the association

to W. H. Welch, chairman, and to W. K. Tate, secretary, and their associates upon the Local Executive Committee, as well as to Superintendent Henry P. Archer, and the teachers who have cordially co-operated with him in his labors on behalf of this meeting.

The hospitality of the citizens of Charleston has touched our hearts, and for it we are deeply grateful. The full, accurate, and eminently satisfactory reports of our meetings by the press deserve especial mention and commendation.

We are again indebted to Messrs. Wyckoff, Seamans, and Benedict, proprietors of the Remington typewriters, and to their representatives, for typewriter service gratuitously placed at the disposal of the convention and its officers. For these services and attentions, one and all, we offer an expression of grateful appreciation.

Dr. Butler then, on behalf of the Committee on Resolutions, offered the following resolution, which was, upon motion, put by the Secretary and unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That to our retiring President, Oscar T. Corson, of Ohio, and to our retiring Treasurer, Carroll G. Pearse, of Nebraska, we make a sincere expression of our thanks for their efficient services to the National Educational Association, and we assure them of our confidence, respect, and best wishes.

President Corson then introduced President-elect Dr. James M. Green, of New Jersey, who responded as follows:

Members of the National Educational Association, Ladies and Gentlemen:

One would be insensible indeed who did not appreciate most sincerely the conferring upon him of so great an office of honor and trust as the presidency of the National Educational Association. In making your choice you have been consistent with your traditional custom of seeking your executive, rather than have him come to you. I trust that this fact may be an assurance of your cordial support of my administration.

It is especially gratifying that you should honor me on this occasion of our meeting in this historic city. From boyhood I have found a charm in reading the story of the statesmen, orators, and soldiers of this section of our beloved country; hence, to be preferred in this presence brings an added sense of responsibility.

I am not expected to map out a policy for the year at this time, but it may be fitting to suggest two or three leading thoughts.

First, we should aim to render good instruction more uniform thruout every part of our country. While in our recent history we have stood emphatically for the common school, the close observer must recognize the fact that good common schools are found as yet only in spots; that there are large sections of our country where attendance at school is but for a small portion of the year, and where instruction given during that attendance is of an indifferent character. This means that many of our youths are still growing into manhood and womanhood without the blessings of that education necessary to good citizenship.

Secondly, our land is more and more becoming a distinctly commercial land. Our exports are now entering the markets of all the nations of the world, and he who interprets the national thought must recognize that it is largely upon commercial enterprises. Yet it is true, as will appear if we will study the curricula of the schools, that economic and commercial branches are rarely set for instruction in any thoro manner. What is the meaning of price and value? What is the meaning of co-operation and what are its possibilities? What is the meaning of corporation? What are its advantages and what its dangers? These and similar questions are not sufficiently answered to the youth of our land. Those who observe our great social agitations cannot help feeling that, whatever may be the virtue of the questions involved, more light is needed.

Thirdly, we should aim to popularize the higher education. Every nation, as every individual, has its distinct destiny and its distinct purpose.

What is it that distinguishes among France, Germany, Italy, England, America, and their respective citizens, no matter what may be the time or condition? I will

not undertake to define the national purpose of other nations, but it seems to me the germinal idea of our country was defined by its earliest settlers. When, in the cabin of the "Mayflower," that little band of nation-builders asked their scribe to write, as he lifted the pen he must have been touched by the inspiration of a longing that reached down thru the ages, and he wrote: "Equality before the law, freedom to worship God." In other words, the emancipation of the human soul. To work out this definition into its fulfillment should be our greatest aim. No other purpose can offer so tempting a goal.

If we seek empire, we can scarcely hope to rival Rome under the Cæsars. If we seek territory, we can scarcely expect to surpass Russia. If we seek wealth and commerce, we can hardly expect to outstrip Great Britain. But if we seek the complete emancipation of the human mind from the thralldom of heritage, ignorance, and dependence, we shall appear in the family of nations as a star with an entirely new luster, and one that surpasses all others. This is the highest possible education, the sole aim in life, individual or national.

In this presence I ask that the educators from every part of the nation will join me in an effort to make our association prosper during the coming year as never before, and this in view of all the brilliant success of the past.

And now, to you, sir, our retiring President: This meeting is distinctly yours in all the greatness of its success, and I wish to place again in your hands the gavel you have wielded so justly and with such satisfaction to your many admirers, and ask that you hold it until the close of this session.

President Corson resumed the gavel, and called for the singing of "America" by the audience, under the leadership of Professor A. J. Gantvoort, accompanied by the First United States Artillery band.

After benediction by Rev. John Kershaw, rector of St. Michael's Church, the thirty-ninth meeting of the National Educational Association was declared adjourned.

IRWIN SHEPARD,

Secretary.

MINUTES OF MEETING OF OLD BOARD OF DIRECTORS FOR 1899-1900

CHARLESTON, S. C., TUESDAY, JULY 10, 12 M.

The annual meeting of the Board of Directors was called to order in Masonic Temple, Charleston, S. C., July 10, at 12 M., by President Oscar T. Corson.

The following directors responded to roll-call :

Oscar T. Corson, Ohio; E. Oram Lyte, Pennsylvania; C. G. Pearse, Nebraska; Albert G. Lane, Illinois; Irwin Shepard, Minnesota; Nicholas Murray Butler, New York; Aaron Gove, Colorado; J. M. Greenwood, Missouri; Charles R. Skinner, New York; John S. Locke, Maine; Augustus S. Downing, New York; H. W. Fisher, Pennsylvania; W. B. Powell, District of Columbia; E. A. Alderman, North Carolina; F. C. Woodward, South Carolina; W. N. Sheats, Florida; McHenry Rhoads, Kentucky; William M. Slaton, Georgia; J. H. Phillips, Alabama; Alexander Hogg, Texas; J. R. Rightsell, Arkansas; J. W. Carr, Indiana; J. H. Collins, Illinois; D. W. Springer, Michigan; L. D. Harvey, Wisconsin; W. M. Beardshear, Iowa; W. T. Carrington, Missouri; Frank R. Dyer, Kansas; Estelle Reel, Wyoming; L. C. Greenlee, Colorado; Mrs. E. R. Jackson, New Mexico; F. B. Cooper, Utah; O. C. Whitney, Washington.

The following were elected as directors to fill vacancies :

Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut, *vice* C. N. Kendall, resigned.
J. Walter Barnes, of West Virginia, *vice* J. N. Deahl, resigned.
M. M. Ross, of Tennessee, *vice* H. C. Weber, resigned.
Miss Gertrude Edmund, of Massachusetts, *vice* Will S. Monroe, resigned.
James A. Foshay, of California, *vice* John Swett, resigned.
Charles M. Jordan, of Minnesota, *vice* F. V. Hubbard, resigned.
E. B. McElroy, of Oregon, *vice* E. D. Ressler, resigned.
John A. Heizer, of Ohio, *vice* J. A. Shawan, resigned.

Total number of directors present, forty-one.

On motion of Director Butler, the reading of the minutes of the last meeting, held at Los Angeles, Cal., July 14, 1899, was dispensed with, and the same approved as printed in the volume of proceedings of the Los Angeles meeting.

The annual report of the Treasurer was read and explained in detail by Treasurer C. G. Pearse. Special attention was called to the fact that the receipts from the Department of Superintendence at its meeting in Chicago exceeded the expenditures by over \$400, which was an unusual occurrence.

Explanation was also made of the increased expenses of the Secretary's office, owing to the fact that practically all of the business of the association now falls to the Secretary, and that all expenses of the registration of members at the time of the annual meeting, and the collection of all receipts during the year from railroads and other sources, which had formerly been charged to the Treasurer's office, are now included in the expenses of the Secretary's office. Attention was called to the large items for printing, postage, and expressage due to the unusually large editions of the volume of proceedings, and of the three special reports published and distributed during the year.

Statement was made that the receiver of the Union National Bank of Denver had given notice that the amount reported as unavailable would be paid in full at an early date.

On motion, the report of the Treasurer was adopted and ordered printed in the annual volume of proceedings, and a unanimous vote of approval and thanks tendered to him for his efficient services during the year and for the excellent report rendered.

Director A. G. Lane, chairman of the Board of Trustees, presented the annual report of the Trustees.

In explanation of the report, Chairman Lane called attention to a number of Kansas bonds paid during the year, amounting to over \$8,000, and expressed his opinion that ultimately nearly all of the Kansas county and municipal bonds would be paid. In the case of the Grant county bond, reliable assurances had been made to the board that payment of both interest and principal would be made.

At present certain compromise settlements had been tendered to the Board of Trustees in the case of the Lane county and the Reno county bonds, but these had not been accepted in view of the prospects for a more favorable basis of settlement.

In the case of the Seward county bond on which judgment had been obtained, favorable report of progress toward final settlement was made.

The default in the case of the Marion county bonds had been due to neglect of the proper officers to make the necessary tax levy to meet the indebtedness. An agreement had been reached by which the full amount of this indebtedness would be provided for in the next tax levy.

In the case of the Providence real-estate mortgage, report was made that the security was entirely satisfactory, the semi-annual interest being promptly paid, and the loan being practically renewed with each interest payment.

Full explanation was made to the Board of Directors as to the character of the securities in the other real-estate investments, and as to the care taken in inspecting titles and securing reliable guarantees for the same.

After full discussion of the details of the report, a motion prevailed to adopt the report and to extend to the Board of Trustees, and particularly to Chairman Lane, the thanks of the Board of Directors for the care exercised over the investments of the association and for the efficient conduct of all of the affairs under their charge.

In this connection especial attention was called to the valuable business skill and judgment which for many years have been generously given to the financial affairs of the association by Chairman Lane without compensation and practically without incidental expense to the association.

Under miscellaneous business Director Butler offered the following amendments to the constitution, to remove obscurity in language which had previously existed, and moved that the same be recommended by the Board of Directors to the active members for adoption at the regular meeting on July 12, as follows:

In Art. III, sec. 3, to be added to the first paragraph the following:

Active members only have the right to vote and to hold office in the general association or in the several departments.

In the second paragraph, the second sentence of the same section to be amended to read:

The annual (active) membership fee shall be payable at the time of the annual convention, or by remittance to the Secretary before September 1 of each year. Any active member may discontinue membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before September 1, and may restore the same only on payment of the enrollment fee and the annual dues for the current year.

After full discussion of the proposed amendments, the motion of Director Butler prevailed, and the Secretary was instructed to give notice of the proposed amendments at the first meeting of the association to be held at 3:30 P. M., July 10.

A communication was read by the Secretary from Mr. W. Scott, secretary of the Cheap Library Post Association, asking the co-operation of the National Educational Association in securing the passage of a bill providing for the transmission of library books thru the mails at second-class rates of postage.

On motion, the matter was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

A communication was read from Dr. B. A. Hinsdale suggesting the propriety of furnishing to each author of a paper before the association or any of the departments a certain number of reprints without charge. The letter was referred to the Executive Committee, with power to act.

A communication from the Missouri State Teachers' Association requesting the Board of Directors to make an appropriation to advance the cause of spelling reform was referred to the National Council for recommendation.

Communications were read from Professor Charles Mills Gayley, of Berkeley, Cal., who was appointed by the Board of Directors at the Los Angeles meeting as a delegate to the Alfred Millennial Celebration to be held in England in October, 1900. Professor Gayley desired to know what appropriation would be made for the expenses of the delegate, and estimated such expenses as likely to range from \$500 to \$700.

On motion, the application for an appropriation to pay the expenses of a delegate to the Alfred Millennial Celebration was laid on the table, and the Secretary was instructed to convey to Professor Gayley the understanding of the board that his appointment as a delegate was an honorary appointment, and that it was not expected at the time it was made that the association would be called upon to provide for the expenses of such delegate.

After announcements, the board adjourned.

IRWIN SHEPARD,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF MEETING OF NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS FOR 1900-1901

CHARLESTON, S. C., THURSDAY, JULY 12, 4:30 P. M.

The newly elected Board of Directors was called to order in Masonic Temple at 4:30 P. M., July 12, by President James M. Green. The following directors responded to roll-call:

James M. Green, of New Jersey; A. G. Lane, of Illinois; L. C. Greenlee, of Colorado; Nicholas Murray Butler, of New York; Aaron Gove, of Colorado; E. Oram Lyte, of Pennsylvania; Frank A. Fitzpatrick, of Massachusetts; Charles A. Keyes, of Connecticut; Augustus S. Downing, of New York; H. Brewster Willis, of New Jersey; M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; W. B. Powell, of the District of Columbia; George J. Ramsey, of Virginia; J. Walter Barnes, of West Virginia; W. T. Whitsett, of North Carolina; W. K. Tate, of South Carolina; Miss Clem Hampton, of Florida; M. M. Ross, of Tennessee; D. Q. Abbott, of Georgia; John W. Abercrombie, of Alabama; J. M. Fendley, of Texas; J. R. Rightsell, of Arkansas; N. H. Chaney, of Ohio; T. A. Mott, of Indiana; J. H. Collins, of Illinois; D. W. Springer, of Michigan; L. D. Harvey, of Wisconsin; W. M. Beardshear, of Iowa; C. M. Jordan, of Minnesota; C. G. Pearse, of Nebraska; Frank R. Dyer, of Kansas; E. A. Carleton, of Montana; J. C. Black, of Idaho; O. C. Whitney, of Washington; Irwin Shepard, of Minnesota. Total present, thirty-five.

The minutes of the meeting of the Board of Directors held on July 10 were read and approved.

On motion, a committee, consisting of Directors Lane, Gove, and Willis, was appointed to nominate members of the National Council.

On motion of Director Lyte, Newton C. Dougherty, of Illinois, was nominated trustee for four years, to succeed J. Ormond Wilson, of Washington, D. C., whose term of office had expired. No other nominations being offered, the Secretary was by unanimous vote directed to cast the ballot of the directors for the nominee. The ballot was so cast, and Director Dougherty was declared elected.

On motion of Director Ramsey, the Secretary was directed by unanimous vote to cast the ballot of the directors for William T. Harris to succeed himself as member of the Executive Committee.

The ballot was so cast, and Dr. Harris declared elected.

President Green announced as the next order of business the receiving of invitations for the next place of meeting.

The roll of states was called by the Secretary.

Director D. W. Springer, of Michigan, extended an invitation to meet in the city of Detroit, and submitted written communications from the authorities of that city in support of the invitation. Director B. A. Hinsdale, of Ann Arbor, Mich., on behalf of the teachers of the state of Michigan, supported the invitation of the city of Detroit.

Superintendent Richard G. Boone, of Cincinnati, O., presented an invitation on behalf of that city for the meeting in 1901, submitting official communications from the various authorities of Cincinnati supporting the invitation.

Mr. Harry Walter Hutchins, of Cincinnati, spoke on behalf of the commercial and business organizations of Cincinnati.

When, under the roll-call of states, Washington was reached, Superintendent R. S. Bingham, of Tacoma, presented an invitation from the city of Tacoma to meet in that city either in 1901 or in any subsequent year, at the pleasure of the association. Superintendent Bingham announced the intention of the city which he represented to invite the association annually until a favorable response should be received.

After the close of the roll-call, H. W. Prentis, of St. Louis, extended an official invitation from that city and from the board of directors of the World's Louisiana Purchase Centennial to meet in St. Louis in 1903.

On motion of Director Ramsey, the selection of a place for the next meeting of the association was referred, without vote of preference, to the Executive Committee of the association, with power to act.

Director Gove presented the question of making a special appropriation for the expenses of the Department of Superintendence at the meeting to be held in Chicago in February next, and urged that an adequate sum for such expenses be placed at the disposal of the president of that department.

On motion, an appropriation of six hundred dollars (\$600), or so much thereof as should be necessary, was made for the expenses of the Department of Superintendence for the year 1901.

Director Downing presented a resolution indorsing the South Carolina Interstate and West Indian Exposition, which, on motion of Director Lane, was referred to the Committee on Resolutions of the general association.

Director Lane presented the report of the committee to nominate members of the National Council, as follows:

Members of the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association:

Your committee finds the following vacancies in the membership of the National Council, viz.:

By expiration of term:

James A. Foshay, of California.
J. H. Phillips, of Alabama.
Emerson E. White, of Ohio.
James H. Baker, of Colorado.
Oscar H. Cooper, of Texas.

By absence from two consecutive meetings, term expiring in—

1901, Ellen C. Sabin, of Wisconsin.
1902, Arnold Tompkins, of Illinois.
1903, George T. Fairchild, of Kentucky.
1904, James H. Canfield, of New York.

The following are nominated to fill the vacancies as indicated:

Term expiring in

1906, James A. Foshay, of California, to succeed himself.
J. H. Phillips, of Alabama, to succeed himself.
Emerson E. White, of Ohio, to succeed himself.
James H. Baker, of Colorado, to succeed himself.
Oscar H. Cooper, of Texas, to succeed himself.
1901, Charles D. McIver, of North Carolina, to succeed Ellen C. Sabin, of Wisconsin.
1902, Charles F. Thwing, of Ohio, to succeed Arnold Tompkins, of Illinois.
1903, George J. Ramsey, of Virginia, to succeed George T. Fairchild, of Kentucky.
1904, Carroll G. Pearce, of Nebraska, to succeed James H. Canfield, of New York.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was, on motion, unanimously adopted, and the nominees declared duly elected for the respective terms stated in the report.

Director Fitzpatrick called the attention of the Board of Directors to the matter of hotel rates during the sessions of the annual convention, suggesting that the local committees of the cities inviting the convention should secure written agreements from the hotel proprietors of these cities that they shall not raise their usual rates during the convention.

By common consent, the matter was referred to the Executive Committee, with the suggestion that the necessary conditions to secure proper hotel rates be incorporated in the contract with the city chosen.

There being no further business, the meeting adjourned.

IRWIN SHEPARD,
Secretary.

GENERAL SESSIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

HON. MILES B. MCSWEENEY, GOVERNOR OF SOUTH CAROLINA

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

"The schoolmaster is abroad," and I might add with propriety on this occasion, the schoolmistress too. I am glad that we have you with us in this historic old city. On behalf of South Carolina I greet you with a hearty welcome.

The soldier is abroad even in this day of civilization and enlightenment. There are those who claim that it is our duty to carry civilization and Christianity to the heathen, even tho we have to open the way with leaden bullets. It seems that we are about on the verge of another war. It may be the hand of Providence to carry our civilization to the uttermost parts of the earth. This is not the place nor the time to discuss this question. We have with us today another personage more important in maintaining our civilization than the soldier.

You remember what Lord Brougham said in a speech on the elevation of Wellington, the military hero, to the premiership: "Field Marshal the Duke of Wellington may take the army, he may take the navy, he may take the miter. I make him a present of them all. Let him come on with his whole force, against the constitution, and the English people will not only beat him back, but laugh at his assaults." In other times the country may have heard with dismay that the soldier was abroad, but now "the schoolmaster is abroad, and I trust to him armed with his primer against the soldier in full military array."

"The hand that rocks the cradle," it has been said, "rules the world," and second only to this hand in power, and in influence over the destiny of nations, is the power and influence of the school-teacher. His influence for the weal or the woe of the children under his care "will remain as long as the susceptibility of the mind to retain impressions shall endure."

Then how important a personage is the school-teacher! "In intellectual attainments his mind should be a fountain and not a reservoir. His knowledge should gush up of itself, and not have to be drawn up as by a windlass. He should be fresh in his feelings and sympathies; his heart should be young in all its pulsations, tho his head may be as bald as Elisha's." He must know and study human nature as well as books. And yet he must be a scholar who knows more than the simple routine of

the schoolroom, "and not a man whose half-dozen thoughts rattle in his vacant head like shrunken kernels in a beanpod." And, in addition to his mental and intellectual attainments, he must be a man of character and moral rectitude and purity of life, fully imbued with the spirit of truth, and his whole being should be guided by the light of a Christian faith.

But I am not here to eulogize the teacher, however pleasant the task might be. Neither am I here to speak of the teacher, and his duties and responsibilities, tho there is scarcely any subject of so much importance, of so much interest, and so fruitful. But I am here rather to bid you welcome to this grand old city, full of historic interest and noted for her hospitality wherever her name is known. I am here to bid you welcome to the Palmetto State, the peer of any in the galaxy of states. I am here to bid you welcome to the cradle of secession and the home of nullification, "which finally put the North on the pension list and the South on crutches." In material development we are able now to lay aside our crutches, and with our magnificent natural resources and advantages we have taken our position, and are able to stand erect amid the rest of this great country in material progress, and before many years will lead all others.

Our people you will find hospitable, kind, courteous, generous to a fault; and yet I doubt if there is another city in the union with the nerve and the energy and the determination to rise Phœnix-like from war, cyclone, tornado, fire, and earthquake, as the city of Charleston has done.

We are glad to welcome to our midst so many distinguished educators from all sections of this great country. Your coming, I hope, will not only be beneficial to you, but an inspiration to us.

South Carolina from the earliest period of her history has fostered education. Contemporaneous with the settlement of the country and the establishment of the colony was the organization of societies for the teaching of children. The first free school in the state dates back to 1710, less than forty years after the first permanent settlement, and when the population had scarcely reached five thousand. From that day there has been great interest in education, and many private schools flourished, and even during the Revolution "learning did not languish."

In 1777 were incorporated Mount Zion Society, Winnsboro, and Catholic Society, Camden; and in 1785 three colleges were incorporated, one being the College of Charleston, which is in existence to this day; one was Mt. Zion College at Winnsboro, which subsequently became an academy widely known, of great influence and usefulness; the other was at Cambridge. There were numerous other societies, most of them endowed by private benefactions. The most noted of them possibly was the Willington Academy, in Abbeville district, conducted by Dr. Moses Waddell, and here some of the most distinguished men of this state and

this nation received their early training. James L. Petigru, Hugh S. Legare, George McDuffie, Patrick Noble, D. L. Wardlaw, J. H. Wardlaw, and A. B. Longstreet—the latter the first president of the South Carolina College, and all distinguished South Carolinians—A. P. Butler and P. M. Butler, besides a host of other noted men who won fame in other states, all received their first inspiration to learning in this famous academy, presided over by that stern Presbyterian, Dr. Moses Waddell.

South Carolina College was incorporated in 1801 upon the strong recommendation of Governor John Drayton in his message to the legislature. It will soon have rounded out the century with a history of which it and the state are justly proud.

Other colleges were founded, and public and private schools were fostered, and the rudiments of an education were within the reach of every child in South Carolina. The census of 1850 showed that the expenditures for education within the state amounted to \$510,179, most of which was raised by tuition fees. By the end of the next decade the sum expended for education had increased to \$690,412, and during that decade there were in successful operation the South Carolina College, the State Military Academy, the Charleston College, Erskine College, Wofford College, Furman University, Newberry College, the Medical College of Charleston, besides classical institutes and academies in different parts of the state.

At the close of this decade the dark clouds of war hung over this fair land, and for four long years the men and the boys of Carolina went from workshop and the plow, the counting-house and the professor's chair, the classic halls of the college and the country schoolhouse, to the tented field, and when defeat came to our arms "the desire for knowledge gave place to craving for bread."

But one of the first acts of the legislature, after the storm was over and military rule had ceased, was to open the South Carolina College, and with it came the opening of the doors of academies and schools in all parts of the state.

By the constitution of 1868 a system of public schools was incorporated in the organic law, but on account of bad management very little was accomplished for the first eight or ten years. This system was reaffirmed by the constitution in 1895, and the special tax for common schools raised to three mills on the dollar.

Tho it was long neglected, South Carolina now provides for the higher education of her daughters as well as her sons, and possibly no state in the union, in proportion to population and wealth, does as much for the higher education of her youth. Besides the denominational colleges already mentioned we have Winthrop and several other private colleges for our daughters, and Clemson College, South Carolina College, the Citadel, and a college at Orangeburg for the colored people.

According to the report of the superintendent of education, South Carolina spent last year for her white schools \$536,353.26, and for the colored schools \$193,461.30; and this does not include the appropriations for the colleges. And yet we are not doing for the children what we should or what we would like to do.

It is worthy of note that the first manual-labor school in the United States was established in Abbeville district in 1796, when Dr. John De la Howe by his will, dated September 7, 1796, gave the greater part of his property to the Agricultural Society of South Carolina in trust "for the purpose of establishing and maintaining forever at his former residence in this district an agricultural school for twelve poor boys and twelve poor girls, to be boarded and clothed, and well educated, and taught to work." The trust was resigned to the state in 1805. Much of the endowment was lost during the war, but the school is still kept open.

Then there is the Winyah Indigo Society, the Cheraw Lyceum, and other noted societies and academies that have contributed to the education of our youth. In fact, the subject of education in South Carolina is an interesting one, well worthy of careful study. These societies and public schools have largely been supplanted by the graded school and the college. I hope it is an advanced step. In almost every incorporated town and city we have the graded school, and in many of the country districts the public-school fund is supplemented by local taxation.

But I must desist. I trust you will find the sea breezes pleasant, tho the mercury may play around the 100° mark. We are assured by the *News and Courier* that this is the most delightful summer resort on the Atlantic coast, and cooler and more pleasant even than some secluded spot on the mountain top. And it must be so. It may require faith, and a strong faith, on your part to make it so, but a sufficient faith is all that is needed.

Of course, you will take time from your deliberations to take a sail around the harbor, and to make a visit to Fort Sumter and Fort Moultrie, and the other historic points of interest, which will be pointed out to you. No one has ever been to Charleston who has not visited old St. Michael's and listened to the melody of her chimes, which rang the curfew for 162 years. These chimes first reached Charleston in 1764, and when the city was evacuated by the British army in 1782 they were carried off by one of the officers and afterward brought back. For nearly a hundred years they summoned to worship, or tolled the mourning of the departed, or sounded the chimes of rejoicing, until 1862, when they were taken to Columbia for safe-keeping, and were destroyed when the capital city was burned. The fragments were again sent to England and recast out of the same amalgam and in the same mold, and they still send forth the same sweet sounds of joy or the soft, sad notes of mourning. Of course, you will visit this historic church.

Once more I bid you welcome to our hearts and our homes, with the hope that your coming may be a benediction to us and a blessing to you.

HON. JOHN J. McMAHAN, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION OF
SOUTH CAROLINA

In welcoming the teachers of the broad union to the ancient city of this distinctively southern state—a historic individual whose character is known of all men, and, we are proud to believe, respected by all, if not beloved—I feel that, whatever of pleasure and profit your coming may mean to you, to us it brings a valued stimulus and many a useful lesson. In return we pledge you our hearty gratitude and a long remembrance. That fad of the day, “lest we forget,” has not been adjudged the frailty of the Southron.

This association, tho many educators from all classes of schools contribute to its results, would not be possible but for the great public-school systems, the establishment of which has changed the self-complacent, isolated pedagog of old into the rational and gregarious being of the present day, is transforming our educational ideals to the practical promotion of human welfare, and constitutes the most significant and the most beneficent world-influence of the age. On behalf, therefore, of more than five thousand public-school teachers of South Carolina I welcome you. We are not asleep to the opportunities and obligations of our profession, yet from conference with you we shall feel a quicker pulsation of ambition, a stronger dissatisfaction with conditions that should be changed, and hence can be changed and shall be changed.

We have a noble body of teachers in South Carolina. I would that you might know them as some of us know them. They teach largely for the love of the work—it must be so, for the money received is a very inconsiderable item.

This year closes the thirty-third year of our public-school system—public-school education as a complete system; not “pauper schools,” which we had before the war, which did a certain work for a certain class of people, but a complete system of schools for all the people, which the richest as well as the humblest patronize and are proud of; a system in which are now the best schools in the state, and upon which we rely for the best education of the future. This year, which marks the close of the first generation of public-school education in South Carolina, and is the last year of the nineteenth century, is signalized by your meeting here with us. We thank you. As we look back we have reason to be encouraged and to be assured of the future. All differences of opinion on the principle of public education have disappeared. Our people, with one accord, are now demanding better schools, and we are ready to profit by your experience and to receive light from you. You will be interested to know something of our educational conditions, and I cannot use better

the time I am expected to occupy than by pointing out to you some of our weaknesses. I shall not attempt to tell you of our strong points.

Of our forty counties, in only three does the school term average more than seven months, and in only two others does it average over six months—and that is for white schools; for negro schools, on an average, the school year in these counties is about four months. In nine counties out of our forty we have an average school year of less than four months for white and from two to three months for negro schools—a condition sadly discouraging to the teacher's profession. In our country schools we have few teachers who have had normal-school training. Yet when last year the legislature rendered possible a four-weeks' school for teachers in each county, and I made an appeal to the trustees and teachers to make it possible that the teachers might attend, out of somewhat more than three thousand white teachers more than two thousand attended these schools, and out of something over two thousand negro teachers over eight hundred attended. So there is a response of professional pride and ambition manifested that gives us hope for the future.

We have had for educational purposes for many years a two-mill tax on all the property in the state, besides one dollar a head on voters, with the possibility in some instances of extra taxes. In 1895 the constitutional convention which passed an educational qualification for suffrage raised the school tax from two mills to three mills, and provided easy machinery by which any district may vote an additional tax of not exceeding four mills. Many districts have levied this tax and established excellent schools. Our honor-roll now is the roll of districts that each year add themselves to this list.

Tho' the average of schools is as I have stated, we take pride in the fact that here and there, in even the poorest counties, thru the energy and ambition of a few men, we have country schools that are in session for eight or ten months in a year, and do as good work as is done anywhere in rural schools.

There are sections, however, where a local tax would be ineffective because of the lack of taxable property. But we shall soon have a state tax to bring up these deficiencies and to insure to every community a good school, worthy the name in every sense, so that adequate education shall be within the reach of all. To this achievement we pledge ourselves here in your presence, and as South Carolinians and Americans we will accomplish it.

HON. J. ADGER SMYTH, MAYOR OF CHARLESTON

Ladies and Gentlemen:

It is a great honor as well as a great pleasure to voice Charleston's greetings to the distinguished ladies and gentlemen I see gathered here today, in this convention of the National Educational Association.

That we were in earnest in wanting you to come to Charleston was proven by our sending that delegation of persuasive men thousands of miles across the continent to urge you to accept our invitation. That we are glad to have you with us we trust we have shown you by our deeds; hence words are not necessary to prove the sincerity of our welcome.

Gathered as you are from all sections of this great American republic, we welcome you to this city, where the first ordinance of secession was passed, and across the waters of whose bay that April morning the first gun sent its hurtling sound which echoed and re-echoed all over this broad land.

We want you to realize from your own experience that there is no longer any bloody chasm across which we must clasp hands today. It is not only filled up, but the tramping feet of our sons and brothers, those boys in blue of our army and our navy, as they marched side by side, under a common flag, to glorious victory over a common enemy, have forever obliterated every trace of its existence. We are Americans just as you are Americans, and as such we extend to you a heartfelt welcome.

Representing as you do the educational interests of this great country, we esteem it a high privilege to be your entertainers, and to sit at your feet as learners. For we realize that your influence in shaping the destinies of our land is not confined to the present, but extends to the future.

A man without education is like marble in the quarry. It shows none of its inherent beauties until the skill of the artist brings out the colors, causes the surface to shine, and makes patent every ornamental vein and spot that runs through it. So the educator works upon a noble mind and draws out to view every latent virtue and perfection.

Aristotle tells us that there is a statue hidden in every block of marble, and that the skill of the sculptor only clears away the superfluous matter and removes the rubbish. The figure is in the stone. The artist only finds and reveals it.

What sculpture is to the block of marble education is to the human soul. Michael Angelo, walking with some friends through an obscure street in Florence, saw a block of marble lying neglected and covered with dirt and rubbish. To the surprise of his friends, regardless of his holiday attire, he ran to it and at once commenced cleaning away the filth, striving to lift it from the slime and mire. His astonished companions demanded what he was doing and what he wanted with this worthless piece of stone. "There is an angel in the stone," he answered; "I must let it out." The block was removed to his studio. With patient toil, with earnest labor, with repeated blows of chisel and of mallet, he let the angel out. What to others seemed a rude, unsightly stone to his eye contained the buried glory of his art. A mason would have built the stone into the wall of an edifice. A cartman would have hauled it to fill

a hole or grade a street. By the process of his calling, the artist transformed it into a creation of genius, and made it a thing of beauty and a joy forever.

All around us lie human souls buried in the sloughs of ignorance and vice. There is an angel in each soul. Your noble mission as teachers is by training and by discipline, by constant and by unwearied toil, day after day, over and over again, so to shape and mold and change those souls that the imprisoned angel will be freed from its environment and soar out into the glorious light of intellectual liberty. The mother and the teacher are the powers behind the throne. "The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world," but the teacher who plants the immortal seeds of truth and light in the young and ardent mind comes next in influence and in authority to the mother, and shares her responsibility and her reward.

As we look backward over our life-story, while the mother's love and gentle warnings mark the initial chapter and lay the foundation of all our future, we recognize with tender gratitude the guiding and training hand of the beloved teacher, who early in our experience helped us so powerfully and shaped our characters for all time.

That man must live with a soul dead indeed whose heart does not overflow with grateful thoughts and loving memories of the teacher whose constant and gentle influence drew out all that was good within him, and filled him with lofty hopes and noble aspirations.

Reverencing as I do from my own experience your heaven-born mission and your world-wide influence, it is with no idle words that I bid you welcome to this ancient city, which has ever held the education of the young its highest duty, and has always esteemed and honored its teachers and its educators.

As you wander by the sad sea waves, the ocean breezes, as they whistle through the palms, will sing the soprano, and the seabirds with their cries, as they wheel and dart about, the tenor and the alto, while the mighty waves of the grand Atlantic, as they roar and pound the shore, will furnish the solemn bass, all joining in unison in a glad and joyful song of welcome, welcome, welcome, to this city by the sea.

HENRY P. ARCHER, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CITY SCHOOLS OF
CHARLESTON

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT]

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

Believing that brevity is the soul, not only of wit, but also of a speech on a July afternoon, I feel sure that I can add nothing to the words which have already been spoken by the distinguished gentlemen who have preceded me. They have but echoed the chorus of the welcome extended by the state of South Carolina, and by her metropolis, to the

National Educational Association. But I feel that I reflect the welcome and the greetings, not only of the school authorities of my native city, but of the trustees and presidents of the colleges of the state and the city of Charleston. In the name of the commissioners of the public schools; in the name of their humble servants, the superintendent, the principals and teachers; in the name of the pupils, from the kindergarten to the college, we not only welcome you, but we thank you.

We thank you, fellow-members — for I am now one of you — for having brought this grand army of representative and influential educators to this grand old city by the sea. We thank you for the enthusiasm which your presence has even already inspired. We thank you for those expressions of fellowship and good-will, of sincere and genuine brotherhood, which have come from your hearts and from your hands. We thank you above all that you have come to this southern city to lead us by an example which, God granting it, we will follow.

Yes, my fellow-members of the National Educational Association, we thank you more than we are able to tell you; but more especially and above all we thank you for that expression of a broad, liberal, national spirit of which that holy ensign, our national flag, is the symbol. We thank you that you are here today as our friends and our helpers, and above all as our brethren. For us, today and henceforth, as long as that national ensign floats, there is no North, no South, no East, no West.

In spite of differences in educational thought, methods, and opinions, we are all here today on a common platform of education in its broadest sense. I repeat: We thank you for your presence, and we bid you thrice welcome.

RESPONSES

ELIPHALET ORAM LYTE, PRINCIPAL OF THE FIRST PENNSYLVANIA
NORMAL SCHOOL, MILLERSVILLE, PA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

If there had been any doubts in our minds as to the wisdom of holding this meeting in this beautiful city by the sea, the eloquent words of welcome to which we have all listened with so much interest would have dispelled these doubts. But we had no doubts. The fame of the hospitality of the city of Charleston is world-wide, and we have come to this lovely seaside town from the north Atlantic's rock-bound coast and the waters of the far-off Pacific, from the valleys of the middle West and the snow-capped heights of the Rockies, from the great lakes and the great gulf, knowing that we should be received as brethren, the members of one great family, the citizens of one great republic.

This is not the first time that some of us have come south. Many years ago, with some companions, I crossed the Long Bridge at Washington and

trod the sacred soil of Old Virginia. There I was met with flags flying, cannon booming, and musketry rattling. From every part of the sunny South men had come to meet us, and the warmth of the reception they then extended to us overcame us, and the name of Bull Run passed into history with more of truth than poetry in the name. Today we are met again by a great army, but this time we do not fear the arms you bear. Today we acknowledge that you have conquered us, but this time we shall not run away. Many years ago I risked my life to escape from being taken to Libby Prison. Now I gladly surrender to the same brave men—I have met some of them here—foes no longer, thank God, but friends, and friends forever.

We are here in this land of bright skies to become better acquainted with you. Nearly ten years ago I happened to visit one of the schools of Charleston. It was just before the Christmas holidays, and several hundred children were assembled in a large room for their closing exercises. The teacher in charge of this multitude of little folk asked me to say a word to them, and I began my remarks by telling the little ones that when I left home my three-year-old boy commissioned me to buy him a pair of skates and a sled, and I asked the children where I lived. A bright, blue-eyed, golden-haired little maiden said: "At the north pole." I have sometimes thought that some of our southern brethren imagined that we lived in as cold and inhospitable a region as the little girl imagined I came from. But no; we are like you in thoughts, in feelings, in aims, and in prejudices; and we rejoice at the opportunity of meeting you in order that hereafter there shall be no north pole in your notions of us.

We have come into this beautiful south land as teachers and as learners. We want to teach you that you of the South can help us of the North in many ways, and that possibly we can be of some service to you. And we have come as learners. We need to learn by actual observation somewhat of the great problems that confront you, and that you are endeavoring with so much of bravery and patience and wisdom to solve. Each part of this great union—I do not use the word "section," Mr. Chairman—each part of this great union has its peculiar problems that the educator must study; and while the South is compelled to face questions of unusual difficulty, the North and the West and the central states are not exempt from obstacles that bar the way to rapid progress. The old and vexed problem of immigration, which will be solved only when our laws are so framed and executed as to offer a premium for honest industry and bar out the vicious and the lazy, confronts both East and West. The tramp question is almost wholly unsolved. The capital-and-labor question, which agitates all sections, and which is most burning where capital has most accumulated—these three great questions are in a sense one mighty educational problem, which demands the most thoughtful

attention of our most thoughtful educators, but which we can scarcely hope can be solved thru the schools alone. In the next few months we shall hear much of trusts—one form of the capital-and-labor problem—much of “imperialism,” and much of “16 to 1.” These questions have grown beyond the schools into the wider field of business and governmental life; but it is within bounds to assert that even these problems are not unaffected by the work of the schoolmaster. The schools should teach that it is not dishonorable to be rich; that wealth properly used brings its possessor honor and happiness. But they should also teach that the twofold aristocracy of character and culture should not be pushed to the rear by the aristocracy of money. While the banking house is important, the church and the school are more important. The citizens of a republic must not forget that man as *man* is greater than man as a money-maker, or even as a soldier, a statesman, or a scholar. We must not forget that the greatest thing in man, or about him, or belonging to him, is his *manhood*.

While the questions I have mentioned are the subjects of discussion, and possibly of disturbance, in many parts of our country, there are also serious questions that directly confront the schoolmaster. The terrible waste of time and energy in child education, the question of laying a proper educational foundation in our new possessions, upon which the future prosperity and permanency of the government of these possessions will largely depend—these and hosts of other subjects must engage our attention as we gather together year after year.

But, if I may speak plainly, probably the greatest good to be expected of this educational gathering is the liberalizing influence that we shall carry away with us and that we hope we shall leave with you. Let me give you a concrete illustration of what I mean when I say that we need the leaven of liberality in all parts of our common country. On the battlefields of Chattanooga and Chickamauga the lines of both armies that contended there are marked by handsome, enduring monuments that commemorate the valor of the brave boys who gave their lives for what they believed to be right. My heart filled with emotion as I followed those long lines of silent witnesses to the heroic deeds of your brethren and mine. A battlefield thus marked is an illuminated history lesson, to be known and read by all who visit it. I have said in the North—and I have been criticised for saying so—that I hope the day is not far distant when our one battlefield in Pennsylvania, Gettysburg, will be as thickly dotted with monuments erected by the South as it now is with those erected by the North. He reads history with a contracted vision, with a narrow understanding of its lessons, who does not read that the generation that ended the great conflict had nothing to do with its beginning. May we not hope that one result of this fraternal meeting which begins today with the cordial words of welcome of the distinguished gentlemen

who preceded me may be to broaden our views of the greatness and oneness of our fair land?

I have felt that these rambling remarks upon the purposes of our association would not be inappropriate in the first response to the addresses of welcome. You may glean from what has been said on this platform and in your enterprising newspapers why we have come together and why your greetings are received with peculiar pleasure. We are here to consider some of the great educational questions that confront us, and we rejoice at the knowledge your kind and complimentary words give us that our deliberations will be held among sympathetic and appreciative friends, who, by their presence and words of counsel and assistance, will make our common labors lighter.

More than this: We hope to leave this charming city with clearer ideas of our duty than when we came. We hope to appreciate more highly the real purpose of education, the high ideal that must be before every teacher. We hope to carry away stronger convictions of the responsibilities of those who attempt to mold and fashion the plastic mind of childhood and youth. We hope to realize more fully than ever that the safety of a nation rests largely with its schools. Finally, we hope to be filled with something of the spirit of the Great Teacher, and carry with us into our different fields of labor over all this broad land a clearer knowledge of our profession, a fuller feeling of devotion to our profession, and a deeper determination to realize the loftiest ideals of our profession.

J. W. CARR, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ANDERSON, IND.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the City of Charleston:

Never till now have I been able to understand the joy of the meeting of Jacob and Esau. For years they had been estranged and separated; each had had his joys and sorrows—his triumphs and defeats. Now they meet and embrace each other and mingle their tears of rejoicing. They are brothers once more. The old hatred is dead. The bitter words, the threats of vengeance, the wrongs of former days are all forgotten. They think of their boyhood, of Isaac and Rebekah. They talk of their trials and triumphs, and of the wonderful providence of God that blessed them in so many ways. Then Esau shows Jacob his horsemen and warriors, and tells of his power and glory; and Jacob shows Esau his wives and children, and servants and flocks, and tells of his wealth and power; and they kiss each other and thank God that they are again united as brothers, with a common faith and a common destiny.

This magnificent welcome affects me greatly. No other portions of our country have been farther apart in the past than Indiana and South Carolina. So little intercourse and sympathy between the people, so much remembrance of the estrangement of the past, so little knowledge

of and regard for each other, so much prejudice and so little love—these have kept us apart too long. But at last came your kind invitation to visit you in your homes in this beautiful city, and our joyful acceptance. Yet, as we journeyed hitherward, the thought uppermost in our minds, like that in Jacob's of old, was: How shall we be received? Shall we be admitted to your houses, but denied access to your hearts? Or will the old love which has lain dormant so long wake once more "when touched by the better angels of our nature"?

But all misgivings are dispelled. The warmth of your greeting, your words of welcome, the hospitality of your homes, the deference and respect shown us by all classes of your people, your innumerable courtesies and civilities, and, best of all, your soul-greetings, which the tongue cannot describe, but which the heart understands—these assure us beyond doubt that we are being entertained, not simply as guests, but as brethren. We appreciate your hospitality and accept it in the generous spirit in which it is given. We accept the freedom of your city, and assure you that we are already at home in your midst. We rejoice in your prosperity, in your enterprise, in your wealth, in your beautiful scenery, and in your comfortable homes. We take a just pride in your history, and we honor the names of your distinguished living and illustrious dead. Forts Moultrie and Sumter, and the city of Charleston, and the state of South Carolina, and the whole South are ours. Marion and Laurens and Pinckney and Hayne and Calhoun and Beauregard and Hampton and Jackson and Robert E. Lee—they too are ours. Likewise "Dixie" and the "Bonny Blue Flag," and whatever is cherished in the southern home, or is dear to the southern heart, or is sacred to the southern altar—these too are ours, for we have received them as gifts from our brethren.

While we receive so much from you, what can *we* give in return? What tokens and mementos that will compare with your priceless treasures? Poor, indeed, seem the gifts we have to offer. But here are our hands, my brothers; and in giving them we give our hearts also. We pledge you our faith that whatever we have of wealth and of learning and of fame and of honor is yours. Franklin and Hamilton and Webster and Sherman and Sheridan and Grant and Abraham Lincoln—all are yours. For we are yours and you are ours, brethren indeed, under one flag, with a common hope and a common destiny.

How appropriate it is that this, the first great national gathering to meet in this city since before the war, should be the National Educational Association—an association whose sole aim is the elevation of character, the exaltation and glory of our national life! How beautiful is the thought, also, that the childhood of the nation should be the mystic power that has drawn us together, making this meeting truly national! Again is fulfilled in our midst that divine prophecy: "And a little child shall lead them."

But while we make joyous this occasion, let us not forget that it is the duty of the hour to plan for the future. And, as never heretofore, this association is to be *national*, let us mutually pledge each other that it shall have a new birth, and that public education shall receive a new impetus. Much has been accomplished educationally in the United States in the past. Public education, primary, secondary, and higher, has become firmly rooted, and has already borne much excellent fruit. But, if the public schools are to perform their true mission in the republic, much still remains to be done. They must be freed from the blighting domination of politics and every other sinister influence, and administered according to business and educational principles, and in the sole interest of the children. The profession of teaching must be so elevated and ennobled that it will be impossible for untrained men and women to enter it as a stepping-stone to some other occupation or profession, or as a mere makeshift. The true teachers must not be the poorest paid and the least honored servants of the state, but they must receive compensation adequate to the service rendered, and respect and honor due to their high calling. The course of study in our schools must be freed from the flotsam and jetsam that have drifted from every shore, and be made to meet the needs of our people. Children must not go thru school with the idea that a high-school diploma will admit them to the aristocracy of learning, and that from the day of their graduation they can make a living without labor. On the contrary, the gospel of work must be preached and practiced thruout this broad land. Children must be taught from the beginning that an education is to fit them *for* work, not to get out of it. The schools must give to the country trained leaders and trained followers — leaders who are able to direct every form of human activity, and followers who can intelligently carry out directions. The schools must also teach the patriotism of peace as well as the patriotism of war—a patriotism which spurns the wrong and upholds the right; a patriotism which the arts of the demagog cannot seduce, the emoluments of office cannot bribe, the wine of party zeal cannot intoxicate; a patriotism which demands efficient public service, the honest enforcement of law, the free and impartial administration of justice, and the security of the rights of the humblest citizen. The schools must give more knowledge, power, skill, courage, freedom, and conscience, so that the problems of life, both private and public, may be dealt with skillfully, intelligently, and sympathetically, whether they be the honest performance of a day's work, the choice of an occupation, the proper care for one's family, the government of a city, the preaching of the gospel to the rich, the solution of the race problem, the abolition of the liquor traffic, the adjustment of the conflict between capital and labor, or the formation of a code of laws for the government of a nation. And, finally, the school must teach a faith that is immovable in the ultimate triumph of truth, justice, and righteousness.

JAMES A. FOSHAY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LOS ANGELES, CAL.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

After the distinguished gentlemen who have preceded me, there remains but little for me to say, unless I repeat, and thus emphasize, our thanks for your generous welcome, which I gladly do.

Having had the pleasure of entertaining this grand organization at its last meeting, Los Angeles sends congratulations to Charleston for her present opportunity. The eyes of many people are now turning upon this fair city, and the proceedings of this week will be watched with earnest expectations. We have been looking forward to this time when we should be guests instead of hosts; but the welcome accorded us has taught us that all the stories about southern hospitality fall far short of expressing its warmth and genuineness.

We pride ourselves in our free and untrammelled West on "Californian hospitality," and have always felt that to have it said that we "entertain like southerners" was a cherished compliment; now we fully realize the value of such a compliment, while we are learning that true southern hospitality lives in the South only.

Last year we met in what, in many ways, is a new land; this year we stand on old historic ground, made sacred to all of us thru many loving memories. Our cities are far apart. Not only by miles, but by industries, by associations, and by landscapes do we differ. The Californian stands in his rose-embowered garden, and his gaze travels far across the yellow grainfields to the bright green foothills, and beyond, miles away, to the rugged, snow-capped Sierras:

"Mountains on whose barren breast
The laboring clouds do often rest."

All about him is bathed in brilliant sunshine; above him is the vivid blue of his California sky. When his sunset comes it is a gorgeous moment of orange and red and deep purple lights. How different the view all about us today! Have the old, the historic, the sacred memories mellowed even the landscape and the skies of your lovely South? Has nature rewarded you loyal South Carolinians by giving to you alone the restful, quiet blue of your bay and sky, the tender pinks and yellows and greens that lie all about you, and the soft splendor of your sunsets?

After we of the newer states have thrown off a little of the glamour of the beauty of your city, we find much busy life to interest us. Your broad harbor, with the many vessels anchored at peace upon its bosom, we compare with our own long-fought-for San Pedro harbor. Your cotton-mills speak of a great, an ever-growing, permanent industry. We contrast them in our minds with the thousands of oil-derricks that now cover our state like a new kind of forest. Yes, the East and the West are different; each has its own attractions.

It is fitting that the meetings of the greatest and grandest association of our country should be held in different places, in order that its influence may fall on those who could not otherwise be brought in touch with it, and that we may learn of the various cities of our land.

After all, the East and the West are one. Charleston and Los Angeles do not seem so far apart when we realize that the ideas of those before us to build the great system of education on firm foundations for the future have been adopted by our whole nation, "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." There is much discussion and careful thought upon the question: What shall constitute the curriculum of our schools? Our ideas of teaching are so different from those of the past that we must make a general change. Today we teach children instead of subjects or facts; lead the children to use facts as an aid in developing power. Our aim should be to furnish to the children such training as will fit them to become faithful, practical, intelligent men and women, prepared to perform the duties of life.

The responsibility of the teacher cannot be passed lightly, and when we reflect how great these obligations are, we are led to ask: "Who is sufficient for these things?" We attempt to excel the Athenian in our desire for intellectual accomplishments, and to imitate the Spartan in our physical culture; for we must have the sound body for the sound mind, and hold the lessons of morality that have descended thru the ages, that our children may be educated harmoniously.

Certain periods furnish much greater opportunities for man than others. We are passing thru a critical period in our nation's history, and deciding a national policy which will affect the history of the world for centuries to come. The great energy of education is more than counterbalancing the opposing forces, and the next few years will bring to us greater developments than the world has ever witnessed.

The various systems of education in our country have originated in necessity, and have been built upon the needs of the country. The events of the recent war have shown us that a people trained in the public schools of a free country, where children of all classes and denominations work together in the same grades, play together on the same grounds, and learn the same great truths of life, can be counted upon to do its duty.

A large proportion of the multitudes coming to our shores are youths. The question arises: What shall be done with them in order that they may become an element of power instead of a source of danger? The public school is the best place for them to be trained for American citizenship. They must come in contact with one another, and learn to recognize the rights of their fellows. They must learn to *give* and *take*; and thus they are prepared to come naturally into the conditions of the true American.

They learn that the state maintains schools because ignorance is dangerous and intelligence is a necessity for every citizen.

The full duty is not done when the flag is hoisted over the school building, the children taught to sing "America," "Red, White, and Blue," and even when the excellent pledge, "I pledge allegiance to my flag," is given. But the children who will soon become active and intelligent citizens must be given a practical knowledge of the political system under which they live. They must know their rights as American citizens, and realize their duties to their fellows; they must be taught that the security of their individual liberty depends upon laws and their enforcement. Thus they will acquire the idea of the political system of which they are a part, and learn to recognize their duties, which they owe to the community, the state, and the nation.

The Spartan general who was asked to show the walls of Sparta pointed to his soldiers and said: "These are the walls of Sparta, and every man is a stone." The bulwarks of our nation are our teachers and pupils—mightier than our army and navy, and accomplishing more than we realize.

While our attention is being called to the fleets of other nations, and while we are preparing our battleships, cruisers, and torpedo boats, and caring for our army and navy, we, as a nation, must not forget that our greatest foes are within our own country; that intemperance, idleness, and vice, in its many forms, are doing more to destroy our people than we need fear from foreign enemies. These are in our midst, and are well fortified; the teachers of today must prepare to overcome them. They must dignify labor, and assist in establishing and maintaining a society which shall be composed of self-supporting people.

The greatest need of this country is men of personal worth and stability, who will not be swayed from truth and right, and who will see to it that justice is not perverted, and who will do their duty by participating in public affairs.

"God give us men; a time like this demands
Strong minds, great hearts, true faith and ready hands.
Men whom the lust of office does not kill,
Men whom the spoils of office cannot buy.
Men who will obey the people's will,
Men who have honor—men who will not lie.
Men who can stand before a demagogue
And damn his treacherous flatteries without winking.
Tall men, sun-crowned, who live above the fog
In public duty and in private thinking."

The schools and colleges, the churches and homes, must furnish such men.

On behalf of the teachers of the far West who are present, and on behalf of the thousands of others who could not come, I thank you for your generous welcome.

ADDRESSES

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

OSCAR T. CORSON, COLUMBUS, O.

Custom long established makes it the duty of the President of this association to give expression to his views regarding some of the educational problems of the day, and in obedience to that custom I shall proceed as best I can to perform that duty. I desire in the first place to state frankly that I am not an educational philosopher, and hence have nothing of a profound or mysterious nature to offer for your consideration; neither am I an educational reformer, and hence I have nothing new or startling to suggest; I am sure that I am not a chronic pessimist, and hence I have nothing in particular to condemn. It is my honest conviction, however, that the whole problem of education is an intensely practical one, requiring for its satisfactory solution the best thought and effort of practical men and women everywhere. In my judgment, the educational welfare of our country depends very largely upon the continued confidence of the people in the wisdom of those who aspire to educational leadership. If this leadership is unsettled and erratic in its policy, confidence on the part of the people is destroyed, and the schools thereby become the prey of designing politicians who are always wise enough to remember—what so many people with much better intentions so easily forget—that the people are the real source of power. Educational leadership which inspires and retains public confidence must not only have high ideals, but must also recognize positive limitations. While it must ever strive to bring about better conditions, it must not lose sight of those which actually exist. These principles should guide in the consideration of the school problem from both the financial and educational standpoint.

With a yearly expenditure of over \$200,000,000 in the United States for public education alone, it is very important that those who assume to lead in forming and directing the educational sentiment of our country shall possess, not only educational qualifications, but also that business ability which will inspire confidence in the business world. Care should be exercised lest we go too far in the modern movement of separating the business and educational management of our schools, and thereby develop the false idea that business and education have nothing in common. Our real educational experts are not the visionary theorists whose opinions change so often as to make them practically worthless, but the thoughtful, conservative men and women whose business sense leads them carefully to consider the conditions which actually do exist, as well as the

ideal ones which many good people wish might exist ; and, as a result of such consideration, enables them to originate and execute policies which always command the confidence of the people. The real educational leaders of this age whose influence will be permanent are those who have the business capacity to appreciate and comprehend the business problems which are always a part of the educational problem. Leadership of this character recognizes at once the impracticability of any attempt to carry on the work of public education in schools whose cost of equipment and maintenance is so great as to render their operation a financial impossibility.

Such leadership also recognizes the fact that, if the schools are to continue to have the financial support which is essential to their success, the people must be led to feel that education pays ; that money judiciously invested in good schools and well-equipped teachers will bring in large returns, not alone in the higher intelligence, happiness, and culture of the people, but in a financial sense as well ; that the two most important factors which enter into the value of property cannot appear on the tax duplicate, viz.: the intelligence and morality of the people. The successful prosecution of the work of public education will be aided to a far greater extent by impressing parents and boards of education with a keen appreciation of the financial value of a child's time during the years of school age than by requiring teachers to exhaust their time and energy in a fruitless study of the peculiarities of children. While we must never lose sight of the higher ideals in education, and strive in every possible way to lead the youth of our land to look beyond the mere making of a living to the making of noble lives, on the other hand it is never wise to ignore the bread-and-butter phase of existence, and what the common people consider an important and immediate end in education. With the large majority of the people of every community the struggle of life is both difficult and constant. With each passing year the competition seems to become more intense, and we cannot change the facts or better the conditions by closing our eyes and sentimentally regretting that practical people everywhere are demanding that the schools shall so train their boys and girls as to enable them to go out into life prepared to meet its difficulties and make an honest living. Much of the sentimental talk of the present day—that the schools must cease to be utilitarian in their aims and purposes, and devote all their time and energy to the development of character—would not be worthy of consideration were it not so misleading. No one doubts that true character is the true end and aim of all true education ; but it is equally important that we also recognize that true character is not a visionary something which grows up separate and apart from practical life, but is the product of right training and earnest living, and usually thrives best in the midst of toil and difficulty.

In the educational management of our schools there is also great need of that stability and conservatism which will beget confidence and insure thoroughness. In their anxiety to be considered progressive those to whom the people look for guidance in educational affairs should ever be mindful of the fact that all genuine reforms have their roots down deep in the hearts of the common people, and that all true growth is slow growth. To correct one wrong tendency an attempt should not be made to create a worse one in an opposite direction. Text-book teaching may have been carried to a harmful extreme in the past, but that is no reason why it should be abolished now. It will ever remain true that one of the best things that any school can do for any pupil is to teach him how to make proper use of the books of the schoolroom and library. Courses of study in the old-time schools may have been too much abridged, and as a result narrowing in their tendency, but many thoughtful people among both patrons and teachers are today seriously questioning the modern attempt of teaching something of everything to children. Schools in which formal tasks assigned by heartless teachers make children unhappy need reformation, but it is not wise to replace them with playhouses in which amusement and entertainment are mistaken for interest. A firm belief in the doctrine of hard work is still necessary to both happiness and success, and the gospel of labor needs to be preached anew in many localities. The public-school critic who imagines that he sees in what he terms the "overwork" of the school the only source of "nervous prostration" should turn his attention for a time to society, the premature entrance to which, on the part of many, leads to physical, mental, and moral decay. The student of trained mind and mature judgment should certainly be allowed some choice of studies in making preparation for his special life-work, but many old-fashioned people still insist that children in grammar and high schools should have very definite direction in their work.

In dealing with all these important phases of the work of public education, what is needed more than anything else to give it that stability and solidity which will insure the support of public sentiment without which true progress is impossible, is the active influence of broad-minded, great-hearted, liberally educated teachers, who are superior to all methods and systems, and whose influence is always inspiring and uplifting. With the majority of those who compose this audience, I have practically forgotten all the formal experiences of my schoolboy life. The course of study, the methods of instruction, the plans of promotion, and many other things of minor importance, have practically all passed out of mind; but there remain as a part of my very being the hallowed memories and helpful influences of a teacher or two—great personalities in whose presence intellect developed and character grew. He does most for education in this age who leads the people to appreciate that the one great necessity of any school is a great teacher.

While it is right that in the consideration of the educational problem great emphasis is today placed upon a proper recognition of the rights and needs of the individual, on an occasion like this no one can be unmindful of the importance of education from a national standpoint. We believe that the intelligence of the common people is the real safeguard of our republic, and that the free public school must ever remain the one great source of this intelligence. In this great work of preparing an intelligent citizenship, capable of exercising the rights of freemen, we know no North, no South, no political party, no sectarian creed.

With the firm belief that the national educational sentiment already so firmly established in all sections of our country would be deepened and strengthened thereby, the National Educational Association accepted the cordial invitation extended at Los Angeles, and today meets in this beautiful southern city under circumstances both delightful and impressive. I desire, as President of this association, to join with those who have already spoken in expression of appreciation of the cordial words of welcome which have come to us from our distinguished friends whose acts of kindness and hospitality have already endeared them to the teachers of this great union. I am sure that our stay here will not only broaden our ideas, but also deepen our common sympathy and interest in the great cause which we represent. As teachers and citizens we all have an abiding faith in the future destiny of our united country, whose flag, the beautiful stars and stripes, today floats so majestically over land and sea. With a faith in the God of nations which knows no wavering, and with unselfish purpose and loyal devotion, let us as members of this great association rededicate and reconsecrate ourselves to the great principle and work of popular education.

THE SMALL COLLEGE

I. ITS WORK IN THE PAST

PRESIDENT WILLIAM OXLEY THOMPSON, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY,
COLUMBUS, O.

There is no disguising the fact that there is a widespread feeling that the small college has seen its best days. Within twenty-five years there has grown up a sentiment that the place to educate a boy is in a large crowd. It looks very much as if in the popular mind mere bigness was a virtue and littleness a vice. It will help us to understand this remarkable state of mind when we remember that a generation ago there was nothing but the small college in America. The development of the large college has come since 1870. The fact that the development is so recent may explain why we who have seen the genesis of the large college should regard it as precisely the thing. Otherwise we should not be loyal to the progress the world is making.

Let me remind you that in 1850 Yale had 432 students, and Harvard 296. These were the largest colleges in the country. In 1860 Yale had 521, and Harvard 451. In 1870 Yale had 522, and Harvard 616. As late as 1870 no other college in the country, so far as I can learn, had 400 students.

In 1850 the whole number of students in American colleges was a little less than 9,000; in 1860, a little over 13,000; in 1870, a little over 16,000; and now, not far from 40,000. There has been a remarkable growth in the attendance at colleges during the lifetime of most of the members of this association.

Prior to 1800 Yale and Harvard were pretty small colleges. In 1800 Harvard graduated a class of 47. For the first ten years of the century the average was 44. This could not be called a very large college.

Yale shows a considerable increase about the beginning of the century. In 1800 she graduated 36, as against 47 from Harvard. The first ten years of the century Yale averaged 52 in a class, as against 44 from Harvard.

To get an average of some of the best colleges in the country for the period from 1850 to 1860, I have taken the best New England colleges, with this result, viz.: Bowdoin averaged, for the ten years, 32; Amherst, 44; Williams, 48; Dartmouth, 56; Harvard, 82; Yale, 95.

It is interesting to note that Yale up to 1859 had graduated 6,810 men, while in 1898 she had graduated 12,468. That is to say, from 1859 to 1898 she graduated 5,658 as against 6,810 from 1702 to 1859. Or, to put it another way, Yale graduated almost as many in the last forty years as in 157 years previous to that time. The average size of a class from Yale from 1702 to 1898 is 64. From 1702 to 1859 it is 43. From 1859 to 1898 it is 145. This shows very clearly where Yale's great growth has been. At Harvard the story is much the same.

In 1870 Yale's catalog was a pamphlet of seventy pages. The library had 50,000 volumes—the collection of 169 years. It shows that the college proper had nineteen professors, including the president. The students numbered 522. The terms of admission were not beyond what would be standard in a good small college today. It was specified that a freshman must be fourteen years of age. In those days college students were still boys. They are men now, so far as I see in the newspapers. A bond was then required in the amount of \$200 from all students. The work was nearly all prescribed. Certain concessions were made to German in the junior year, but there was nothing that a modern student would call the privilege of electives.

The average class of Bowdoin for 115 years up to 1890 numbered 19. The average class at Amherst from 1821 to 1885 numbered 43. The class at Williams from 1795 to 1890 averaged 37. At Dartmouth from 1771 to 1890 the classes averaged 41.

I detail these figures out of the great array of statistics simply to enforce my statement that the history of higher education in this country prior to 1870 was the history of the small college, a fact often apparently lost sight of. Since 1870 there has been a rapid development in higher education, and the country now has a considerable number of schools where great congregations of students are found, and where catalogs are so bulky that a college faculty of fifty years ago would have been hopelessly lost in an effort to explain their contents.

It is within this period that the state universities have made their wonderful growth. In the same time have arisen such institutions as Cornell, Chicago, and Stanford. The older institutions of the East, like Columbia, Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and the University of Pennsylvania, have in this same period made a phenomenal development, both in resources and in students.

Out of this condition of things has arisen a considerable debate about the college of the future. Many have thought that the great institutions were to be the only ones, and that the small institutions would soon have no place in the educational economy. It were a hopeless task to undertake to settle the question, but it is a very pleasant privilege to bring before you a few truths concerning the past of the small college.

First of all I desire to emphasize the fact that the criticism often made of the small college by inference, if not by direct statement, is both unfair and untrue. It is not quite fair for us to cast a reflection upon the only institution that fostered higher education prior to the past thirty years. That institution, as we have seen, was the small college. Furthermore, the test of greatness is the ability to meet, or the actual meeting of, the emergencies of the hour. The questions at issue, therefore, are whether the small college met the issues of its time and whether present small colleges are actually meeting an existing need. Presently I shall state the evidence in support of an affirmative reply to these questions. I remark, in passing, that the inference against the small college is not drawn from any facts that prove that the large college or modern university would have done the work then needed in any superior way. Indeed, there is a lack of evidence that the modern idea would have been at all suitable to conditions fifty years ago, and we are not at all sure but the close of the twentieth century may see present universities so changed and modified as to be practically new. The business of an educational institution is to meet the needs of the times. The fact that in our attempt to meet present needs we have developed a considerable number of great institutions does not at all prove that the small college has not had a place, or that it is not now meeting a real need. The fact is, the large college and modern university are rather new institutions. They are so young that their real value and efficiency are still problematical. The alumni of the modern large university have yet to win a distinction that

will eclipse the glory of their fathers. It may yet develop into an eclipse of the son. However, we hope for better things. Let us now turn to a brief statement of the ideals of the small college. These will tell us something of its character and work.

First, I remark that the small college was set for the development of manhood. In 1854 President William A. Stearns, in his inaugural address at Amherst, said: "The idea of education is the formation of men, men capable of high scholarship, of professional eminence and honorable achievement, but first of all men."

This was neither new doctrine nor unfamiliar statement. It was the common and popular sentiment. The college of those days was set for the upbuilding of character in men. Often it was declared to be a Christian character and manhood. The college recognized that character and manhood were the supreme need of society. The college curriculum was an instrument that men of lofty ideals used to these great ends.

The measure of success that has attended these efforts is but little appreciated. To read the alumni roll of Yale, Harvard, and Princeton, when they were very small colleges, or the rolls of Amherst, Bowdoin, and Williams in New England, of Hamilton in New York, or of Washington and Jefferson in Pennsylvania, Centre College in Kentucky, and Miami in Ohio, is an inspiration to any young man struggling for place and usefulness in his generation. I freely confess that three hours with these rolls gave me a new appreciation of the splendid possibilities of American manhood. These men have been the embodiment of the best things in civilization. They have stood for the best things in religion, in scholarship, in politics, in society, and in the state. What the world would have been without them I know not, but for what it has been with them we are indebted to the small college. That debt will forever remain unpaid, but it is here most gratefully acknowledged.

Secondly, I remark that the small college put an important emphasis upon the personal contact between the professor and student as a powerful influence in determining character. The professor in the small college has always been a man of character, who recognized his opportunity. The heroic service that many of these men have rendered is sufficient testimony to their excellence. Senator Hoar has recently said, in speaking of the Harvard of fifty-eight years ago, that men were then called to professorships because they had attained an eminence in their professions. The result was that young men were brought under the instruction of men whose lives were an inspiration and whose characters were a most wholesome influence. These men recognized the possibilities in their service. Without offering any criticism upon the modern professor, I may say that eminent men are not now called to professorships. The conditions have so changed that they prefer another life. The modern Longfellow or Holmes is not a professor. The college of these days must

train its professors up to eminence. They attain it as a part of their reward to patch out a meager salary. Moreover, the modern professor with his specialty often looks upon his work as merely teaching, and makes a rather narrow business of it. A broad education is looked upon as impossible, or undesirable, and broad and deep sympathy with the student as unnecessary. Just here the small college has always put its emphasis. It has insisted that teaching is personal where inspiration and leadership are quite as important as instruction. To lead out into the larger world with a proper perspective requires a master-workman. This leadership, I grant you, may be found in the larger colleges. If not, then something vital is wanting. That such work has been done and is still done in the small college is beyond any question.

Thirdly, I remark that the small college has done a great work in cultivating a respect for scholarship. It may as well be conceded that no very great scholarship is possible within the limits of a college course. One of the silliest fallacies in modern times is the frequent assumption that because a boy has graduated from a large college he is both a gentleman and a scholar. As a matter of fact, he is often neither the one nor the other. The honest college has never made any pretensions in this regard. Scholarship is the ripe fruit of years of patient toil. It is to be kept in mind, however, that the college-bred man has been usually a man of broad sympathies, of a reasonably liberal culture, and of a sufficient intelligence to appreciate the scholarship of men who have been the pathfinders in the world's research. The considerable body of such men in the country has made it possible for the scholar to hope for a reward in his labor. The college has been the bulwark of scholarship. In this field the college man has done a great service. The fact that his studies in the small college have widened his horizon and given him a bird's-eye view of the knowledge and scholarship of his day is a reason for his readiness to appreciate scholarship. The elective principle has deepened the study of many a student, but often at the expense of his sympathy with other men. The lack of unity in college life so often apparent in the larger schools is no doubt due in a considerable degree to the relative isolation of the student in his work. He does not know his classmate. There is no common feeling, and but little that is common in their thinking, and hence no fellowship in scholarship. I regard this appreciation of scholarship as a great help in the progress of the world. There is no man who should more appreciate the work of the small college than the man whose life is given to research and the development of critical scholarship. The small college is something more than, and better than, a feeder for the university. It is building and maintaining the foundation on which the university must rest. But for the work of the college the university would not have had a field in which to work. That it is now preparing the men who will in the future do the best things for scholarship is perhaps not

too much to say. Whether the large college can do this work without the aid of the small college is at any rate a debatable question.

Fourthly, I remark that the small college has done great service for its immediate vicinage. It is so evident as to need only a passing remark that all colleges receive the large portion of their support from the adjacent territory. Even Harvard still draws a considerable proportion of its students from the immediate vicinity. This has been the history of the small college. It has done great things for its territory. Here young men have received an intellectual awakening that has been an intellectual regeneration to them. Many a so-called poor college has been the birth-place of a noble soul. It has brought within the reach of these boys an uplift that the larger school could not have brought. In this small college the individual more easily rose to a limited leadership. You may say the opportunities were limited, but they were sufficient to arouse the boy to his own prophetic powers. My own native state has been sneeringly called the land of freshwater colleges. Men have spoken disparagingly of her numerous colleges. There is a justice in some of this criticism, but quite as much injustice. The most luminous pages of Ohio's history have been made and written by men trained in her small colleges. Those trained at home have not fainted in the race with those who were able to go to more expensive schools without her borders. Ohio would never have had her men or her leadership but for the small college. But, aside from the men graduated from those colleges, there is no room to doubt that the presence of such colleges has done a great deal to give tone and character to the communities. They have been an object of pride to the citizens and something of an inspiration to the people. Of the 450 colleges in the country a large proportion must be classed as small colleges. They are, however, centers of life and light to hosts of people whom the greater schools do not and cannot reach. They are constantly seeking out boys, many of whom rise to eminence. These men more than justify the reason for existence. In the poorer grade of the small college there may be found much to criticise. No doubt the standards are often too low. Some harmful results do follow, but it is a mistake to be too sweeping in our condemnation. The small college is winning today more than its proper share of the honors in our great universities. These facts persist and are very stubborn things. The self-denial, the hardship, the heroism still found in many of these colleges with the lack of some modern fancies, are pretty useful ingredients in the coming man. The small college has usually been the poor man's college. It cultivated the habits of economy and has usually been free from the vices that accompany a liberal use of money. Its own poverty and economy have been an object-lesson to the student. The democratic sentiment usually prevailing has bound the students in a close friendship. Here have been trained many of the recruits who have saved the interests of the

people. Some of them have risen to eminence, but more of them have quietly but efficiently served the community which supported the college. The unwritten history of the small college is liable to be overlooked and forgotten in the annals of the great, but there are a thousand hillsides and as many fruitful valleys in our country where the service is gratefully recognized. What Webster said of Dartmouth many a man will say of others: "She is small, but there are those who love her."

THE SMALL COLLEGE

II. ITS PROSPECTS

WILLIAM RAINEY HARPER, PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

In my opinion the two most serious problems of education which require to be solved within the next quarter of a century are, first, the problem of rural schools, which falls within the domain of lower education; and, secondly, the problem of the small college, which lies within the domain of higher education.

This second problem, which forms the subject of our consideration here, is at the same time serious and delicate; serious, because the greatest interests, both material and spiritual, are at stake; delicate, because there are involved special and peculiar questions of privilege and right. The study of the problem is a difficult one, because it deals with data insufficiently gathered and not yet properly tabulated; because, also, the territory covered is so vast and so differently situated.

I may be pardoned for mentioning my personal experience: My student life was divided, my undergraduate work being done in a small college, my graduate work in a large college or university. My life as a teacher has been almost evenly divided, twelve years having been spent in institutions termed "small," thirteen in institutions which may be called "larger." I approach the subject, therefore, with no prejudice born of lack of experience in one or the other kind of educational institution.

We shall consider—

I. Some factors which would seem to guarantee the life and the growth of the smaller institutions.

II. Some factors which will be found to stand in the way of such development.

III. Some changes affecting the small colleges which are to be expected and which are to be desired.

I. SOME FACTORS WHICH WOULD SEEM TO GUARANTEE THE LIFE AND THE GROWTH OF THE SMALLER INSTITUTIONS

Prevalence of belief in the advantages of smaller colleges.—Let us notice, first of all, as constituting one of these factors, the widely prevailing

belief that the smaller institution has certain decided advantages over the larger in the character of the results produced. This belief is entertained so strongly and in so many quarters that, whether true or false, it furnishes a substantial element of strength to the cause of the smaller college. It cannot be said that, if this belief is false, its falsity will soon become apparent; for, in weighing evidence on both sides of so delicate a question, the number of points to be considered is very great, and the individual equation, in each case, is altogether different. Who can say dogmatically that it would have been better or worse for *this* or *that* boy if he had gone to the larger institution instead of to the smaller; or to the smaller instead of to the larger?

Contact with instructors.—The student of the small college, it is urged, has greater advantage because of the closer contact into which he comes with the officers of the faculty. It is certainly true, everything being equal, that the student who knows intimately his instructor, and is himself intimately known by him, has a much greater chance of achieving satisfactory results than the student who has little or no personal contact with his instructor. But here two things should be noted. Is it a fact that in the larger institutions the student comes into less vital touch with his teachers? A study of this question extending over several years has convinced me that the student in the larger institutions not only comes into relationship with a greater number of instructors, but also touches in the closest possible way as many of this number as he would have touched in the smaller college. It is not, however, a question merely of close contact, but of receiving that incitement which stirs the soul to its very depths. I have known instructors in both large and small institutions, close touch with whom would deaden rather than quicken any higher life; and it is only fair to say that the number of such is as great proportionally in the small as in the large institution.

Higher rank of instructors.—Again, the student of the small college, it is urged, has great advantages, especially in the earlier college years, because in most cases he does his work under men who have the rank of professor, while in the larger institutions he is turned over to young men who are only tutors or instructors. And yet it should be remembered that these same tutors and instructors, if they were in the smaller institutions, would enjoy the rank of professor. I have in mind a university in which every man who is ranked as an assistant professor, instructor, or tutor has been offered a full professorship in a small college, and several of them, the presidency of such an institution.

Development of responsibility.—Further, the student of the small college, it is urged, has greater opportunity to develop responsibility; the number of students being small, each one stands out more definitely and receives greater recognition, while, at the same time, he actually counts for more in the various activities of the college life. It should be remembered,

however, that the incentive to excel and the number of activities which present themselves to the student-ambition increase even more rapidly than the proportionate increase in numbers; and that these opportunities are higher in character and more varied in proportion to the horizon of those who find themselves in this or that environment.

But I have allowed myself to wander somewhat. The point I wish to present is this: The belief in the superior advantages of the small college has taken so strong a hold upon the minds of men in general that, altho it rests upon grounds which are in large measure fancied or sentimental, it will serve as a strong factor in assisting to maintain and to advance the interests of the smaller as against those of the larger institutions.

Hostility to powerful institutions.—A second factor which has helped the smaller institutions in the past, and one which will continue to render strong assistance, is that feeling, sometimes of awe and almost fear, at other times of jealousy and hostility, which is invariably aroused in the minds of many, toward an institution that has grown large and powerful. The small college is loved and cherished, in most cases, just because it *is* small and weak; while the larger institution is hated and opposed, because it is powerful. This has been the history of every institution that has become great. It is the history of nearly every one of the state universities in the western states. It is the same feeling with which the smaller towns or cities in a state regard the one great city of a particular region.

Legitimate use may be made of this characteristic of human nature. Please observe that I do not call it a *weakness*. It is a mark of strength when a man, or a community, or a nation, turns in sympathy and compassion toward that which is small and weak; and when this very weakness is in itself so strong as to serve as a ground of appeal for help. The small college will always have friends because of its weakness. And the corollary of this is equally true: the larger institution will have enemies because of its strength. Moreover, this is as it should be; that which is strong will be more likely to become stronger as the result of opposition than as the result of sympathy and help. The latter, too, is often weakening, instead of strengthening. This feeling, therefore, of hostility toward the larger institutions—a feeling entirely natural and altogether general—is in itself a guaranty of a continued interest in the small as opposed to the large institutions.

Loyal support of faculty and alumni.—Closely associated with this is a third factor, which, thru all time, will stand arrayed on the side of the small college—a strong and noble phalanx of supporters. I mean the faculty and the alumni of the institution.

No greater acts of heroism or self-sacrifice have been performed on battlefield, or in the face of danger, than those which are written down in

the book of the recording angel to the credit of the teachers whose very blood has gone into the foundations of some of our weak and struggling colleges. Blood thus freely and nobly given can never have been given in vain. It will cry out to heaven in behalf of the cause for which it was spent, and this cry will be heard and answered, and new friends will be raised up. The love of an alumnus for his *alma mater* is something sacred and very tender. Does the true son think less of his natural mother because she is, perhaps, poor and weak, or even sick and deformed? The true college man is and will be all the more devoted to his spiritual mother, if, perchance, in the varying tides of human vicissitudes, she has become low; or if, in spite of long and weary years of struggle, she has failed to grow into full and perfect vigor. There are scores of colleges which live today, and in God's providence will continue to live, because of the devotion, even at terrible cost, of a few teachers, or a few alumni. Such devotion money cannot purchase. It is worth more than money. It is a gift more precious than anything material. It is, moreover, the very essence of the life of the institution for which it is cherished. And, as the essence of that life, it is the guaranty of the life of the institution.

Sympathy of men of wealth in vicinity.—Another factor in the preservation and upbuilding of the small college—a factor the potency of which will increase with passing decades—is the desire of men who have been successful in accumulating wealth to do something with that wealth which will be *constructive, creative*. The faculty of amassing wealth is a constructive faculty, a creative faculty, and the man who has this faculty, if he is of a benevolent disposition, is likely to turn it to a work which is likewise of the constructive or creative type; for example, to the development of college work.

It might almost be said to be a law of philanthropy that it is exercised within a territory co-extensive with the horizon of the philanthropist. The great majority of men who have achieved a moderate success in life are known only within a certain district. Occasionally a man is strong enough and large enough to have his name and fame extend beyond the locality in which his work is done; such men are an exception. And just so, men whose hearts and minds are large enough to take in the whole world, whose benefactions are bestowed over a wide area, are exceptions. Most men of liberal mind limit their benevolences to those causes with which they themselves may keep in close touch. In every section of the country, and in almost every county of every state, there are men who are disposed to use their means for the improvement of the particular locality in which their wealth has been accumulated. It is impossible to interest such men in any kind of benevolent work at a distance. If rightly approached, they will undertake work at home. Altho interested in educational work, they are nevertheless not interested in

the work of the large institution, even when it is close by. They cannot be persuaded that the larger institution, with the several millions of dollars which it has already secured, can need additional endowment; and, in any case, they cannot be persuaded that the smaller gifts which they might make would be appreciated in the midst of so much wealth. Here then is a condition of things which will bring about benevolence toward the smaller institution within reach. The number of such men today is very large, and that number is constantly increasing with the increasing prosperity of the country. The small college furnishes an opportunity for these men, within their own circle, to do a work for the cause of higher education—a cause which has a peculiar fascination for many minds, because it is a constructive and creative work. In this condition of things there is a guaranty that provision will be made in the future, here and there thruout the entire country, for the development of the smaller institutions.

Adaptation to need of certain individuals.—Still another guaranty for the future of the institution under consideration is the fact that, whatever may be said of the relative advantages of the small and the large institution for the average young man or woman, it cannot be denied that the small college is particularly adapted to the needs of many an individual. And yet I do not mean to say that these individuals are below the average; for many of them certainly are far above the average. I have in mind young men and women of certain peculiar temperaments, as well as those in whose case the transition from a certain mode of life to the more free and liberal atmosphere of the larger institution, the university, would prove to be too sudden. Just so long as there are localities in which, for one reason or another, the privilege of thinking for oneself upon every subject is denied, or in which the habit has not yet been cultivated, there will be needed for those who are destined, in the providence of God, to reach out and attain higher possibilities, places of transition between that which is more restricted and that which is more free. To step suddenly from one atmosphere to another will seriously interfere with proper growth. The smaller college furnishes such a place of transition, and prepares minds that have been under restriction for the broader and higher privileges of the university. This narrowness to which I have alluded may be the outcome of an imperfect religious system, or of a lack of proper facilities in the lower spheres of educational activity; or, as in certain districts of our country, the result of geographical separation from the great centers of influence, or isolation from the great routes of travel; but, in any case, the small college is specially adapted to the needs of such persons. The demand for this peculiar work, being so strong and so universal, constitutes in itself a guaranty for the future existence of the college.

Economic advantages.—Perhaps it is at this point that I may mention

the economic side of student life, which controls, far more generally than perhaps we might suppose, the possibilities of higher education. The average young man or woman who desires a college education finds more or less difficulty in securing the means with which to make such education possible. It is a question of so many hundred dollars a year. It is evident that in large institutions the expense is more considerable than in the smaller institutions. It is true that all of the larger universities furnish aid to many students, and that in general any deserving student is able to secure help sufficient to assist him in completing his work; but many men are unwilling to accept such assistance. Many have neither the courage nor the cleverness to secure it; and if all who desire an education were to make application to the larger institutions, the funds used for that purpose would prove sadly inadequate. It is only because the smaller institutions, scattered thruout the country, are able to do the work for the young man or woman of moderate means that the larger institutions can, in any satisfactory way, meet the demand which is made upon them. Only a few comparatively can gather together so large a sum as five or six hundred dollars a year for a course of college study, and yet such a sum, in most of our larger institutions, is quite small, in view of the many and varied demands made upon the student. There must be institutions in which the man who can command only two or three hundred dollars a year may find help and guidance in his pursuit of higher education. The larger institutions, located in many cases where rents and food are more expensive, and where the demands of society compel a style of living which would not be considered necessary elsewhere, are prohibitive to the sons and daughters of families whose annual income is fifteen hundred dollars or less; and if an estimate were made, the great majority of families would find their classification in this category. As long as there are families with small incomes, and as long as in these families there are sons and daughters who desire a higher education, there must be colleges in which this education may be obtained at a minimum of expense. The future of the small college is, therefore, absolutely assured.

Geographical law of limitation.—In this same connection there is to be considered what may be called the geographical law of higher education. In accordance with this law, about 90 per cent. of those who attend college select for that purpose an institution within one hundred miles of home; or, to put the matter in another form, the constituency of even the largest institutions comes in great measure from within one hundred miles of the institution itself. This fact is at once an explanation of the large number of colleges scattered thruout our land, and the ground for belief that this large number will, in one form or another, remain for the most part undiminished.

Educational tradition.—It is to be noted still further that educational tradition is peculiarly conservative. The tradition in the United States,

established two and one-half centuries ago, and continuing almost without change until within the last quarter of this century, has been in favor of the small college. It is only within twenty or twenty-five years that the larger institution, or the university, has been known on American soil. The tradition is deeply rooted. This fact points unmistakably to the policy of the future; and while the university idea, which has so recently sprung up among us, has before it large and unlimited possibilities, the policy of establishing small colleges here and there is one so strongly fixed that no great modification of it may be anticipated. The additional fact that, side by side with the more recent development along university lines, the *colleges* have *grown*, financially as well as numerically, is evidence in favor of the proposition just mentioned. There is no reason to suppose that the larger institution, however influential it may become, will supplant the smaller. The two may go forward side by side, each exerting upon the other a helpful influence. It is not conceivable that the policy of two centuries and a half, a policy which has been found so acceptable on every side, should suffer serious modification. In any case, such modifications will be gradual, and will permit an easy adjustment under the new conditions which may arise.

Religious affiliation and support.—One of the most important factors to be considered in any study of the small college is the religious purpose and control with which a great majority of these colleges stand connected. The smaller colleges, for the most part, have been founded with a distinct and definite religious aim. This aim has been, in some cases, to protect certain peculiar tenets of religious faith; in others, to provide a religious atmosphere which should be in harmony with the feelings and opinions of its patrons; in still others, to secure a definite and tangible guaranty of specific Christian influence. In all these cases there was a distinctly religious motive. The fact that so many of these colleges are supported by particular denominations of Christians, and that almost every denomination feels the necessity of supporting colleges in the territory in which that denomination is represented, shows the strong and all-pervading influence of the religious spirit. If denominationalism in Christianity were to disappear, one of the strongest foundations of our small colleges would likewise be removed; but just as, in these United States, the denominational spirit has developed and flourished, and has become a marked characteristic of American life in contrast with European life, so the small college, inseparably connected with the denominational spirit, has grown and developed in striking contrast with the educational policy of Europe. If men of deep religious convictions continue to cherish such convictions, and to propagate them, they will find it necessary to educate those who shall hand down these same traditions. To do this with economy and certainty, there must be institutions for higher study which shall be pervaded by the spirit of the denomination desirous of

maintaining and developing this growth. This factor is as strong as any that has been mentioned, perhaps strongest of all; and yet this and all that have preceded it find their basis in another factor—the last which I shall present.

An expression of the American spirit.—The small colleges, scattered everywhere, are but the natural and inevitable expression of the American spirit in the realm of higher education. The universities of Cambridge and Oxford, as now constituted, are an expression of English aristocracy. The universities of Berlin and Leipsic, and the gymnasia of Germany, represent most fittingly the German imperial spirit. The small colleges in Ohio and Missouri, in Iowa and South Carolina, and in every state of our magnificent union, are the expression of the democratic spirit, which is the true American spirit. The small college exists today as a legitimate result of the working of that spirit. It is as truly American as is any other institution of our country. The American spirit which has created these colleges is, after all, the highest and the most certain guaranty of their continuance, and in this fundamental fact and factor the others to which I have referred find their basis.

II. FACTORS WHICH WILL BE FOUND TO STAND IN THE WAY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SMALL COLLEGE

The modern high school.—Among the factors which will be found to stand in the way of the development of the small college, first let us note the development of the high schools. The modern high school, sometimes called the “people’s college,” is a development of twenty-five years. Much of the work formerly done by the colleges is now being done by the high schools. The course of study in many of the high schools is more extensive and more thoro than was the course of study in many of the better colleges thirty or forty years ago. This course of study is likewise stronger and more effective in the results produced than is the course of study provided in many of the smaller colleges of today. There is no evidence that the public attitude toward the high school will change. If there were no other reason for the support of the high school by the public, reason enough would be found in the fact that without such work it would be impossible to provide teachers for the lower schools. While much of the constituency of the high school is a new constituency, a considerable portion of it has been drawn away from the preparatory schools and the colleges. So great a degree of perfection has been reached in the work of the high school in many quarters that even those parents who have the means prefer the public high school to the private academy or college; and by many, a great incentive to patronize the high school is found in the absence of a tuition fee. The requirements for admission to the high school and the length of the curriculum have been steadily increasing, and it seems quite certain that the end has not yet

been reached, since satisfactory arrangements have been made in many schools for the work of the freshman year. This is a serious menace to the small college. The fact that the equipment of the high school for scientific work is often better than the equipment of the college which confers the bachelor's degree, brings reproach upon the college work when compared with that of the high school. The preparatory schools of colleges in the West and South are no longer crowded, because students are able to secure the desired instruction in the high school. The influence of this is felt very keenly, and officers of the small colleges are regarding with considerable apprehension the rapid growth of this, to say the least, distracting element.

Tendency toward specialism.—In earlier years, when the entrance requirements were lower, it was possible for the student to give four years of time to work the aim of which was general culture. In these latter days, when the requirements for admission are so high that they in themselves constitute an equivalent of the college course of twenty or thirty years ago, and when young men and women are unable to enter college at an earlier age than nineteen or twenty, it is impossible and undesirable to hold the student to four years of general work. Already the tendency to specialize is seen at the beginning of the third year of college work. This is a natural result of the privilege of election, and also a necessary result flowing from the large number of subjects offered in the curriculum. The small college does not furnish the opportunity to follow out this tendency, and in the case of many students a longer period than is really necessary is spent on subjects which sustain no particular relation to the future work of the student. It is easy to see the great disadvantage under which the student works when brought into touch with his professional studies. In many professions it is essential that the technical work of the profession be taken up before the age of physical and mental flexibility has passed, and especially in lines of scientific work the small college is unable to meet the demand made upon it.

The whole tendency toward specialism, therefore, even when held within reasonable and legitimate bounds, is a movement with which the small college finds difficulty in keeping pace, the more so because it is evidently not justified in providing instruction in this or that special line of work, when the number of its students interested in such subjects is so small. Instruction higher than that of an exceedingly elementary character may not be provided in a great majority of subjects to advantage, if the college has a smaller attendance than 150 students; and yet of the 480 colleges and universities in the United States, about 160, or one-third, belong to this class—that is, 160 colleges have less than 150 students.

Decline of sectarian spirit.—As has been said, by far the larger number of our smaller colleges have had their origin in the religious spirit. In many of these even today the spirit is not simply religious, nor indeed

simply Christian—it is the sectarian spirit. Even from New England one not infrequently hears the cry from denominational bosses that the denominational college must be supported, its halls must be filled by students from the families of those belonging to the denomination, and the denominational ideas must be propagated, or dishonor is shown the founders of the institution and the denomination of which it is a representative. But, on the whole, the sectarian idea in religion is disappearing; except in certain sections, a broader spirit prevails, and sectarianism in education is destined to die within the next half century or so. In this struggle against sectarianism the colleges everywhere take the lead, and one need only study the history of educational institutions during the last quarter of a century to see how one institution after another has quietly passed out from under ecclesiastical control; and how one institution after another has gradually, but surely, thrown off the shackles of the sectarian spirit. If now these colleges have in themselves strength to endure the struggle, they will be stronger and better institutions when the struggle has passed. But many of them are so closely identified with the sect whose teachings they were established to promulgate that with the gradual disappearance of the sectarian spirit there remains no longer good ground for their existence, and we see them steadily losing the place which they once occupied and taking a lower position; in some cases, indeed, entirely disappearing. This is especially true when, on account of the rivalry between different sects, more institutions have been crowded into a particular territory than the territory could possibly support. Death in these cases is, of course, a blessing—not only to the institutions that have died, but to the world about them.

With the gradual weakening of this narrow religious spirit—often confounded with the denominational spirit, but indeed something entirely separate therefrom—a great success of power and strength which has hitherto lent support to the building up of the small college will be removed. Here is a serious menace to the future of many institutions of this class.

Multiplication of professional schools.—The professional schools with low requirements for admission attract many students who might otherwise take a college course. This multiplication of medical schools and law schools of a low grade is one of the greatest evils in connection with educational work. It is an evil which seems to be increasing, and one which, in many sections of the country, is encouraged for political reasons by our legislators.

Of an entirely different character is the policy, adopted in many institutions, of allowing the college senior to substitute for regular college work the first year of the professional school. This concession, brought about because of the feeling that men must enter the professional schools at an earlier age than has been the custom, is a distinct blow at the small

college, where no such connection with the professional school exists, and where, consequently, such concession cannot be granted. The relationship of college training to the training of the professional school is as yet indefinitely formulated, but the facts already in evidence show that the whole tendency of the development of professional work is antagonistic to the work of the small college. Men have come to see that in all of the courses directly preparatory to a professional training, and indeed in many of the technical courses included in that training, there is a culture as large and strong and uplifting as in any subject to which the student might devote himself; and, besides, it is evident that in work bearing directly upon one's life-work the student has a stronger motive and a deeper interest than he would have in some subject the significance of which he himself did not appreciate. The problem of correlating college and professional training is one toward the solution of which many minds are turning, and from the study of which much good may be expected in the years that are to come. But in every case it will be found that serious encroachment is being made by the professional schools on the territory of the college.

Development of the university idea.—Closely associated with the development of the professional schools is the development of the university idea. As has already been said, this idea was scarcely in existence twenty-five years ago. But now that the spirit has taken root, great things are to be expected, and during the next quarter of a century important strides forward will be made in many centers of intellectual influence. To a considerable extent the constituency of the university will be a new constituency. In large measure, however, this constituency is drawn directly from the field of the small college. The phenomenal increase in numbers of the larger institutions of learning within the past ten years is an indication of what is to be expected in the future. The same spirit which today draws men to the city, where special advantages are thought to exist, and where special privileges may be secured, will draw men to the larger institutions, with their larger libraries, their better-equipped laboratories, and their more direct contact with life and modern civilization. With this tendency the small college must battle. But, however strong the effort made, in the end the larger institutions will prevail, and the smaller institutions will suffer.

The personnel of the faculty.—One of the more important, perhaps the most important, of the difficulties with which the small college must contend is the difficulty of securing the strongest men to do work upon the salary that may be offered; and, further, its inability to hold such men if once they have been secured. This leads to the adoption of one of two policies. In some cases the college is wise enough to be satisfied with having young instructors who are strong and vigorous, even with the consciousness that vacancies will constantly occur, and thus innumerable

changes be made. The disadvantage of this policy is, of course, the lack of continuity in the spirit of the institution; but in any case it is an infinitely better policy than the other one, in accordance with which men of second- or third- or even fourth-rate ability are employed, with the feeling that no other institution will cause trouble by calling away the members of the staff. On the other hand, the larger institution is able, not only to select the strongest men and to pay them a salary which will make them satisfied to remain indefinitely, but also to employ younger men, even at a lower salary than is paid by the small colleges, because the younger men see that there is always opportunity ahead. The women's college, even when a large one, labors under the same difficulty, because the strongest men will not consent to devote their lives to work in a women's college. This is a serious factor in the situation, and one of the difficulties of which increase every year.

The migration idea.—The habit of moving from one institution to another is beginning to gain ground. This is in some sense in imitation of the German custom, and when thoroughly considered it is a custom the advantages of which cannot be denied. Hundreds and hundreds of students, I might perhaps say thousands, find it to their advantage, for one reason or another, to spend a portion of their college life in one institution and another portion in another. An examination of several hundreds of these cases shows that in nine out of ten cases it is a migration from the small college to the larger one. Impelled by a desire to go out into the larger world, led by the reputation of some great teacher or investigator, driven perhaps by the necessity of earning his livelihood, or forced by reason of the removal of the family home, the student finds his way to the university and finishes the work begun in the small college. Migration from the large to the small college is comparatively rare. This is an index of the situation, and points conclusively to a tendency from the development of which greater embarrassment will fall to the lot of the small college in the future than ever yet in the past.

The state university.—The source of greatest trouble to many of our small colleges in the South, and especially in the western states, is the state university. Slowly the influence of the state university has gained ground, until in some states it has become almost impossible for the colleges to continue their work with satisfaction. So strong has the antagonism come to be that in more than one state the smaller colleges have joined themselves together in an alliance, the object of which is to meet the rapid encroachments of the state institution. In the whole Mississippi valley there are not more than two or three non-state institutions which today do not stand in actual fear of the state institutions. The explanation of this is clear. With a political influence which naturally lends itself to the state institution; with the large number of alumni occupying the chief positions as principals and teachers in high schools; with no tuition

fee, because provision has been made by the state, and instruction is offered free; with excellent facilities for work in nearly every line; with fully equipped laboratories, and with libraries far more complete than any ordinary college can ever hope to possess, the state university presents an inducement to the prospective student which the smaller college cannot under any circumstances duplicate.

A great outcry has always been made against the state university that its tendencies were anti-Christian, and that its students were under influences many of which were evil and powerful; but a careful study of these institutions shows that the facts do not support these charges. In many, if not in all, of the state universities there is cultivated a deep religious spirit, and the Christian activity and interest in Bible study are greater by far in proportion than in some of the smaller colleges which are under denominational control. This fact is coming to be more and more largely appreciated, and with the appreciation of it there will come a still larger shrinkage of the constituency of the small college. There have come to me within one week letters from the presidents of three colleges in a single state asking for aid in securing the principalship of a high school in the city of Chicago or in its vicinity. The request was made upon the ground that it was no longer possible to continue the struggle of building up a college when the adverse influences were so many and so strong. It is an important fact that in some states the influence of the state institutions has been so great as actually to prevent the organization of any considerable number of small colleges. I do not at this point say whether this condition of things is, upon the whole, favorable or unfavorable to the general cause of education. I merely cite it as an example of what the small colleges may expect in the future when the state institutions in their vicinity shall have become stronger and more powerful.

Lack of financial resources.—But, after all, the greatest difficulty of the small college is its lack of means with which to do the work demanded in these days of modern methods, the methods of the library and the laboratory. The number of institutions called colleges with an endowment of less than one hundred thousand dollars is appallingly large, and yet today the income of an endowment of one hundred thousand dollars may be reckoned at only 4 or 5 per cent. How much opportunity does this afford for furnishing instruction of a higher grade? It should be remembered that, as has been already shown, only 66 per cent. of all the colleges and universities have more than 150 students. This total income is scarcely sufficient to pay the salary of three or four men; and yet out of it must be paid expenditures for administration, for fuel and light, for circulars and catalogs, for expenses of every kind. How is it possible to do adequate work? A well-equipped academy for 250 students cannot be conducted in these days for less than forty thousand dollars a year. The cost per

capita of instruction furnished the high-school students in some of our cities, even where the classes are crowded, exceeds the average cost per capita of the instruction furnished in many of our colleges. The demands of modern methods have quadrupled the difficulty in this respect. So long as the curriculum could be restricted in large measure to the study of Latin, Greek, and mathematics, no great cost was incurred for equipment; but with the introduction of work in history, political economy, and political science the requirements for books and periodicals is very great. With the introduction of laboratory work in the various sciences the expenditures required for laboratories and for equipment are very great. Without money these demands cannot be met, and yet without meeting the demands of the present age our colleges all over the land are graduating students who are impressed with the belief that they have been educated in accordance with modern ideas. An institution consists of the men who make up the faculty, of the buildings, and of the equipment. These, however, can be obtained and maintained only with resources of a liberal character.

These, then, are some of the difficulties which confront those who are responsible for the maintenance and development of the small college.

III. CHANGES AFFECTING THE SMALL COLLEGE WHICH MAY BE EXPECTED AND WHICH ARE TO BE DESIRED

Strengthening of the surviving colleges.—We come now to the consideration of the changes affecting the small colleges which may be expected and are to be desired. First among these will be the strengthening of some. The laws of institutional life are very similar to those of individual life, and in the development of institutions we may confidently believe in "the survival of the fittest." The severe tests, to which the life of many institutions is subjected, serve to purify and to harden these lives. The institution which has survived the trials and tribulations of early years, and which, by this survival, has justified its existence, not only to its constituency, but to the world at large, deserves to live; and its subsequent life will be all the stronger and heartier because of the difficulties thru which it has passed. The purpose of suffering is, therefore, much the same in the case of an institution as in the case of an individual. There will, of course, be fluctuation, and the institution destined to live and to exert a strong influence will at times be less strong than at other times, its clientage less numerous and earnest, its standard less ideal, and its life less vigorous; but, here and there, as determined by the needs of spiritual life, and by the conveniences of practical life, an institution will gradually grow into strength which, in the face of even the greatest difficulties and disasters, will prove invincible.

The small college, as has already been said, is an expression of the American spirit, and, unless this spirit is fundamentally changed, there is

no reason to suppose that the time will ever come when, under proper conditions, there will not be a function and a mission for the smaller institution. Whatever may be the development of the university spirit, however strong the work of professional education shall come to be, the need of the other kind of institution will continue to exist and to grow; and if only the means may be secured for providing the proper facilities, the worth and standing of such colleges will be increased and the advantages of such work will be unchallenged.

Reduction of some colleges to academies.—In this struggle for existence, however, some of the colleges that have already been organized, and others the organization of which is in the future, will be compelled to limit their activity to the sphere of work known commonly as the academic, or preparatory, field. It is probable that a careful examination of the colleges now chartered in the United States would show that at least 20 to 25 per cent. are doing work of a character only little removed from that of an academy. This means simply that the term "college" has been misappropriated by these institutions. Surely an institution with a library of less than a thousand volumes, with scientific apparatus and equipment which has cost less than one thousand dollars, with a single building which has cost less than forty thousand dollars, and with an income of less than six to eight thousand, is not in a position to do college work; and yet it is probably true that more than one hundred so-called "colleges" belong to this category. Forty years ago such a college, if its small faculty had contained a few strong men, might have justified itself; but today the situation is changed, and institutions of this kind are recognized at a distance, if not at home, at their true worth. These, and, in addition, some that in times past have been more prosperous, will, in the course of educational development, come to occupy a more honest position before the world, and nothing could occur which would be more advantageous to the cause of education. Strong academies are needed side by side with the *high schools* of the state, just as strong colleges and universities, founded by private means, are needed to work side by side with the *universities* of the state.

While, therefore, 25 per cent. of the small colleges now conducted will survive, and be all the stronger for the struggle thru which they have passed, another 25 per cent. will yield to the inevitable, and, one by one, take a place in the system of educational work which, while in one sense lower, is in a true sense higher. It is surely a higher thing to do honest and thoro work in a lower field than to fall short of such work in a higher field.

The modification of some to junior colleges.—Another group of these smaller institutions will come to be known as junior colleges. I use the words "junior colleges," for lack of a better term, to cover the work of the freshman and sophomore years. With these may usually be closely

associated the work of the preparatory department, or academy: This period of six years is, I am inclined to think, a period which stands by itself as between the period of elementary education and that of the university. The work of the freshman and sophomore years is only a continuation of the academy or high-school work. It is a continuation, not only of the subject-matter studied, but of the methods employed. It is not until the end of the sophomore year that university methods of instruction may be employed to advantage. It is not until the end of the sophomore year that the average student has reached an age which enables him to do work with satisfaction, except in accordance with academy methods. At present this consecutive period of preparation, covering six years, is broken at the end of the fourth year, and the student finds himself adrift. He has not reached the point when work in any of his preparatory subjects is finished. He is compelled to continue the same work under new and strange conditions, with new and strange instructors. Not infrequently the instructors under whom he is placed in the freshman year of college are inferior to those with whom he has been associated in the academy. A great waste of energy, time, and interest follows this unnatural break in the prosecution of the student's work. Nature has marked out the great divisions of educational work, and the laws of nature may not be violated without injury. My firm conviction is that in time this difficulty will be appreciated, and that a large number, perhaps even a majority, of the colleges now attempting to do the four years of preparatory course and the four years of college work will be satisfied to limit their work to the six years which would include the preparatory training and the first two years of college life. The motives to this change will be found in its economy, and in the possibility of doing thoro and satisfactory work, where today such work is impossible.

There are at least two hundred colleges in the United States in which this change would be desirable. These institutions have a preparatory school as well as a college course. The number of students in the preparatory school is perhaps a hundred and fifty. In the freshmen and sophomore classes they have thirty to forty students, and in the junior and senior classes twenty to thirty. The annual income of these institutions is restricted for the most part to the fees of the students, and will average from all sources, let us say, eight to ten thousand dollars. In order to keep up the name of the college, the income is made to cover the expenses of eight years—that is, the preparatory and the collegiate departments. In order to do the work of the junior and senior years of the college, even superficially, where the classes are so small, as much of the total income is spent upon the instruction during these two years as upon that of the five or six years below. It is evident that, even with this disproportionate expenditure, the work of the junior and senior college years can be

done only in a superficial way, because the library and laboratory facilities are meager, the range of instruction is very narrow, and a single instructor is often required to teach in three or four subjects.

But this is not the most significant fact. When the money paid by the students of the first six years has been used for instruction of a few men who are working in the last two years, in order that the college may continue to be known as a college, there does not remain sufficient income to do justice to the work of the lower years. This is an attempt to do higher work at the cost of the lower. Nor are examples of this kind limited to states in the West and South. More than one instance will be found in the state of New York, while in Pennsylvania and Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan, such institutions abound.

The reduction of institutions of this class to the rank of colleges which shall do, in addition to the preparatory work, only the work of the freshman and sophomore years, will accomplish several results.

1. The money now wasted in doing the higher work superficially could be used to do the lower work more thoroly.

2. The pretense of giving a college education would be given up, and the college could become an honest institution.

3. The student who was not really fitted by nature to take the higher work could stop naturally and honorably at the end of the sophomore year.

4. Many students who might not have the courage to enter upon a course of four years' study would be willing to do the two years of work before entering business or the professional school.

5. Students capable of doing the higher work would be forced to go away from the small college to the university. This change would in every case be most advantageous.

6. Students living near the college whose ambition it was to go away to college could remain at home until greater maturity had been reached—a point of the highest moment in these days of strong temptation.

The substitution of the six-year institution, including the academic or high-school course, for the present four-year institution, without preparatory work, would, at one stroke, touch the greatest evils of our present situation,

Development of high schools into junior colleges.—Directly along this line will be another change, namely, the development of high schools into junior colleges. Evidence that this change is already taking place may be found on every hand. The establishment of hundreds of high schools thru all the states is in itself a new element in our educational machinery which has disarranged the former system, but has, at the same time, greatly advanced the interests of education itself. The quickening influence of these institutions is seen, not only in the increased number of those who continue their work in the college and the university, nor

merely in the fact that a larger number of more intelligent men and women is thus contributed to the various communities, but especially in the fact that the teachers of the schools of a lower grade are vastly stronger and better prepared for their work.

The suggestion is made from time to time that the people will not consent to continue the public support of these high schools. But, as a matter of fact, they do continue to support them; and, more than this, these schools are constantly increasing their requirements for admission, as well as their facilities for instruction and the number of years of the curriculum. It has now come to be generally recognized that the ideal high school must have a curriculum of four years, and in many sections of the country this has already been secured. In others, it is coming. The next step in the development of this work will be the addition of one or two years to the present courses; or, in other words, the carrying of the high school up to the end of the sophomore college year. Already this has practically been accomplished in certain schools in Michigan and in some of our cities. It can be done at a minimum of cost. Today only 10 per cent. of those who finish the high school continue the work in college. If the high schools were to provide work for two additional years, at least 40 per cent. of those finishing the first four years would continue to the end of the sophomore year.

With this modification of the high school on the one hand, and with the suggested modification of many of our colleges upon the other, there would come to be a system of colleges, state or non-state, which would meet the demands of the situation today as they are not met. Many of the normal schools of western states practically occupy this position.

Greater variation of type.—Again, the small college of America is everywhere practically of the same type. So far as general plan is concerned, each college is a duplicate of its nearest neighbors. A terrible monotony presents itself to the eye of one who makes any attempt to study the aims and motives of these institutions. All alike try to cover too much ground, and, worse than this, all alike practically cover the same ground. A change in this respect is desirable, and inevitable. This change will come partly in the way of establishment of colleges for particular purposes; a college, for example, established principally for the study of science; another college established principally for the study of literature; another for the study principally of historical subjects. The principle of individualism, which has already been applied in education to the work of the student and to the work of the instructor, must find application to the work of the institution. The idea has prevailed that every newly founded institution should duplicate the work of those which had preceded it, and in consequence the colleges of our country are, with a few notable exceptions, institutions of a single character. This means narrowness, but it means more. Inasmuch as each

institution tries to cover the same ground, and all the ground, the result has been that no effort has been undertaken to establish a school which will allow thoroughness or depth. The college that has no endowment, or an endowment of a hundred thousand dollars, seeks to do the same thing which the institution with millions of dollars of endowment finds it difficult to accomplish. The technical school with no endowment, or an endowment of a hundred thousand dollars, seeks to cover every field of technical work. The time will come when institutions will cultivate individualism; when one institution will give a large measure of its strength and energy to the development of a department of history and politics, another to physics and chemistry, and another to the biological sciences, another perhaps putting all its efforts into the great field of electricity. This will be in striking contrast with the present policy, in accordance with which the most poorly equipped college announces courses in every department of human learning; and students are compelled, in self-defense, to dabble in everything rather than to do work in a few things.

Notable examples of what may be done in this way are to be found in the case of the splendid work of the late Professor March, in philology and Anglo-Saxon, in Lafayette College, and the equally notable results secured at Haverford College, under Professor J. Rendel Harris, in the department of New Testament Greek. These institutions, lacking the means to develop equally all the departments, chose to select a single department on which to spend the highest energy, and the character of the work done in this department gave tone and coloring to the entire work of the college. In these institutions, altho colleges, work was done of which even a university might be proud.

Closer relationship with each other.—Yet a further change will be the development of a spirit of co-operation. It is only within a few years that there has been any co-operation worth mentioning among colleges and universities, and the co-operation which has so far been inaugurated is of an exceedingly superficial character. Enough of it has been worked out, however, to make those who have tasted it desire still more, and the few steps already taken are but precursors of many that are to follow.

It is not enough that there should be associations in which, once a year, the representatives of certain institutions may come together for the reading of papers and the passing of resolutions. With better classification of educational work, with the greater similarity of standards for admission and for graduation, and with the variety of type secured, so that individual institutions will have individual responsibilities, there will be found a basis for co-operation such as has not hitherto existed. This association will be similar to that which men in all divisions of the business world have found necessary and helpful. Such relationship will serve as a protection for all who thus stand together, against misunderstanding and ignorance. It will secure results which no institution of its

own strength could secure. It will lift educational work above the petty jealousies and rivalries which today bring reproach and disgrace upon it. It will mitigate the evils of competition, and, indeed, will substitute for these evils the blessings which follow honorable and legitimate rivalry.

Such a relationship entered into by the colleges of a certain district will dignify the work of the small college and secure for it a proper place by the side of the institution under state control. This relationship will be, in effect, a federation of higher institutions, and thru this federation it will be possible for each of the interested colleges to strengthen its faculties. There is no reason why a great specialist in a particular department might not be the servant of two or three institutions, to the advantage of the subject represented, the colleges thus associated, and the cause of higher learning. Such an association, in brief, will open up new possibilities for the small college, and it will secure privileges which today are far beyond its reach.

Closer association with larger institutions.—There will also exist in the days that are coming a more and more close association of the smaller colleges with the larger institutions or universities. The great advantages which will be found to accrue both to the college and to the university in such association will bring it about; for, after all, institutions, like individuals, move along the line of least resistance.

I am unable to point out these advantages in detail, but among them will be included:

1. The intermingling of the teachers and lecturers, those of the college doing work in the university and those of the university doing work in the college—the interchange of blood, as it were.
2. The recognition of university appointment thus bestowed directly and indirectly upon the teacher of the college.
3. The opportunities for special investigation at the university afforded the younger college instructors.
4. The special assistance of many kinds which the university may render the college in the conduct of its work.
5. The prestige secured to the degrees of the college in view of re-enactment by the university.
6. The loan of books and apparatus to the college by the university.
7. The establishment of scholarships and fellowships in the university open to students of the college.
8. The assistance rendered in the selection of instructors.
9. The financial confidence created, upon the basis of which larger endowments may be secured.
10. And, in general, that help which a stronger agent may furnish one not so strong in the accomplishment of the latter's work.

Development of a system in higher educational work.—All this points to the development of a system in our higher educational work. The change

of certain colleges into junior colleges, and of others into academies, the association of the colleges of a denomination or a geographical district with each other, and the close association of such colleges with the universities—all this will contribute toward a system of higher education (something which does not now exist in America), the lack of which is sadly felt in every sphere of educational activity. System means organization, and without organization, without the sharp distinctions and the recognized standards which come with organization, the work, however excellent, lacks that essential element which gives it the highest character and produces the best results.

There are some advantages, perhaps, in lack of system ; if so, we have enjoyed these advantages long enough. The time is ripe for something more definite and regular and tangible, and the modifications which have been suggested in the policy of secondary and college education will contribute in this direction.

Conclusion.—I may sum up all that I have said in these sentences :

1. The small college is certain of its existence in the future educational history of the United States.

2. It must, however, pass thru a serious struggle with many antagonistic elements, and must adjust itself to other similar and, sometimes, stronger agencies.

3. In the process of this struggle and adjustment some colleges will grow stronger ; some will become academies ; some, junior colleges ; the high schools will be elevated to a still more important position than that which they now occupy ; while, all together, high schools, colleges, and universities, will develop greater similarity of standard and greater variety of type ; and, at the same time, they will come into closer and more helpful association one with another. The general result will be the growth of system in the higher educational work of the United States, where now no system exists.

4. The future of the small college will be a great future ; a future greater than its past, because that future will be better equipped, better organized, and better adjusted.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION

I. BY THE BAPTIST CHURCH

OSCAR H. COOPER, PRESIDENT OF BAYLOR UNIVERSITY, WACO, TEX.

The Baptist church is the most democratic organization in the world. Each church is sovereign. Large educational enterprises require co operation, hence the difficulties in the way of educational organization are greater under Baptist auspices than under the direction of churches more

highly centralized in administration. The Baptist church emerged into the light of modern history during the great century that gave birth to the Reformation. Historians differ as to whether this stream of evangelical Christianity had been flowing on in unbroken continuity from the days of the apostles, or whether it had originated in the sixteenth century. But there seems little doubt that in its simple creed, its ordinances, and its democratic organization it conforms very closely to the Christian church of the earliest centuries. For nearly two centuries after the Reformation Baptists gave little attention to the establishment of educational institutions; yet the church grew. Baptists were often persecuted and were generally misrepresented, even by the best men of other forms of Christian faith. They were a factor, however, of considerable importance in the great rebellion under Cromwell, and the faith spread early to the American colonies. Altho the growth was checked by repressive legislation in most of the colonies, yet they were a factor in the American Revolution, and in 1800 they numbered about 2 per cent. of the population of the United States. The vast majority of the Baptists were poor, and doubtless a large percentage were illiterate during this period. This was true both of preacher and people; yet, intense in conviction and having the courage of their convictions, they believed and studied the Bible. Many of the preachers, altho uneducated in the technical sense, have always been men of great power and rare nobility of character. They were masters of the marvelous imagery and diction of the Sacred Book. They understood the hearts of the people, and preached with transcendent power the simple story of the cross. If their outlook on life was narrow, it was at the same time intense, for it included and impressed honesty, virtue, courage, and fidelity. Baptists have always been loyal to the ideals of Christian education, as they have understood them; but to them always life has meant far more than learning, character more than intellect. Their attention has been directed, in large measure, to the seamy side of humanity, and by their efforts to improve that side they have contributed in lasting and permanent ways to the improvement of the whole.

In a wide and true sense, all genuine Christian work is educative, and all genuine Christian workers are educators, whether with reference to individuals, communities, states, or humanity. But I shall treat the subject in a narrower sense, as signifying directly the training given as preparation thru the well-recognized instrumentalities of institutions for education, the great educational leaders who shape educational thought, and the underlying ideas of which both leaders and institutions are exponents.

Further, I deem it best to confine my views to the educational record of the Baptists of the United States, because it is in our country that their chief educational work has been done.

1. The Baptists emerged from the obscurity of a thousand years with a doctrine new to civilization, but destined, under God's guiding hand, to reorganize society and thus create a new era in the world's history. This was the doctrine that man is responsible for his religious faith to God alone. Wherever Baptists appear in history, from the sixteenth century on, we find them maintaining with marvelous clearness of thought and inflexible firmness of conviction this great truth of soul-liberty. It is the peculiar glory of this denomination that the first state ever established on the principle of liberty of conscience was founded by a Baptist, who had learned the significance of this truth thru persecution. Yet Roger Williams only applied the lessons already taught by the Baptists of England and Holland, whose noble pleas for liberty of conscience, issued many years before and undoubtedly known to Williams, are still preserved. The revelation of this transcendent truth came not to the great reformers—not to Luther nor to Calvin, not to Melancthon nor to Knox; for they all, great and good men as they were, were stained by persecution. May we not say that this obscure and lowly church, "the sect everywhere spoken against," was selected by God himself to teach this the most far-reaching truth of modern times—absolute liberty of conscience—that the glory might be to Him, and not to man? The removal of the jurisdiction of religious faith from the courts of earth to the court of heaven was the last step in the evolution of the Master's prophecy: "And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

"Right of individual judgment in religion, the requirement of personal faith and obedience, lead inevitably to civil freedom. Individuality in relation to God and Christ and salvation, the Scriptures and judgment and eternity, conducts by an irresistible sequence to freedom of thought and speech and press; to popular government, to unfettered scientific investigation, and to universal education."

I hold that the most important contribution made by Baptists to education has been their vindication of this fundamental doctrine of soul-liberty. A striking example of their general attitude on this subject—soul-liberty—was given when the constitution of the United States was pending. The Baptists of Virginia thought that Article VI of the original draft did not guarantee full liberty of conscience, and accordingly their general committee sent a memorable letter about the matter to Washington himself. Washington's reply bore testimony to the loyalty of the Baptists to civil liberty, and their generous part in promoting "our glorious revolution," and gave pledge of his devotion to the principle of freedom of conscience. With the approval of Washington, Madison then submitted the first amendment to the constitution: "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances." And so, from what might be deemed

the squeamishness of Virginia Baptists, the fullest freedom of conscience was established in America forever. I deem the establishment of soul-liberty the most important contribution to educational progress made since Christ uttered the prophecy and the command: "Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

2. I shall devote brief space to some of the educational leaders contributed by this denomination. Thru all modern times there have been Baptists whose leadership in the world of thought, both religious and secular, has contributed toward the shaping of the educational ideal.

John Milton, of whom Dryden wrote,

Three poets, in distant ages born,
Greece, Italy and England did adorn.
The first in loftiness of thought surpassed;
The next in majesty; in both the last.
The force of Nature could no further go,
To make a third she joined the other two.

was a Baptist; and not only indirectly by his immortal poetry, but also directly by his *Tractate on Education*, and other educational writings, did he aid in shaping the educational ideal for all coming time.

And what shall I say of Bunyan, whose marvelous allegory, *Pilgrim's Progress*, has been second only to the Bible in advancing intense religious life, thereby making an imperishable contribution to the educational ideal?

In our own country many of the foremost educators have been Baptists, or have been trained in Baptist institutions—especially Brown University. I may mention only a few of these. Henry Dunster, the first president of Harvard College, was a Baptist. President Eliot said last year, at the inauguration of President Faunce of Brown University:

Two hundred and forty-five years ago Henry Dunster, first president of Harvard College, was turned out of his office by the Congregationalists, who then ruled Massachusetts, because he was a Baptist; but today Henry Dunster is one of Harvard's saints and heroes, and for a hundred years Harvard has been devoted in every fiber of her body and in every drop of her blood to freedom of thought and speech.

Few men [says Boone, the historian of education in the United States] have done so much for American education as Dunster. In a chaotic period he gave it form. During his office Harvard acquired such repute that youths of opulent families in the parent country were sent to the American Cambridge for a finishing education.

It is not improbable that John Harvard himself was a Baptist, but the evidence on this point seems to me inconclusive. It is certain, however, that Thomas Hollis, who endowed the first professorship established at Harvard, or for that matter in America, was a Baptist.

I may not omit, in mention of the Baptist leaders, the name of Francis Wayland, the peer as president and professor of the foremost men in the nation. The nobility, sincerity, and charm of his life left an indelible impress on the thousands of students who passed under his instruction. By his energy and wisdom Brown University was raised to a high place

in American education, and his writings influenced for righteousness all civilized nations. Wayland was what Carlyle called Luther, "a true, great man." President Faunce, in his inaugural, has recently said :

The revolt against the narrowness of the old education in America began with the memorable report of President Francis Wayland to the corporation of Brown University in 1850. Whoever reads that report will perceive that this university (and he might have added the other universities of America) in broadening its courses of study is simply realizing the vision of fifty years ago. Whoever reads that report will see that our most radical educators are not yet ready to adopt what Dr. Wayland fearlessly advocated. He affirmed that the college course should no longer be confined to a fixed term of four years, or to any other term; that every student should study what he chose; and that in addition to the present courses of instruction such should be established as the wants of the various classes of the community required.

American colleges have been following out for the last thirty years, more or less boldly, the ideas projected in this famous report of Wayland, which produced the most remarkable debate on higher education ever known in this country. President Wayland also projected the establishment of a department of education in the university, thus anticipating more fully than has been realized in many at least of our higher institutions the creation of departments of pedagogy.

Wayland must be regarded as a creative factor in American education. After Wayland I should name as the most significant Baptist leader in education, Barnes Sears; for Horace Mann, altho a graduate of Brown University, was not a Baptist. To Dr. Sears, who while a student in Germany had baptized Oncken, and thus become the father of the German Baptists, and who in his manhood had worn the mantle of Horace Mann in Massachusetts and of Wayland at Brown, was intrusted the delicate and difficult work of sowing the seeds for a sound and healthy public-school sentiment thruout the South, under the auspices of the Peabody education fund. How quietly, how skillfully, how effectively this work was done has not yet been adequately told. I may give an illustration from my own experience. In 1878 Dr. Sears came to Austin during a session of the Texas legislature. I was an eyewitness to the following. "I will give," said Dr. Sears to Governor Roberts, "\$6,000 from the Peabody education fund to support a normal school, if the state will give an equal amount." The Sam Houston Normal Institute, the most influential institution for the training of teachers in the South, the Peabody Normal College at Nashville alone excepted, was the result.

The great work, begun so wisely by Sears, was carried forward by another Baptist, to whom the South and the nation owe an imperishable obligation. I refer to Dr. J. L. M. Curry, statesman, diplomatist, historian, teacher, and preacher. I am not sure that Dr. Curry has not been the most potent individual factor in our generation, at least in the advancement of broader ideas and sounder methods in educational matters in the South.

Time would fail me to tell of the work of others who have built for all time the educational foundations of our denominational institutions—of Richard Furman, Jesse Mercer, Broadus, Harper, and a host of other eminent men, whose efforts, often put forth under circumstances of great discouragement and difficulty, under God's guiding hand, have been crowned with success.

3. I pass now to the institutions which constitute the chief contributions of Baptists to education. These institutions immortalize and embody ideas. They are the centers where the leaders gather, and reinforce each other; whence the superior young men and women go forth to their appointed stations to serve and conquer in their day and generation. An institution is rarely the lengthened shadow of any one man; many men and women must have wrought—some in the glare of publicity, some in the darkness of obscurity; some with the plaudits of the multitudes, some in the silence of privacy; but all to realize the ideal which the institution embodies.

The present century is the century of the establishment and development of Baptist institutions. Of the two hundred institutions now existing and bearing the Baptist name, only five belong to the first quarter of the present century; twenty-eight originated during the second quarter; sixty-six were established during the third quarter; and nearly one hundred belong to the last quarter. Brown University is the only Baptist college which has celebrated its centennial. The institutions of the first quarter are as follows: Brown, founded in 1764, has endowment and property now valued at about three million; Colby University, founded in 1818, has endowment and property valued at about three-quarters of a million; Colgate University, in 1819, is now valued at something more than two million; Columbian, at Washington, in 1821, has a present valuation of \$1,200,000. To the second quarter of the century belong Shurtleff College, 1827, \$250,000; Georgetown, in Kentucky, 1829, valuation about \$400,000; Denison University, 1831, valuation of more than \$600,000; Richmond College, Virginia, 1832, valuation of about \$1,000,000; Wake Forest University, North Carolina, 1833, valuation of about \$310,000. To the same year belong Kalamazoo, Mich., valuation \$260,000; Franklin College, Indiana, 1834, valuation \$400,000; Mercer University, Georgia, 1837, valuation of about \$500,000. In 1841 Howard College was established in Alabama; in 1845 was established Baylor University in Texas, an institution from which about ten thousand students have gone out, and which has a present valuation, with Baylor Female College, of about \$500,000. The enrollment in these two institutions during the past year has reached a thousand students. To the same year belong Limestone College, South Carolina; Southwestern Baptist University of Tennessee; and several other institutions of lesser note. In 1849 William Jewell College was established in Missouri. In

1850 the University of Rochester, the present valuation of which is a million and a quarter; Furman University in South Carolina, the present valuation of which is about \$165,000; and several institutions which need not here be named. To these institutions of the first half of the century belongs the glory of having given shape and tone to the tremendous work which has followed. The development of the denomination in its educational contribution during this period has been marvelous: at the beginning of the century, one institution, in Rhode Island, with ninety-two students; at the end of the century 200 institutions, in every state, with 40,000 students; at the beginning of the century, property and endowment of \$50,000; at the end of the century, property and endowment of \$44,000,000. During this period all the theological seminaries of the denomination have been established: Hamilton in 1819, Newton in 1825, Rochester in 1850, the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary in 1859, the Chicago Divinity School in 1857, the Richmond Theological Seminary (for colored students) in 1868, and the Crozer in the same year. One of these institutions, the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, has the largest enrollment of theological students of any institution in the United States. The total valuation of these institutions is about five millions of dollars. The time has surely passed when it could be said that the Baptists do not require and provide for an educated ministry.

There have been four great movements toward educational progress in this denomination in this century. The first was in 1817, when the triennial Baptist convention, under the leadership of Richard Furman, and the impassioned advocacy of Luther Rice, committed the denomination forever to educational as well as to missionary work. Interest was stirred in Christian education from Maine to Mississippi. The second great impulse was given by the educational commission from 1870 to 1876. By this movement the Baptist denomination was moved to deeper interest in every form of education, and from it resulted a great number of the Baptist institutions of the present quarter of the century. The third impulse was the noteworthy work of the American Baptist Home Mission Society, which committed itself in 1865 to educational work for the negroes and Indians. The fourth great impulse came from the organization, in 1888, of the American Baptist Education Society, an association representing the whole country, and devoted to the creation of sentiment in favor of larger endowments of existing institutions. During the twelve years of the life of this society greater material progress has been made than during any previous period of the century. Many noteworthy gifts in money have been made to our Baptist colleges. In New England, Gardner Colby, Joseph B. Hoyt, and Chester W. Kingsley have each given more than \$100,000. In New York, Trevor has given about \$350,000 to Rochester, James B. Colgate more than \$1,000,000 to Colgate University, and Mr. John D. Rockefeller has given about

\$10,000,000 to Chicago and other institutions. In Pennsylvania the Crozer family has given to Crozer about \$500,000. Baptist universities have been the beneficiaries at times of large contributions from members of other denominations. Mr. Corcoran gave Columbian about \$170,000, Matthew Vassar gave Vassar \$800,000, and this institution has received from other members of the Vassar family about \$575,000. Hiram Sibley gave to Rochester \$100,000, and the same institution received from the Fayerweather estate nearly \$200,000; while the gifts of others than Baptists to Chicago University, ranging from \$100,000 to \$250,000, have been unprecedented in the history of American colleges.

Beyond question the most striking contributions made by the Baptists to educational progress in America in the last quarter of the century have been Vassar College, the pioneer in the higher education of women, and the University of Chicago, which, under President Harper's magic touch, has reached within ten years a place beside the most venerable and powerful universities of the world.

God has blessed the Baptists in this century. Under the light of free institutions their progress has been marvelous. At the opening of the century the Baptists numbered about eighty thousand, at the close of the century they number more than four million. During this period they have increased fifty-fold, or three times as fast as the population of the nation has increased. They will enter upon the new century with resources vastly augmented and possibilities immeasurably increased. Let us hope that they will meet their mighty responsibilities with adequate faith and courage.

My friends, education must be loyal to the highest ideals of the race. I believe implicitly that these ideals are those furnished by the Christian religion. If God rules this universe, if Christ died to save mankind, we may not disserve the Christian religion and the higher education without disaster to the highest interests of the race.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS TO THE CAUSE OF EDUCATION¹

II. BY THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

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At the time of the advent of Christianity into the world the elder type of Roman education had disappeared, the old political education (*πολιτική παιδεία*), akin in purpose to that of elder Greece prior to the period of decadence. Its scope was to fashion the capable citizen, to train and

¹ By request of the author, the amended spellings adopted by the Board of Directors do not appear in this address. [See resolution of Board of Directors adopted at Los Angeles, July 13, 1899.]

prepare the child for the duties and functions of civic life.¹ The state as the end of human living, both in early Greece and early Rome, was the vital principle of all individual and public action. The conservation and welfare of the state was the substance of their religious cults. Education was directed and inspired by that end; it was definite, vital, and purposeful, and accomplished its end with a success which has left a distinct and luminous mark in the history of mankind. But this primitive political education had been long superseded by encyclopædic education (*ἐγκύχλιος παιδεία*), which Rome had adopted from decadent Greece long before the Christian dispensation had spread among the nations. With the extinction of the autonomy of the Greek cities perished the systems of political education. In its stead arose encyclopædic education; a type which proclaimed education for education's sake, culture for culture's sake. When Rome ceased to be republican and became imperial, when the spirit of her ancient simplicity was corrupted by the luxury of dominion, and the stern example of her Cato had lost the active virtue of typical models for Roman statesmen, the ancient and the virile type of her political education yielded to the deleterious influence of the Greek importation. Roman education ceased to have a definite purpose; it no longer aimed at the training of the citizens, but merely to fashion the votary of culture.

Such was the general educational condition of the Roman world, whose rule was then universal, when the Church entered upon her mission, as commanded by her Divine Founder, to go forth to teach all men and all nations. The encyclopædic system was in universal vogue; it was steeped to the lips in paganism; it had lost the virility of the ancient discipline; it had nothing of the ancient integrity of the primitive political education, where at least the civic virtues had flourished in view of the civic end enjoined.

The divine commission to the Church to teach was not directly and formally pedagogical, but indirectly and by implication that commission includes the education of all mankind, in the highest and fullest significance of the word. By inference education, in the sense of pedagogical training, is a function of the Church; and she has acted upon this conception of her ministry from the beginning. With her the school has always been the vestibule of the church. It is true that, at the outset, she did not, for she could not under her primitive untoward conditions, act upon this in all the fullness which subsequently characterized her pedagogical activity. But even in her days of persecution, when her children were hunted, driven, and slaughtered like the beasts of the field for Christ's sake, she entered upon the duties of the pedagogue, and sowed the seeds of an educational system which was destined, not only to revitalize the Greek and Roman systems in all that was good in them,

¹ COURTNEY, *History of English Poetry*, Vol. I, chap. ii.

but to create pedagogy anew by giving it a scope and an end as much higher, broader, and completer than the ancient systems of paganism as Christianity transcends Greek and Roman civilization in all that makes for the temporal and eternal welfare of mankind.¹

Man's concern of his eternal welfare is logically bound up with his temporalities, for the stage of this life has its exit in eternity; the character of his probation here determines the state of his hereafter. To instruct men in truth at all is to teach its unity, to show that the higher and the lower truth have an indissoluble connection. An institution which teaches religious truth, which is the explication of man's relations with God, necessarily brings all other truth into correlation with that primary and fundamental truth. When the Church set out upon her mission to go forth and teach all nations, and therefore to regenerate the peoples of the world by rehabilitating fallen human nature and by illuminating the pagan intellect with the light of her revelation, she necessarily came into contact and, in large measure, into conflict with that vast body of doctrine which the ancient civilization had elaborated into a philosophic and educational system.² This conflict was at first waged in the concrete, with the powers of the state, and issued in the Christian persecutions. The Christian franchise of the liberty of the sons of God, which was the gift of truth, was essentially incompatible with the despotism of the empire. Cæsar had usurped the things that are God's, and felt by instinct that the subtle and intangible power of Christianity was a menace to his own domination. He therefore sought to sweep the Church away in the blood of her own children.

But it was not long before that conflict entered into other spheres. In the speculative order Christian revelation met the philosophies of paganism. The defense, exposition, and explication of the body of Christian truth grew and expanded as the lines of battle variously shaped themselves through the centuries. In all this was necessarily implied an educational process which would lead up to a maturity and equipment of mind equal to the conflict. The Church must teach and train to that purpose; she must assume the duties of the pedagogue. The truth she taught stood in sharp contrast with the medley of pagan doctrines around about her. Pedagogy was a logical and imperative necessity; was and always will be; she therefore, according to her circumstances, began the foundation of schools.

At first her teaching was domestic. The family was the school.³ The parents, as far as in them lay, educated their children, and in this far her educational system resembled that of early Rome—the political education which had built up the stern and admirable character of the fathers of the

¹ See REV. EUGENE MAGEVENEY, S. J., *Christian Education in First Centuries*. New York: Cathedral Library Association.

² See ALLIES, *Formation of Christendom*, Part III.

³ MAGEVENEY, *Christian Education in First Centuries*, p. 9.

republic. But this did not, of course, suffice; the exigencies of the situation and the opportunities of changed circumstances demanded and offered an amplification of the earlier methods. By the end of the second century we find a well-defined system of Christian schools in operation, the seed of which was the catechetical school founded by St. Mark, the evangelist, at Alexandria, in the sixth year of Nero's reign and the sixtieth of the new dispensation.¹ At first of a purely religious character, St. Mark's foundation, under the fostering care of his successors, developed into an institution of lower and higher learning embracing all the branches of the period. Elsewhere throughout the empire rose Christian schools modeled upon the Alexandrian exemplar. These institutions, however, enjoyed no unbroken peace, and suffered from all the vicissitudes which the stress of persecution brought upon the church of the first three centuries. It is not to be supposed, however, that these early schools were so plentiful or so prosperous as to fulfill all the needs of education in their day, and to accommodate all the faithful. They were not everywhere, and where they were they were not always available to all nor for all purposes. The Church must needs educate her own clergy in an especial manner for their sacred vocation. Out of this need grew up the episcopal or cathedral schools.² From the beginning it was an apostolic tradition, after the example of the Twelve themselves, to gather the aspirants to the ministry in the house of the bishop for that training and instruction which might fit them for their sacred office. At first the curriculum of studies was confined to ecclesiastical subjects, but as time grew the exigencies of new conditions, and the natural development of the character of theological subjects confronted with the learned paganism of the times, brought about a more amplified plan, until the episcopal school embraced, not only those branches of studies which were formally ecclesiastical, but all that was included in the liberal education of the times.

As the episcopal schools grew and developed, another type of educational institution arose, destined to become later on, in an especial manner, the great teaching force of the Church. The cathedral schools had as their specific end the training of the clergy. The laity, for obvious reasons, rarely enjoyed their advantages. To meet this need, and to withdraw the faithful from the pernicious influence of the paganized public schools of the empire, the monastic schools began to spread. After the advent of St. Athanasius to Rome in the middle of the fourth century, the monastic institution, which had grown up in the East, multiplied rapidly throughout the West. It possessed a twofold system of schools, the interior and the exterior; the former for the education of those who entered upon the monastic life, the latter for the laity. Within a century

¹NEWMAN, *Historical Sketches*, Vol. III, chap. viii; also ALLIES, *Church and State*, p. 355; DRANE, *Christian Schools and Scholars*, chap. i.

²See NEWMAN, *Idea of a University*, p. 241; also MAGEVENEY, *Christian Education in First Centuries*, pp. 931 ff.

the monastic schools were numerous planted and flourished in Italy, Gaul, Britain, and Ireland; and when the empire of the West fell crumbling under the sledge-hammer blows of the barbarian invaders, it was in the monastic institution that learning and letters found their only secure shelter. When the eclipse of learning came in the darkness of the fifth and sixth centuries on the continent, the monastic institutions in Britain and Ireland, free from the stress of the storms raging on the continent, not only preserved the ancient learning, but fostered and developed a system of culture both brilliant and substantial.¹

With the dissolution of Rome came social and civic chaos in Europe. Society was in a maelstrom of ferment and change. It took some three centuries to bring order and stability out of the chaos. A new element had entered into the fabric of European society. Rome and its civilization had passed forever. A new formation was taking place out of barbarian elements; a new civilization in travail. It was being fashioned on a new ideal absolutely transcending the ancient. Education was to be organized and energized on the new lines. The spirit of the old encyclopædic system had passed away, the framework remained. The old framework was to be seized upon and animated by the new ideal, which had been slowly and laboriously working its way through the corrupt social body of the dying Roman world. With the death of the Roman body it was freed from the ancient trammels; with the advent of the barbarians it met with new obstacles and new difficulties, but which, in the order of Providence, were to be transformed into instruments of its triumph.²

The political education of early Greece and Rome had been vital and effective; it was based upon an ideal, and energetically achieved its end. The encyclopædic system which followed it possessed no ideal and had no definite end. It was mere education without scope or object. The older system had its purpose, the making of the citizen; it was understood to be a means to a definite end, and it was so conducted. The educational system of the Church was akin to the political education of the ancient republic; it also rested upon an ideal and had a well-defined end in view; its purpose was to train the citizen — not the citizen of a temporal polity, like that of Athens or Rome, but the citizen of the city of God. Here was an ideal utterly transcending the ancient. The ancient ideal had been temporal and particular; the new ideal is eternal and universal. As long as Rome lasted and her influence predominated in the western world, so long would the incubus of the apathy, which had seized upon her body going the way of death, weigh upon and retard the free play of the new ideal in the practical order. The barbarians had no educational system, no tradition, no ideals; and in so far as they lacked an ideal, just so far were they incapable of receiving any educational

¹ See DRANE, *Christian Schools and Scholars*, chaps. ii and iii.

² See ALLIES, *The Wandering of the Nations*, chap. i.

advancement. It was first necessary to create an ideal among them before there could be hope of any systematic educational movement. They had destroyed the elder civilization ; or rather, they had fallen upon it as a legitimate prey at the moment of its agony ;¹ and civilization had to be made over anew, not upon the old lines, but upon foundations set deep enough in eternal principles to carry the superstructure whose pinnacles towered into the empyrean of a divine faith.

Here was the task of building up, not a little city of Athens with its philosophies and its literature and its art, nor the huge city of Rome with its world-wide lust of dominion and its pride of life ; but the city of God, built up of all nations and all peoples of all climes and of all times, here and hereafter, now and forever.² The foundations of this city had been laid under the streets of old Rome in the faith of the catacombs, and its stones sealed and cemented with the blood of the martyrs. These foundations the barbarians did not, for they could not, destroy. Nay, out of these very barbarians was to be built the great superstructure in the order of time. For three centuries they were cut and fashioned in the spiritual quarries of the Church, slowly and laboriously, but surely and gloriously.

In the eighth century, under Charles the Great, the revival began. At the invitation of the emperor, and under his liberal patronage, scholarly masters flocked to the continent from England and Ireland, laden with the sweets of learning garnered there in peace during the centuries of turmoil which had afflicted Europe. The emperor and his family set the laudable example of scholars in the great palace school. Edicts were issued in the interest of learning, and the subjects of the empire commanded to promote the new educational movement. Schools were founded wherever possible. Under the guidance of the famous Alcuin the movement rapidly spread and flourished. The political stability of Europe assured under the firm hand of a master like Charles the Great, the cause of learning at once revived and put forth shoots of promise. Blasted by three centuries of social and civic devastation, the tree of culture had withered and shrunk until only its roots retained a hidden vitality beneath a soil encumbered with the ruins of a fallen civilization and wasted by the incessant harries of barbarian wars. It needed, however, but the cherishing touch of the hand of peace to send forth shoots again and bud once more under the tender and solicitous care of the dove of Christianity. The monastic institution, transplanted in the fourth century from the Orient to Europe, had become a permanent and widespread system, and under its safeguard, like the nestling beneath the mother's wings, letters found shelter and protection. Monasticism was

¹ Cf. DE QUINCEY, "Philosophy of Roman History," in *Historical Essays*; also COURTHOPE, *History of English Poetry*, chap. ii, p. 20.

² ST. AUGUSTINE, *City of God*.

the cradle and the ark of learning during the period of storm and the subsequent development. Happily England and Ireland had been spared the frightful havoc of the barbarian invasions, and from these islands of the West, as from a fresh and limpid spring, issued the stream of learning to again irrigate the long uncultivated soil of the continent.¹

From this period date the beginnings of the great mediæval educational movement; for, though temporarily interrupted by the disorders of the tenth century following the dismemberment of Charlemagne's empire, the educational system of the Middle Ages has its foundation and takes its character from Charlemagne's institution. The framework of the Roman encyclopædic system was retained. The trivium and quadrivium of the seven liberal arts formed the method of the curriculum. But, unlike the encyclopædic method, education was no longer mere education. While encyclopædic in its mode, it was political in its spirit and scope; its purpose was to train and develop the citizen of the city of God, the member and subject of the kingdom of Christ. Not merely Athenian or Roman was its citizen to be, but Christian. Neither Greek nor Roman nor gentile nor Jew was to be there met with; its citizenship transcended all these; herein all men were to be of one family; its walls were not made of brick nor mortar, but its foundations and its superstructure were built of the souls of men cemented and sealed with the blood of Christ; all dwelling within its walls were brethren in a celestial city. Not simply cosmopolitan, but more than this, was the final mark of its citizenship; it aspired to the fullest and completest and supremest life beyond the bounds of time, in the eternal franchise of that celestial city which Christ had come to bestow upon mankind.²

Aspiration was the dominant note of mediæval education, as it was of mediæval life. It was a deeply and intensely spiritual life, working in and through gigantic elements, forming and fashioning masses of rugged people into one vast polity, and yet differentiating into a variety of divergent expressions. While it aimed at one dominant unity, it diversified into many varieties, each in its own way exemplifying that unity. The Gothic cathedral, its own peculiar creation, is typical of its spirit; here is fundamental massiveness soaring into the finest lightness of aspiration, unity of plan with an endless variety of expressive detail; its dominant trait aspiration, a reaching upward and beyond, yet deeply and substantially founded below. Scholastic philosophy, which is also the elaboration of this period, evinces the same elevated character. Its basis is the Aristotelian system, broad and deep in the fundamentals of human reason, but lifted and carried up far beyond the Aristotelian substructure. The mass of its foundation, like the Gothic cathedral, ascends in

¹ See NEWMAN, "Benedictine Schools," in *Historical Sketches*, Vol. II.

² For account of schools of Charlemagne see NEWMAN, *Idea of a University*, chap. xiii; also DRANE, *Christian Schools and Scholars*, chap. vi.

columned lightness into airiest pinnacles of thought, with marvelous precision of distinction and detail. In scholastic philosophy, as the intellectual fruit of these ages, we have evidence of the educational activity of the middle period. The vigor of the schools in the speculative world was as great as the social and architectural energy of the age. By this time the monastic institution had reached its apogee. With its growth the life of letters expanded. Monasticism flourished throughout all Europe, and herein was the center of the educational development of the day. Monasticism was the hive of learning, and from it flowed the richness of the stream of letters over the land.¹

Out of this fertile soil rose the great banyan tree of the university system. Universities sprang up in the great centers. Students by the thousand flocked to them. Intellectual life grew phenomenally; the student became as distinctive and familiar as the soldier in the life of the period.² The speculative ferment grew apace. In the thirteenth century the universities had become the great organs of education. The character of mediæval university education is made manifest in Dante. The vast scope of its conception and its spiritual intensity is revealed to us in the *Divina Commedia*. In this great poem the state of learning is accurately and substantially set forth, not as a formal exposition, but as living fiber in the make-up of the work. Dante was clearly well-versed in the physical sciences of his times, though the stage of their development at this period was extremely crude. But it is in theological and philosophical science, coupled with a profound spiritual insight and reach, that the poem is luminously typical of his age. Dante's knowledge is accurate, precise, and yet comprehensive. In him is manifest a well-poised mind, a balanced judgment, faculties thoroughly trained and drilled; what in the fullest sense of the word is to be called an educated mind. With an imagination so vast that it ranged the very confines of the universe from deepest hell to highest heaven, yet he is never vague and indefinite. The entire scheme of the *Divina Commedia* is planned according to measure, weight, and number; in his profoundest mysticism he is ever accurate and precise; the proportions of the *Inferno* are given foot for foot. And, notwithstanding all this minuteness of detail, the imaginative power, which is essentially the poet's faculty, is never minimized or weakened; its flight is always vigorous and large, its heat intense, its coloring harmonious. In Dante the man, and in the *Divina Commedia* the work, we have the ripe fruit of the political education of the Church. In the man we have the enfranchised citizen of the city of God, with his eyes on eternal things as the finality of all human living and endeavor, using the things of this world as stepping-stones to the higher things, thoroughly trained in all his powers, well-versed in the

¹ See VAUGHAN, *Life of St. Thomas*, chaps. xxiii and xxiv.

² VAUGHAN, *Life of St. Thomas*, chap. xvi; also NEWMAN, *Idea of a University*, chap. xiv.

arts and sciences of his day, imbued to the very core of his soul with the tremendous sense of the right performance of his duty here as the means to his welfare hereafter; his conscience freighted with the responsibility of his power of freedom, upon whose correspondence with the divine gift of grace depends his eternal salvation. In the *Divina Commedia* is set forth a deep and comprehensive spiritual insight into the divine scheme of the universe; the harmonious concatenation of human and divine things; the reconciliation of human reason with the sublimity of faith; human philosophy illuminated by the light of revealed wisdom; all the relations of human living made clear and definite in the higher knowledge of faith, which has as its beginning and end the eternal Love, the source and aim of creation. Man's domestic, social, civic, and religious life here takes on an infinite meaning; under this penetrating light there is no duty, no detail of human living, which escapes illumination; here is no room for doubt, hesitation, difficulty; life is all action, explicitly set forth in its final end and aim. The Middle Ages were dominated by this supreme idea. It was essentially a period of vast and gigantic activity; it strove largely, earnestly, and untiringly after a great ideal, placed before it in distinct and comprehensive outline. It was upon this principle it built its great cathedrals, generation after generation toiling, irrespective of its own temporal realization of the result, toward the great end, which was as clearly before the minds of those who laid the huge foundations as it was to be in actuality to those who should cap the myriad pinnacles in the far-off century which was to witness the consummation of the vast work.

All this was the result of that political system of education of the Church which held aloft a supreme and eternal ideal; for men never work better in time than with a view to eternity. This was not mere education. It achieved its results because it possessed a great and lofty ideal; it had a definite end, a clear-cut and concrete object to attain; its scope was universal and eternal. It brought its purpose home to every individual soul, it formed every conscience; excused none and held all to the vast consequences of its responsibilities.

Unfortunately, the intensely creative energy of the Middle Ages began to wane in the fifteenth century. The accumulation of wealth in the dominant European states began to undermine the hardihood of both rulers and people. Political corruption grew apace, luxury and ostentation spread like a cancer, eating deep into the bowels of the social body, and the great ideal which had animated and lifted up the vast activities of the middle period waned and weakened. To trace the causes of this change in detail is beyond the scope of my present consideration.¹ What I wish to note is that with this deterioration came a change in the spirit

¹ For an account of the literary, moral, social, and religious conditions of this period see the respective introductions to Vols. I and V of PASTOR'S *History of the Popes*. The distinction between true and false Humanism is admirably pointed out.

of learning and a corresponding change in education. This was the period of the predominance of Humanism. All learning sought its model in the classics; the excellence of letters depends upon the closeness of imitation to the writing of the ancients. The originality and the vigor of native life, which had so characterized the middle period, had passed away; all was rhetoric. The ideal of Humanism was the polish of Cicero, imitation of a dead model. The spirit that had begot Cicero was dead and buried these thousand years and more. To revive that spirit was an impossibility; the Europe or the Italy of the fifteenth century was as far from the Rome of Cicero in spirit as we are. The movement called Humanism was therefore mere rhetoric, the lifeless closet-copy of a long-perished model.¹

In the folly of its zeal and the mimicry of its folly, it did revive the lust of paganism, where it could not resuscitate the ancient spirit of the classics. We have, therefore, in Humanism the vicious anomaly of a literature endeavoring to revive the cult of a perished paganism without the vital reality which once vivified it and could alone extenuate it. A discordant sensualism was the result of this effort; a literature so debauched in morals that even its pagan prototype was cast into the shade in its impotency to shame human nature as an example of the debauched profligacy to which the human mind can sink. It was a period of letters for letters' sake, and, we may add, shame for shame's sake.

As a result, education in a large measure fell back into the old encyclopædic scheme of education for mere education's sake. The universal political character which had made it so powerful and effective during the Middle Ages yielded in great part to the literary tendencies of the times. Its vitality, for the lack of a definite end, ebbed away into a scheme of mere rhetoric. Humanism, instinctively feeling itself to be no true duplicate of the classics, sought its real basis in a scoffing rationalism, and the education of the day, naturally taking its cue from the character of its letters, or, rather, being their effect, fell under the same deteriorating influence.

The inroads of rationalism and the weakening of the political ideal in education became widespread in the sixteenth century.² The religious and political dissensions of the period contributed to the general confusion. It was at this time that the greatest teaching body the world has ever seen sprang into existence. In the latter part of the sixteenth century Ignatius of Loyola, a Spanish ex-captain, founded the Society of Jesus, devised and drew up the famous *Ratio Studiorum*, or system of studies, which has always been the order's governing rule in the conduct of its pedagogical work.³ This instrument possesses the stability of

¹ Rhetorical effect was the dominant trend of the literature of that day. The revival of the classics as sources of literary inspiration is commendable, but the slavish imitation of ancient writers as mere models is evidence of literary decay. The so-called Renaissance was, for the most part, of the latter character.

² See MAGEVENEY, *The Jesuits as Educators*.

³ See HUGHES, *Loyola*, in the "Great Educators" series.

principle and the elasticity of adaptation ; it is organic in its character, a thing of growth, designed to meet the changes of the development of time without sacrificing the roots of principle. What was a crying need in the time of Ignatius was an organized system of education from the rudiments up to the higher studies, between which there had always existed a gap to be made up only by the private exertion of the student. This was thoroughly supplied by the *Ratio*. Another urgent want was a system providing not merely for the education of the pupil, but for the thorough formation of the master. As no other system had done, or has ever done since, the institution of Ignatius prepares and forms the master with a special view to the work of teaching. The specific purpose of the order is to teach, and the entire training of its members, covering a period of some fifteen years, has this sole object in view, with a thoroughness, care, and patience unequaled in the world's pedagogical history.

But above all things the need of bringing back the educational world to the old ideal of education, under which the Church had led the barbarians from the wilderness of savagery to the temple of civilization, actuated and guided the founders of the society at a time when men were abandoning and forgetting the traditions and work of their mediæval forefathers, whence had issued the blessing they enjoyed. Education must needs become again Christian in the full sense of the word ; it must needs be dominated by the imperishable ideal ; its purpose must again be to train and fashion the citizen of the city of God. Under this inspiration, though bitterly antagonized, the Society of Jesus spread and developed its institution throughout the civilized world, the model of teachers as well as the most powerful influence in the educational world. In 1710 the society had "a sum total of more than 200,000 students in the collegiate and university grades, all being formed at a given date, under one system of studies and government, intellectual and moral."¹

As time advanced educational needs increased ; the area of pedagogical activity was constantly widening. Extensive as was the spread of the Jesuit institution, it could not keep pace with the growth of the sentiment which it itself had done so much to create. Wise and ardent minds saw the need of some organized educational force to take up practical educational work among the poor of the parishes. St. Vincent de Paul, the great apostle of organized charity, deplored this need and prayed for its remedy, and lived to see his prayers answered. Jean Baptiste de La Salle in the latter half of the seventeenth century founded the great teaching institution of the Brothers of the Christian Schools, designed especially to teach the poor in the rudimentary branches. Like all great and fruitful undertakings, destined to become permanent institutions, its beginnings were hampered by a series of constant struggles against hostile

¹ MAGEVENEY, *The Jesuits as Educators*, gives a concise summary of the famous *Ratio Studiorum*; HUGHES, *Loyola*, a more extensive analysis.

jealousy and ignorance. But, emerging triumphant from its persecutions, it grew and spread, until it is now coextensive with the civilized world, its great army of teachers laboring with sacrificial love in the cause of the education of the poor wherever the Church carries the divine word to men.

In this century the teaching congregations of both men and women have multiplied tenfold, until now they are legion.¹ Educational activity under the inspiration of the Church has more than kept pace with the spread of pedagogical interest throughout the civilized world. There is practically now no church without its school. It is a universal axiom that a flourishing parish means a good school. The educational system of the Church is that same system of political education which made Athens and Rome great, the system which educates for a definite purpose; with this difference that hers is the Christian ideal, transcending theirs as the citizen of the city of God excels in height and breadth and universality of culture the pagan exclusiveness of Rome or Athens. Her educational method in its accidents varies with the times and circumstances; in its substance it is ever one and the same. Education with her means the training and development of the whole being, all powers and faculties to be co-educated in concord and harmony, as radicated in the same essential unity of human nature to one and the same definite end. With her the religious being is never separated from the intellectual, and the moral character one with the religious. She knows no division in man; she acknowledges no secular compartment marked off from his moral and mental being. The religious influence in the schoolroom is the ozone of its atmosphere. As the flower cannot grow without sunlight from the nutriment of the soil alone, so she insists upon the sunlight of religion in the schoolroom in the expansion and development of the child's nature. The creature of God should be brought up in the knowledge of God. If man be not religiously educated, his being is incomplete and stunted. What to teach is first to be understood; how to teach follows. What to teach depends upon the objective purpose of education, upon the ideal set up; method is merely the means to that end. The first essential in a teacher is to be something more than a pedagogue; he must be a gardener of the soul. The teacher should be filled with the enthusiasm of his vocation, clearly and definitely understand the objective aim of his work; he should be an idealist with power to lift and carry his pupil to the end in view. Above all he is not a mere instructor, a pourer-in of knowledge; for education is not mere learning. You may have an educated man, who is well trained and matured, of balanced and symmetrical character, and yet not an erudite man. It is not how much a man knows, but his trained capacity to acquire, harmonize, systematize, and apply knowledge,

¹ In the United States alone the church has 10 universities; 30 secular seminaries with 2,630 students; 79 religious seminaries with 1,998 students; 178 colleges for boys; 662 academies for girls; 3,811 parish schools with an attendance of 854,523 pupils. The Catholic population of the United States is estimated at 10,000,000.

that is the test of real education. In other words, true education aims at the formation of character and the development of power. In proportion to the ideal aimed at in an educational system will be its value in the formation of character. The aim of the Church in her educational scheme has always been to form the citizens of the city of God. Her ideal is all-inclusive, for in it are embraced all the virtues, natural and supernatural. The patriot and the enlightened and virtuous member of civil society are the logical effect. In seeking the higher things all lesser things shall be added unto you.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY

PRESIDENT JOSEPH SWAIN, STATE UNIVERSITY OF INDIANA, BLOOMINGTON, IND.

The rapid development of institutions of higher learning in the United States is one of the most remarkable historical facts of the closing quarter of the nineteenth century. Within this period small and struggling institutions have grown into great universities, with large storehouses of libraries and laboratories and other equipment. These institutions have been heavily endowed, employ hundreds of trained and skillful specialists, and educate thousands of students from this and other lands.

The recognition by this body of the value of higher education may be taken for granted. It may also be assumed that it is the duty and privilege of the state, under such regulations and supervision as wisdom and experience approve, to make conditions favorable to the growth and development of all the different kinds of institutions of higher education. The church school, promoted by the love and devotion of its members for its doctrinal teachings, educates for its own work. We recognize the great good to society which these institutions have wrought. Our nation is also profoundly grateful for the work of inestimable value performed by those private institutions of higher learning which in recent years have played such a leading part in the higher educational work of the United States. The state higher educational institutions, especially in the West and South, are growing year by year in public appreciation, and form an important part of our educational development.

The state university, like all other parts of our public-school system created, supported, and controlled by the state, must commend itself to the whole people; otherwise its right to existence will be questioned. Recognizing, as this association does, that the state university is as necessary a part of the public-school system as the high school or the lower grades, the grounds for its existence, its aim and field, cannot too frequently be stated.

HISTORICAL STATEMENT

The extent of state support of higher education in the past, and the practice of the present, create a strong presumption of its continuance in the future with increasing liberality.

The first university of the world was the museum of Alexandria, supported from the public treasuries under the Ptolemies. State support of higher education became the policy of the Roman empire. It was recognized that if the state would have leaders it must have trained men. In the Middle Ages there was perhaps no greater man than Charlemagne. His proudest claim to distinction was his patronage of all forms of higher education.

France maintains fifteen state universities at an annual expense to the government of about fifteen million francs. Education in Sweden is chiefly an affair of the state. The universities of Upsala and Lund are both state institutions. No better illustration of the advantages of higher education to the state need be given than the wonderful advances of the German empire in the present century, and these advantages are conceded to be due to the establishment and support by the state of her public education. Germany's rapid advance to commercial rivalry with England is due in large part to the absorption of university men into the trades. Oxford and Cambridge have received large contributions from royal favors. The University of Edinburgh has received support from the British government. Private wealth did early what the state might have done later. The existence of colonial state universities is ample evidence that English spirit favors higher education by the state. To the early American colonists learning was a trust which had been carried across the sea to be fostered and handed down to posterity, and was sacred alike to the church and to the society of the new community. Like Harvard in Massachusetts, Yale College in Connecticut received constant support from the legislature of the colony in which it was situated. The appropriations took the form of land grants, taxes, bills of credit, and the like. At the end of the last century the first president, Dwight, declared that the state of Connecticut had been the chief benefactor of Yale College. In the early colonial education the church and the state were closely allied. The dominant spirit was benevolence. The whole emphasis was upon moral elevation and the support of religion. After the Declaration of Independence there was a movement in favor of universities "created, controlled, and supported" by the state. There was a demand for a political education—"an education of the individual as a sovereign citizen."

Nearly every state constitution has a section relating to the encouragement of higher education. Several constitutions have provisions recognizing certain schools as state universities, while twenty-four states have established state universities by state laws.

That the state should provide higher education was a doctrine of Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Franklin, Monroe, and later Edward Everett and all American statesmen of the first order, and such weighty authority has done much to promote public higher education. The belief of Jefferson that the university is as much a public trust as the primary

schools is one that is receiving practical acceptance in the development of the state universities in the West and Northwest.

From an educational point of view the ordinance of 1787 was one of the most important documents ever penned. This ordinance declares that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools as the means of education shall be forever encouraged." A few days after the adoption of the ordinance of 1787 Congress placed its own interpretation upon it by making an appropriation for higher education in the territory of Ohio.

Jefferson saw very clearly the necessity for public higher education in the United States. He had observed that never in the history of the world had higher education been successful except when it had been established and, at least in its childhood and youth, been encouraged and supported by all the forces in the state.

Before 1821 it was estimated that more than six million acres of land had been appropriated to the purposes of higher education.

It thus appears that the policy of state support of higher education has been the accepted policy for centuries in Europe; that it had an independent growth in America, was established as a colonial policy, was adopted by Congress, and has become the national policy of the United States.

While the above historical facts furnish an excellent reason for the support of higher education by the state—the justification of experience—we naturally seek a rational ground for it. This is found in the function of the state.

THEORY OF THE STATE

There are two extreme views of the function of the state held by political theorists. The one magnifies, the other minimizes its duties. The one regards the state as merely a great police force. Its chief function, according to this view, is the administration of justice. Under this theory there is no sense of obligation on the part of the state to its citizens to improve their physical, intellectual, and ethical conditions. The exigency of war is more important than the possibilities of peace.

The other view, the magnifying theory, is to make the state, not just, but benevolent.

"It would feed the hungry, clothe the needy, furnish work for the idle, provide bounties for those engaged in a losing business, and protection for those who feel too keenly the competition inherent to the struggle for existence. It would make the state a gigantic trust in which all citizens might take part, and by which all should be lifted from the condition of poverty."

Between these extreme views there is a better one, and one which is receiving practical acceptance in the United States. "That unworthy theory of the state," says President Angell, "which makes it a mere policeman to protect life and property has rarely appealed to men as strongly as the Aristotelian conception, which commands the state to

seek every high and noble end that it can secure better than the private citizen." This obligation rests upon the acknowledged necessity in a republic for diffusion of intelligence and nurture of character. These are essential, not only to the prosperity, but even to the existence, of a free state.

The ultimate control of and responsibility for education must rest with the state. In a democracy there can be no other power to which it can be delegated. This does not mean that every state must of necessity have a state university in the sense of the term as used in the West and South. If Massachusetts can secure all her needs in higher education thru Harvard and other private institutions, well and good. But Harvard College in her earlier history was fostered by the state. The state can only secure for her children the advanced training they need thru the control and support, if need be, of her higher institutions.

An education which is to train men for the duty of citizenship in a free state must train men beyond the limits of elementary knowledge. They must have that large knowledge which prepares them to understand and discharge their duties to each other, to society, to the state. It is the function of the state to provide educational opportunities, limited only by the ability of its citizens to embrace these opportunities. Any argument which justifies the state in supporting or aiding high schools is a justification of supporting and aiding the higher institutions.

CRITICISMS ANSWERED

Some oppose the state university on the ground that all cannot use it. This is as valid against high schools or elementary schools as against universities. On the same ground one might reply that bachelors or childless men can object to being taxed for the common schools. If the university existed merely for those who are students within its walls, there might indeed be objection to giving it state support; but, as a matter of fact, the state gets the benefit of the finished product. Has the skilled physician most benefited himself or the community? Has the teacher most benefited himself or his pupils? Graduates of universities could not, if they would, appropriate to themselves the fruits of their university training.

The university is sometimes opposed on the ground that it is unjust to tax men of modest means to support higher instruction, as none but the wealthy can go to college. Statistics of our state universities do not support such a view, as more than half of the students, in many of our state institutions at least, are sons and daughters of farmers and mechanics. The number of poor boys who earn their money and send themselves to college is increasing from year to year.

It is sometimes said that a state university is not necessary, that students can go to institutions outside the state. There are serious objections to this idea. A majority of the students in our state universities

cannot afford to pay the necessary expense incurred by attending institutions in other states. "The rich can send their sons to distant institutions. Not so with the poor and those of modest means. They must have institutions near at hand or be excluded from its advantage."

The state institution furnishes a common meeting-ground where the young men and young women of the state are free from any influences except those which are accepted by the state itself. It becomes a forum where the rising young men and women of the whole state may know one another and value one another rightly. The lack of a state university would be a great loss to the state in every way. Many of the young men who go to institutions outside the state lose their state affiliations and become citizens of other states. I have heard President Angell of the University of Michigan say, with force and truth, that one of the great benefits of the university to the state of Michigan was the fact that able young men who came to the University of Michigan to study not infrequently take up their residence in the state and become useful and influential citizens.

Can we not depend wholly on wealthy men to furnish higher education? This would be un-American.

Wealthy men might grade our roads, build our courthouses, conduct our courts, do anything for the public good, if the state should neglect these matters, or turn them over to private hands. But this would not release the people from their duty in the matter. The people have safety only in independence.¹

There is [says President White] no system more un-republican than that by which a nation or state, in consideration of a few hundreds or thousands of dollars, delivers over its system of advanced instruction to be controlled and limited by the whim of living donors or dead testators. In more than one nation dead hands stretching out from graves closed generations gone have lain with a deadly chill upon institutions for advanced instruction for centuries. More than one institution in our own country has felt its grip and chill. If we ought to govern ourselves in anything, it ought to be in this.

THE NECESSITY FOR A STATE UNIVERSITY

The people must provide for the things they need, or these things will never be properly and adequately furnished. Private provision for education cannot guarantee, and cannot be expected to guarantee, absolute freedom from bias in religion, politics, and morals. The state can secure unsectarian instruction, unpartisan institutions, only by providing these itself. This fact does not in the least disparage the existence of private and denominational colleges, but indicates that these alone are not sufficient.

Of all the state treasures [says Andrew D. White] the genius and talent of citizens is the most precious. It is the duty of society to itself, a duty which it cannot throw off, to see that the stock of talent and genius in each generation may have a chance for development, that it may be added to the world's stock and aid in the world's work.

¹ JORDAN.

"The common school is the hope of our country." In like manner, the high school and college are the hope of the common school, and the university the hope of the college. Each part of the system depends on the next higher for its standards and for its inspiration. From those educated in the higher schools the teachers in the lower must come. Lop off the upper branches of the tree, and the sap ceases to rise in its trunk. Cut off the higher schools from the educational system, and its growth and progress stop. Weakness at the head means paralysis of the members. The state educational institutions should bring to the state the best thought of the world. This best thought should go to the high school thru the college graduates who teach in the high school, and thus be disseminated thruout the state. Thus have come to my own state the thought and inspiration of Agassiz in the study of animal life, of Asa Gray in the study of plants, of Sylvester and Crystal in the study of mathematics, of Tait, Thompson, and Helmholtz in the study of physics, of Zeller in the history of philosophy, of Pickering in the study of astronomy, of Hall in pedagogy and experimental psychology, of White in history, of Goodwin and Gildersleeve in Greek, of Fresenius in chemistry, and of Child, Hart, and Cook in English.

The state university exists for the state, and must therefore be democratic. The young man from the farm, from behind the counter, stands side by side with the son of the minister, the doctor, and the lawyer. In a people's university there can be no aristocracy of trade, profession, or wealth. The only road to high regard and distinction is thru the avenue of superior excellence. This avenue is one thru which the poor man's son is more likely to pass than the son of the rich man. Poverty in itself has no virtue; but the qualities of mind and heart which have grown while overcoming poverty, and have led the young man to consecrate himself to the highest things, are "more to be desired than gold, yea than much fine gold."

THE UNIVERSITY A PUBLIC TRUST

A state university is indeed a public trust, and sooner or later the people of most of our states will see to it that the state university is built "higher and broader and deeper" than any ideal which we may now contemplate. It is well that Leland Stanford and John D. Rockefeller devote their millions to the building of great universities, but these endowed institutions have only strengthened and not retarded the growth of the state universities of the West and Northwest. The efficiency of the University of California has increased more within the past nine years than within any other period of the same length in its history. This is manifest, not only in the number of its students, but in the improvement and breadth of its work. Thus the establishment of Stanford University has not only given California a new institution, but it has at the same

time been of great service to the state university. There are six students now where there was one before. In turn, the state university is necessary to the highest development of the newer institution, and the efficient work of the former has made the latter possible.

In contributing to the maintenance and growth of the state university we not only make better every high school in the state, and therefore the common schools, but every step of the university in advance compels like steps in other colleges and private schools of the state.

IDEALS

"I would found," said Ezra Cornell, "an institution where any person can find instruction in any study." Make this the *best* instruction in any study, and we have the ideal university. "Its course of study should be so broad, so thoro and complete, that no young man or woman need to leave his state to secure the best education the world affords." Such a university must be modern, democratic, human, and its instruction must be largely individual. The modern university is the product of modern life. All subjects which can be reduced to a science should have attention in its curriculum, and every branch of human inquiry should command its share of the time and attention of the university men.

While it must sacredly "preserve all the treasures of the past, and must not neglect the spirit and refinement of the old-time scholars," it must, most of all, recognize the demands of the living present, and extend the boundaries of human knowledge by countless pathways into the infinite creations and thoughts of God, in whom these pathways meet.

A university must recognize its environment. Yet an institution of learning would be foolish indeed should it accept and promulgate any current theory simply because it is current. To teach either free trade or protection because either is the theory of the party in power would be unworthy of, and wholly contrary to, the ideals of the scholar. It should be the duty of the university to examine into every question, industrial, historical, philosophical, political, scientific, which is of present or future interest to the people of the state. To gather together all the facts of experience and the thoughts of the profoundest thinkers on these questions, and place before the students and people a scientific treatment of the subject, is of the utmost importance.

The university exists for the good of the student, and, therefore, every sort of personal helpfulness is part of the university's duty. A student should not be forced to do what is not best for him, either for entrance, continuance, or graduation. He is taking his own course, not one pre-arranged for someone else. With this view of the duty of the university, the teacher must know the student. He must live with him. He must occasionally have him at his home, be with him in his leisure hours. He must be an elder brother, who has gone a little farther on the road to

learning, and is in the university to give the benefit of his experience to those who are younger and have not traveled so far on the journey.

The encouraging lesson is this: The greater the development of the higher institutions of learning, the more determination there seems to be on the part of the states to provide still more ample means for their expansion and for increasing their efficiency.

WHAT CAN THE UNIVERSITY DO FOR THE STATE?

The universities should send out into every township of the state, to her schools, to her professions, to her farms and her shops, strong young men and young women who are trained in "plain living and high thinking," and who by this training are armed against the shams of the world, in education and in politics. This is the age of specialization, and the complex question of capital and labor, the best means for the growth of the product of the soil, the best means of dispensing charity, the best methods of municipal government, the best methods of taxation, the vexed questions of finance, of dealing with criminals, of treating insane people—these are only a few of the many scientific questions which must be settled, if at all, by the searching methods of scientific and trained specialists. The scholarship and training of the schools should form a background for the wisdom gained from a knowledge of affairs. The great problems of our day, scientific, historical, political, and industrial, can best be settled by those who have special training for their special work. We are living in an age when there is a demand for re-examination of all things. We are not satisfied simply because a belief or a custom had the sanction of our fathers. We are not willing to say that anything is true, or that any method is the best method, until all the facts available are examined by those who know how to estimate the value of data. The modern university is an institution where all subjects are considered of value, and the great ambition of the teacher of each subject is, first, to gain a complete mastery of his subject, and then to assist his students to such mastery; and, in the second place, to contribute something to the sum total of human knowledge in his own line of work. The university does not do its duty to the state if it does not, in some degree at least, widen the field of human knowledge. It is chiefly thru the discoveries and contributions of original workers that those facts and principles are discovered thru which the state seeks a more advanced stage of civilization and culture.

It would be easy enough to make a catalog of the things the higher educational institutions should do for the state, and show by an appeal to history that, even from a pecuniary point of view, higher institutions of learning have been worth more than they have cost; but the best thing that they have done is in the direction of intellectual freedom. Every dollar expended properly in a university is so much toward freeing the

human mind from the bondage of prejudice, ignorance, and superstition. To free the American slave from the shackles of human slavery was a holy office, but to provide the young men and women of our country with the means and opportunities of freeing themselves of all the shackles that bind them to the lower allurements of life is not only a holy office, but the most sacred obligation of the state.

THE PROBLEM OF THE SOUTH

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON, PRINCIPAL, TUSKEGEE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE, TUSKEGEE, ALA.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT]

Ladies and Gentlemen:

We stand tonight on historic ground. Charleston and South Carolina have made history—history that will always occupy a prominent place in the annals of our country. But South Carolina was never greater or prouder than tonight, when, with open arms and generous hospitality, she extends a welcome to the educators of America, regardless of race or color. The world is moving forward, not backward. Under the shadow of Fort Sumter we find ourselves tonight. If history be true, I think that it was nearly forty years ago that a little company of men, moved by a different spirit, clad in different uniforms, armed with different weapons, came to this vicinity to bring cheer, comfort, food, and reinforcement to an endangered, suffering, and starving garrison. The army that comes into Charleston today comes with guns beaten into plowshares, and swords into pruning-hooks. It comes with no special regalia. Already we find that Fort Sumter has surrendered and Charleston is ours. It is in this spirit and with this object we come to you—to bring relief, the relief that comes from the spreading of education and intelligence, kindness and brotherly love, among all nations and all classes. It is when we witness such scenes as this that our belief in the ability of our country to work out all its problems becomes stronger, and that the education of all the people, in heart, head, and hand, will be the solution of all the trying problems that surround and confront this southland, where both races have had difficulties to contend with which no other people have ever met.

When we disarm ourselves of prejudices and passions, we must acknowledge that the white South owes much to the Negro, and that the Negro owes much to the white South. The Negro has a right to cherish love for the South. It was here that we came centuries ago in our heathenism, and here we were taught the religion of Christ; here we came without a language, and here we were taught the Anglo-Saxon tongue; here we came without habits of thrift, and here we were taught industry

and economy. The Negro has a right to cherish memories of the South. In a large degree it has been the brawn and muscle of the black man that have cleared the forests, opened the mines, and built the railroads; that have grown the rice and cotton and the sugar-cane; that have made the South rich and prosperous.

In all discussion and legislation bearing upon this subject we must keep in mind that the Negro has a peculiar claim upon the conscience, the intelligence, and the hearts of the American people. You must remember that you are dealing with a race not only forced to come into this country against its will, but in the face of its most earnest protest. These people have a claim upon your intelligence and your sympathies that perhaps no other people can have. And, now that we are here, the great problem that is confronting us is how to solve this problem in justice to southern white men, among whom the Negro must live, and in justice to the Negro himself.

During the last thirty-five years quite a number of suggestions have been made looking to a solution of this problem. A few years ago some six hundred of our people sailed from Savannah, Ga., bound for Liberia, and people said all at once: "We have found a way to solve this problem; our people have sailed for Africa, and the problem is solved." But those people forgot that on this same morning, here in the black belt of the South, perhaps before breakfast, about six hundred more black children came into the world.

I have a good friend in the state of Georgia who is very earnest in his belief that the way to solve this difficulty is to set aside some territory in the far West and put the Negro in it, and let him grow up there a distinct race. There is difficulty in that way. In the first place, you would have to build a wall about that territory to keep the black man in it, and, in the second place, you would have to build a wall about it—and I suspect a much higher one—to keep the white man out of it.

I was on the train not very long ago with a gentleman who had a third suggestion. He contended that the problem was solving itself, because the Negro was so fast becoming a part of other races that there soon would be no negro race in this country. There is difficulty about that. If it is proven that a man has even 1 per cent. of African blood, he becomes a Negro every time; the 99 per cent. of Anglo-Saxon blood counts for nothing—the man always falls to our pile in the count of the races. It takes 100 per cent. to make a white man, and 1 per cent. will make a Negro every time. So, you see, we are a stronger race than the white race.

This problem will not be solved in any of these ways. There is only one way to solve it—by treating the Negro with humanity and justice, just as I find the people of Charleston treating the black man today. When you go still farther in the study of this question, you will find that the Negro is the only race that has ever had the rare privilege of coming to

America by reason of having a very special and very pressing invitation to come here. The unfortunate white race came here against the protests of the leading citizens of this country in 1492 and later; while, for some reason, we seem to have been so important to the business prosperity of this country that we had to be sent for, and sent for at great cost and inconvenience on the part of our white friends. And now we have the reputation of being rather an obliging and polite race; after having put our white friends to so much trouble, expense, and inconvenience to get us here, it would be rather unkind and ungracious on our part not to stay here. Now, my friends, that we have got the white men of the North and the white men of the South face to face, I want to make one request of them, and I want to do it in the form of a story:

At one time an old colored man in South Carolina sold a hog to a white man for \$5. The white man paid his money, took the hog, and went on his way. When he got about half way home the hog got out of the pen and went back home to the old Negro, Uncle Zeke. About noon another white man came along and wanted to buy a hog; and Uncle Zeke sold him the same hog for another \$5. The second white man went on his way home, and met the first coming back to Uncle Zeke's house for his hog. He said: "Mister, where did you get that hog? Uncle Zeke sold me that hog this morning for \$5, and he got away from me and went back." "Well," said the other, "he sold him to me this afternoon." "How are we going to settle this thing?" said the first purchaser. "Let's go back and see Uncle Zeke about it," said the other. They went back to Uncle Zeke's, and the first one said: "How about this hog? Didn't you sell him to me this morning for \$5?" "I sure did," said Uncle Zeke. "Didn't you sell him to me this afternoon for \$5?" said the other man. "I sure did," said Uncle Zeke. "Well, how about this thing?" they said, "we don't understand it." Uncle Zeke said: "Fore Gawd, can't you white people go settle that thing among yourselves?"

Now, for thirty-five years, my friends, you white people of the North and of the South have been contending as to which one of you is responsible for bringing the black man into this country. Now that you are here face to face, I want you to get together and settle this thing among yourselves.

But I assure you, my friends, I am not here this evening to plead for education merely in behalf of the Negro. Those of you who understood slavery and what it meant will agree with me when I say that slavery wrought almost as much permanent injury to the white man during its existence as to the black man. And those of you who understand conditions as they are today in the South will agree with me that so long as the rank and file of our people are in poverty and ignorance, so long will there be a millstone about the neck of progress in the South. So I plead, not for the Negro alone, but in a higher spirit, that you will

remove the burden of poverty and ignorance from both races thruout the South.

In a larger degree, if we would work out our problem as black people, we have got to consider the immediate needs that surround and confront us as a race ; and in a brief, earnest manner get down to the bottom facts of our conditions.

At one time, in Alabama, an old colored man, teaching a Sunday-school class, was trying to explain to the class how the children of Israel were able to cross the Red Sea without getting wet, and how the forces of Pharaoh got into the water. He said : "It was this way : When the first party came along it was early in the morning, and it was cold, and the ice was hard and thick, and they had no trouble in crossing. But when the next party came along it was 12 o'clock in the day, and the ice had begun to melt, and when they went on it it broke and they went down." There was in the class a man who had been going to school, and he said : "I don't understand that kind of an explanation. I have been studying that kind of thing, and my geography teaches me that ice does not form so near the equator." The old minister said : "I was expecting just that sort of a question. The time I am speaking 'bout was before they had any gografys or 'quators there." That old minister, in his straightforward way, was simply trying to brush aside all the artificiality and get to the bedrock of common-sense ; and that is what we have to do to lift our people up.

I claim that, in the present condition of our people, industrial education will have a special place in helping us out of our present state. We find that in many cases it is a positive sin to take a black boy from an agricultural district and send him to a school or a city where he is educated in everything in heaven and earth that has no connection with agricultural life, with the result that he remains in the city in an attempt to live by his wits. And again, my friends, you will find that in proportion as we give industrial training in connection with academic training, there go with it a knowledge and a feeling that there is a dignity, a civilizing power, in intelligent labor. And you will find at those institutions where industrial education is emphasized, and the student enabled to work out his own expenses, that the very effort gives him a certain amount of self-reliance or backbone he would not get without such effort on his own part. When the Bible says, "Work out your own salvation with fear and trembling," I am tempted to believe it means about what it says. I believe it is largely possible for a race as well as an individual to work out its own salvation, and in the South we are to work out our salvation in a large measure in the field, in the college, in the shop, and with the hammer and the saw.

Once, in the South, an old colored man was very anxious to have turkey for his Christmas dinner, and he prayed for it night after night :

"Lord, please send this darkey a turkey;" but no turkey came. So one night, when it got near Christmas time, he prayed: "Lord, please send this darkey *to* a turkey;" and he got it that same night. I don't know how you white people get hold of turkeys, but, my friends, we don't get hold of very much, as a race or as individuals, unless we put forth something of the kind of effort that old black man put forth. There are three things as a race we have to learn to do if we want to get on our feet. We have got to learn to put skill and dignity and brains into all our occupations. A few days ago a gentleman asked me in what way the North could protect the Negro in the exercise of his rights in the South. I answered, as I say to you tonight: Make the Negro the most useful man in the community. It will constitute his most lasting and most competent protection, whether in the North or in the South. Help him to do things so well that no one can do them better. Help him to do a common thing in an uncommon manner, and that will in a large measure help to solve our problem.

The black man, in connection with all this, has to learn that we have to pay the price; that a race, like an individual, must pay the price for anything that it gets. No individual or race can get hold of something for nothing; it has got to pay the price—starting at the bottom, and gradually, earnestly, thru a series of years, working up toward the highest civilization. One of the hardest lessons for a race, like an individual, to learn is that it will grow strong and powerful in proportion as it learns to do well the little things about its doors. The race that learns this lesson may be retarded in its upward progress, but it can never be defeated. In a larger measure thruout this country the black man should seek to make himself, not a burden, but a helper to the community in which he lives; not a receiver, but a giver; not a destroyer, but a producer in the highest sense. I want to see the Negro put that intelligence into labor which will dignify it, and lift it out of the atmosphere of sloth and drudgery into that atmosphere where people will feel that labor is glorified and dignified.

A short time ago I was in the state of Iowa, and I saw a white man out there planting corn, and this white man was sitting down upon some kind of a machine. All the work this white man seemed to do was to hold back two fine spirited horses and keep them from working themselves to death. He was not only sitting down planting corn, but he had a big red umbrella hoisted over him. When it went over the ground, I think that machine plowed up the ground, and I think it made all the furrows; I am sure it dropped the corn in the furrows and covered the corn. I was in one of our southern states later, and I saw a black man planting corn. I saw him competing in the market with this white man in Iowa. He had a mule going about a mile an hour. He had a pole on the plow. The mule would go a step or two and stop, and he would get the pole

and hit him to make him start again. He would go on again and stop, and the old fellow would go and get a stone and knock the old plow together. He would go on a little farther, and then the old fellow would have to stop and fix up the harness—made partly of rags and partly of leather. He would go on a little farther, and have to stop and fix his “gal-luses” before he got to the end of the row. He was what we call a “one gallus farmer”—had only a strap across one shoulder. He would go on in that fashion and plow up the ground, and another black man, with the same kind of mule, would come behind him and lay off the furrows; another would come behind him and put in the corn, and a fourth would come behind and cover the corn. Under no conceivable circumstances is it possible for that black man, following that mule in the South, to compete with that white man in Iowa sitting under that red umbrella. You are going to buy your corn every time from the individual who can produce it cheapest, no matter what his color; all you want is the cheapest and best corn. My object in emphasizing industrial education is to help give the Negro boy in the South so much brain and skill that he can sit under a red umbrella and raise corn just as that white man does in Iowa; and we have got to do the same kind of a thing for the poor white boy—go and take him from that mule and put him under that umbrella, so as to make the forces of nature in a large degree work for him. When that is done we shall cease to buy our corn, and to compete as we do now in so large a degree with the West and the North. We will free the poor white boy and free the poor black boy in the South at the same time.

I was in Boston some time ago, and I saw a white man washing shirts; and, as usual, this white man was sitting down. You don't see a white man doing much work unless he is sitting down. But he “gets there”—he gets results, and results are what the world is looking for. When it wants corn and cotton, it does not care whether it is made by a black man standing up or a white man sitting down; all it wants is the best and cheapest corn and cotton. You must put brains and skill into all these common but important occupations if we would hold our own as a race in this country.

All this pertains to the material side, and not to the ethical, higher growth of the Negro, you say. I do not overlook or undervalue that side of our development. But show me a race that is living from day to day on the outer edges of the industrial world; show me a race living on the skimmed milk of other people, and I will show you a race that is a football for political parties. The black man, like the white man, must have this industrial, commercial foundation upon which to rest his higher life. The black man in the South is very emotional; but, my friends, it is hard to make a Christian out of a hungry man, whether black or white. I have tried that, but always failed. In proportion as the black man gets into habits of

thrift and industry, in the same proportion he improves in his moral and industrial life. Would you think the average black man can feel as much in ten minutes as the white man can in an hour? In our religion we feel more than you do. When the black man gets religion he is expected to shout and jump around. If he does not, we get skeptical, and we say he has the white man's religion. This emotional side of our nature puts us in awkward circumstances sometimes. Some time ago a good old colored woman in some southern city went to the Episcopal church, and they gave her a seat in the gallery. When the good preacher got warmed up in his sermon, the old woman got "happy" and got to groaning and singing. One of the officers of the church heard her going on and went to her. "What is the matter?" he asked; "why do you disturb us?" She said: "I am happy; I got religion." "Why," he said, "this is no place to get religion."

But gradually thruout the South, as we watch the influence of this industrial education as it strikes the rank and file of our people in the corners of the South, it not only changes them into habits of industry, but it is helping them in that moral and religious life. Some time ago I met an old colored man going to camp-meeting. I asked: "Where are you going?" "I am going to camp-meeting," he said. "I haven't been in eight years, and now I am going. I heard you tell us some time ago to buy land and stop mortgaging crops. I followed your advice. I ain't been to camp-meeting in eight years, but I am going now, sure. I bought fifty acres of land, and I done paid the last dollar on it. I got a house on it with four rooms, all painted, and I going to camp-meeting this year. Do you see this wagon? I done paid the last dollar on it—ain't no man got a mortgage on it, and the wagon got a right to go to camp-meeting too this year. Do you see these two big mules? They belong to Sam. I paid the last dollar on them, and they got a right to go to camp-meeting. Do you see this bread in this basket? My old woman cooked the bread; I raised it, and the old woman cooked it. We are all going to camp-meeting, and are going to shout and have a big time. We have food in our stomachs and religion in our hearts."

Gradually we are changing the moral condition of the colored people thruout the South. We are making progress in the settlement of these problems. The black man is gradually buying land and teaching schools in every part of the South. The Negro is not only getting an education, but is fast converting the white man to believe in the education of the black man thruout this country. And in proportion as we can convince the white men in every part of the South that education makes black men more useful citizens, in the same proportion will our problem as a race be solved. And I want you all to remember that when you hear of crime being committed in the South, this crime is not being committed by the educated black men of the race. It is very seldom, if ever, that anyone

has heard of a black man who has been thoroly educated in industrial schools or in colleges committing any of these heinous crimes so often charged up against our race. In a larger degree you must learn to judge the Negro race as you do other races, by the best that the race can produce, and not by the worst. You must judge us by those in the schoolroom, and not by those in the penitentiary; by those who are in the field and in the shop, not by those on the streets in idleness; by those who have bought homes and are taxpayers, not by those in dens of misery and crime; by those who have learned the laws of health and are living, not by those who are breaking the laws of health and are dying out. Keep the search-lights constantly focused upon the weaker elements of any race, and who among them can be called successful people? You judge the English by Gladstone, the Germans by Bismarck, the French by Loubet — by those who have succeeded, not by those who have failed.

We are making progress in another direction, and the Negro is not unappreciative of the opportunity the South gives him in this respect. Go out here about a mile from the center of this city, and I will show you a spectacle that perhaps no other city, in the North or West, can present — the spectacle of the white South giving to the black boy and the black girl an opportunity to work in a cotton factory. In propoition as we get these business opportunities, in the same proportion shall we go forward as a race.

At one time, in a certain part of the South, there was a white man who wanted to cross a river, and he went to a colored man near by and asked him to lend him 3 cents to pay his way across the ferry. The colored man said: "Boss, how much money have you got?" The white man replied: "I haven't got any today. I am broke and in bad circumstances, and I want to borrow 3 cents to pay my way across the ferry." "Boss," said the colored man, "I know you are a white man, and I expect you got more sense than this old 'nigger,' but I ain't going to loan you no 3 cents. The man that ain't got no money is just as well off on one side of the river as on t'other." Now, in reference to our race, I would say that a race that is without bank accounts, or property, or business standing, is just as well off on one side of the river as on the other. Whether we live in the North or the South, we have got to enter into the industries and enterprises of the community in which we live. And in proportion as we do that the whites will respect us more, no matter where we live.

Whenever a black man has \$500 to loan there is never any trouble getting a white man to borrow it from him. I never heard of any such thing. A short time ago one of our men at Tuskegee tried to find how many bushels of sweet potatoes he could produce on a single acre of land. He got a yield last year of 266 bushels. The average production in that community before had been forty-nine bushels. When he produced those 266 bushels, you should have seen the white men coming to see

how he did that thing. They forgot all about the color of his skin; they did not have any prejudice against those potatoes; they simply knew there was a Negro who by his knowledge of improved methods of agriculture could produce more potatoes than they could. Every white man there was ready to take off his hat to that black man. Put such a black man in every community in the South, and you will find that the race problem will begin to disappear.

In discussing this problem further, I thank God that I have come to a point in the struggle where I can sympathize with the white man as much as I can sympathize with the black man. And I thank God further—and I make a statement here which I have made in our northern cities—that I have grown to the point where I can sympathize with even a southern white man as much as I can with a northern white man. To me “a man is a man for a’ that and a’ that.” And in extending this sympathy I believe, as a race, we shall strengthen ourselves at every point; for no race, black or white, can go on cherishing hatred or ill-will toward another race without itself being narrowed and drawn down in everything that builds character and manhood and womanhood. I propose that no race shall drag down and narrow my soul by making me hate it. I propose that the Negro, if possible, shall be bigger in his sympathies than even the white man, and if the white man in any part of this country would hate us, let us love him; if he would treat us cruelly, let us extend to him the hand of mercy; if he would push us down, let us help to push him up.

No race has ever made such immense progress, under similar conditions, as the black race of this country. You must not, however, measure us by the distance we have traveled so much as by the obstacles we have overcome in traveling that distance.

In conclusion, my friends of the white race, this problem concerns nearly ten millions of my people and sixty millions of yours. We rise as you rise, fall as you fall. Where we are strong you are strong. There is no power that can separate our destiny. No member of your race in any part of this country can harm the weakest member of mine without the proudest and bluest blood in your civilization being degraded. I believe the time has come in the history of this problem when the culture, the education, the refinement of the white South is going to take hold and help lift the black man up as it has never done before. No race can oppress or neglect a weaker race without that race itself being degraded and injured. No strong race can help a weaker race without the strong race being made stronger. Oppression degrades, assistance elevates. But you as white people and we as black people must remember that mere material, visible accumulation alone will not solve our problem, and that education of the white people and of the black people will be a failure unless we keep constantly before us the fact that the final aim of all

education, whether industrial or academic, must be that influence which softens the heart, and brings to it a spirit of kindness and generosity; that influence which makes us seek the elevation of all men, regardless of race or color. The South will prosper in proportion as with development in agriculture, in mines, in domestic arts, in manufacture there goes that education which brings respect for law, which broadens the heart, sweetens the nature, and makes us feel that we are our "brother's keeper," whether that brother was born in England, Italy, Africa, or the Islands of the Sea.

THE PROBLEM OF THE GRADES

I. DISCIPLINE

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The best discipline is that which produces the natural development of the ideal within the nature of the child. Such development depends primarily on the personality of the teacher and the influence she exerts thru the power of suggestion. Natural aptitude to control and govern; personal magnetism to rivet with links of steel; the power to express the beautiful impulses and noble emotions of a strong, steadfast character—these are fundamental factors.

Pedagogy has been defined as the science of translating yourself into your pupil's exact environment, so that you may be able to think with his mind, to experience the thousand and one embarrassments under which his struggling brain labors, and to view your own tutorial approaches to him thru his eyes. Thus to put yourself in his place, sympathetically, scientifically, habitually, is at the same time the simplest, hardest, and most important lesson the professional school has to teach, or an intending teacher to learn; and I know of no better means to this end than the training in dramatic art, and the study of childhood and youth.

Our best schools of acting claim that personal magnetism is developed thru practice in reading and reciting such literary productions as require strong emotions for their portrayal. Dramatic art teaches pupils to become keen students of life, and their imaginations are trained to be in sympathy with the joy and pathos, heights and depths of that humanity which they are to interpret. Pupils are trained, not only to observe the slightest detail of expression, but to reproduce such expression thru voice, face, and gesture.

O the power of the human voice! The living agent of the soul, the agent of the imagination and feeling, as well as of thought! To the student of vocal expression every note in nature is alive with suggestions. In every wind that blows, in every thunderpeal that rolls, in every laughing, dancing brook, in every storm-tossed wave, there are instructive lessons.

But of far more value than the voice, in the discipline of the school, is the power of facial expression. It is with the countenance we supplicate, we threaten, we soothe, we rouse, we rejoice, we mourn, we triumph, we express submission. Thru the eye are expressed, with the utmost power, joy, grief, anger, love, hatred, affection, pity, contempt—all the passions, all the emotions, of the human heart.

The time is coming when every professional school for the training of teachers will follow in the footsteps of Colonel Parker, and organize a department of dramatic art; when the systematic study of children will constitute a regular part of the normal course of study, and the child's physical and moral well-being will be considered of as much importance as his intellectual progress in passing from grade to grade, and each temperament will be dealt with according to its nature; when the training departments of our professional schools will be so organized that the teacher will have her own children in her own room to manage in her own way without unnecessary interference. If you take away the opportunity for testing the teacher's ability to govern a school, she can get no growth in this direction, and you have failed to train the teacher in that which is most essential to her success and usefulness, and, without knowing it, you may turn out upon the public an incompetent teacher.

To stimulate and direct energy and impulse, to arouse and develop the moral elements, to get into sympathy with the children, to get a strong hold of their inner life, and to strengthen the moral character so that it becomes self-poised and self-controlled, is far more than ability to give good lessons. This can be done only when the harmony without arouses the harmony within, when "deep calleth unto deep." The teacher who would inspire and raise young people to higher ideals of life, enabling them to see the good, the true, and the beautiful in life, because it is right, and not thru any false incentives, must possess the warmth and magnetism of an ardent and passionate soul.

The happy teacher with a strong sense of humor suggests a cheerful, sunshiny schoolroom. When a teacher is suffering from some derangement of the nervous system, brought on by excessive work with some fifty or sixty children, she should be excused from her duties, paid full salary, and a substitute teacher provided.

The teacher whose education has developed a wide range of thought stimulates broader interests in her pupils. If the teacher knows and loves geometry, the majority of her pupils will entertain a similar feeling for the subject. She who has had wide experience in life, who has met temptations and conquered them, inspires self-control in others. Large sympathies, a personal interest in each pupil, ability to appreciate the good in him, furnish the surest means of developing heart-power, and winning affection in return. When the teacher puts something of her actual self into the task that is set before her, it is no longer a task, it is a

joy—it is an art; and that subtle influence enters into the life of every child.

To my mind, discipline is the very essence of the teacher's individuality, and should be allowed to follow the outlines of one's peculiar powers; it should furnish an outlet of expression for the teacher's spirit. The stronger the teacher, the more spontaneity will she allow, the more will she encourage self-direction; for if self-government be the whole object of political freedom, then self-control is the legitimate primary object of a child's instruction. Discipline should in no way repress activity, but direct it by means of regulated restraint. Activity we must have, for without it there would be nothing to discipline. As teachers, our problem is to retain the immense vitality of children, to purify it by admixture of higher life-qualities, and, above all, to keep it in continuous expression. Set the child to do what you think he can do well, and show him how. Let him learn self-control in contributing toward results, where responsibility may be exacted and co-operation is a necessity.

Good order, a necessity in every schoolroom, is but the merest incident in the series of steps by which the child learns self-government. In the child's earliest years the most we can hope to do is to develop a habit of right obedience by applying true moral stimuli and requiring regular obedience to them. This basis of habit is what we have to work with when the development of reason proceeds, and the child learns that above him is the law, and that the law is for his good and the good of his fellows, and that obedience to that law must be absolute. To bring him into a right attitude toward this law, he must first be taught its purpose and operation, and then led to adopt it voluntarily as the rule of his life.

In the hands of a capable teacher the so-called self-government plan for high schools and the upper grades of the grammar schools is not only practical, but, recognizing students as citizens of the school community, with the rights, privileges, and responsibilities which such citizenship implies, is directly in line with our republican institutions. We do not want to train men and women who will follow the cry in religion or politics, but men and women who are capable of holding an independent opinion, and of voluntary obedience to personal conviction. If we trace the history of woman thruout the ages, we find that it was only as she was allowed personal freedom and accorded intellectual training that she became a teacher worthy of our admiration. We gather back the thick curtain of the past, and lo! there appear before us the palmy days of Egypt, where women contributed so largely in forming that brilliant intellectuality which had its home on the banks of the Nile so many thousand years ago. Higher education has not passed her by, for we find her in the colleges as a teacher and a student; we find her the founder of Egyptian literature—the "Sacred Songs of Isis," said by Plato to be 10,000 years old; we find her as a physician alleviating

the sufferings of humanity; we find her on the throne directing the civilization of the country from first until last.

If we cross the sea and come down to Greece, during the Homeric era, we find woman an important member of society, the instructor, to a great extent, of the youth of the Homeric age. Women were free to come and go, but this freedom did not deprive them of any womanly virtues, for we find the finest traits of tenderness and affection for husband and children thruout the poems of Homer.

When we come down to democratic Greece, where a man's vote alone counted, we find woman pushed aside to make room for the politician, for the man who carried arms and exercised civic rights.

When culture advanced there inevitably rose the question what to do with the women: should they be admitted to share this culture, or should they be excluded? Athens, under the leadership of Asiatic models, said, "We will expel them;" while the Æolian colonies, especially Lesbos, admitted both culture and women. It was here, in the fair city of Mitylene, on whose rocky promontory the softly wooded hills of silvery olive, darker pomegranate, and scarlet oleander looked down upon the fair waters of the Ægean, that Sappho, the "Lesbian nightingale," lived and wrote and sang.

Young women from all parts of Greece came thronging to the olive groves of Mitylene, and the first woman's college in Greece was established. Here, with her devoted pupils about her, she taught the accomplishments of the age, and created the first lyric and dramatic poetry of Greece, and, therefore, of the world.

She knew of but one method of culture—poetry; and she trained her pupils to be poets, to weave into verse the noblest maxims of the intellect and the deepest emotions of the heart.

Pindar and Anacreon were both pupils of women who were Sappho's imitators, while "Latin poets," says Higginson, "draw avowedly 'from these Æolian models, to which nearly all the meters have been traced.'" Modern critics generally admit the loss of her poems to be the greatest over which we have to mourn in the whole range of Greek literature.

A perfect picture of health and grace is the Spartan woman, who stands before us; but for her individual freedom is but a name, and culture has no place in Sparta.

Engraven in marble, adorning the proudest niches of forum and temple, we find portrayed the physical beauty of the Athenian woman to whom culture has been excluded.

Could a Pygmalion but come and waken into life these Galateas, should we find here our highest types of beauty—beauty in its truest sense, beauty not only of form but of soul?

What is needed to blend with beauty to keep it fresh? Is it not intellect and culture? Is there anything that destroys the bloom so quickly

as dull vegetation in mindless monotony? To be beautiful is not a condition, but an act. Beauty is the highest activity, no dead object of admiration, no motionless light, but, like the sunbeams, a living dance of rays, a shower of sparks. We let the curtain fall o'er Athens.

Rome, surely, in the Christian era, must give us a higher type of women, and in this we are not mistaken. Many of the early Christians realized the great career that lay open before woman, and they threw open to her all the stores of learning, all the methods of education then available. They did not content themselves with stimulating the emotions, affections, and submissiveness of women into disproportionate prominence, for their psychology was too clear-sighted to lead them into such moral quagmire. But they aimed at strengthening them in solid reflection, breadth of view, accuracy of reasoning, justness of aim, and steadfastness of purpose. Woman's power as a teacher in these early days was exceedingly great. She might preach, baptize, administer church sacraments, and fill church offices. The grand ideal of the Roman matron, with her strength of character softened, purified, and ennobled by the Savior's teachings, produced those exquisite flowers of womanly worth many of whom, alas, were destined to martyrdom.

When the white dove of chivalry spread its fair wings over the land, we find revived, in a lesser sense, the high-born woman of chivalry, chaste in conduct, modest in bearing, courteous to her inferiors, gentle and loving; in very truth, a lily in the darkness round about her. But chivalry, altho it was the means of uplifting woman as a being to be revered, did not aim at broadening her intellect, for her education was made to consist mainly in studying those subjects which appeal to the emotional nature.

When the Renaissance, that glorious culture of the Middle Ages, unfolded itself in Italy, it was in a land where tyranny and fraud reigned supreme. No man was certain of his life even for a day, and when the light of the intellect of the past ages was opened to the perusal of the haughty noble, he eagerly grasped the opportunity of finding pleasure in and solace from the cruelties of the times in his revels amid the literature of ancient Greece and Rome. Nor was he willing that his daughter should be excluded from the rare enjoyments into which he had plunged, and it followed that the women, as well as the men, contributed toward this glorious opening of new and tender blossoms in science and art. Striving after a characteristic and complete individuality, we find them in the highest places in educational circles, occupying chairs of law, medicine, Greek, and philosophy in the universities of Heidelberg, Padua, and Bologna.

Wherever freedom, training, and responsibility are given them, we find better-disciplined minds, increased strength of character, more perfect teachers, and mankind attaining a higher state of civilization.

"So much as man holds woman in esteem,
Purely or basely as he deals with love,
So much is his regard for honor, or
So little ; such the honor he receives ;
Who not himself respects, honors not woman ;
Who does not honor woman, does he love ?
Who knows not love, can he know honor then ?
Who knows not honor, what has he beside ?"

These lessons from the history of woman's progress are full of suggestions for those who would develop in our young men and women a stronger personality, and train the brighter intellects for leadership and co-operation.

Freedom, responsibility for both teacher and pupil, are necessary for the development of the ideal within the nature of the child, and are the chief elements in our broader ideas of school life and discipline.

THE PROBLEM OF THE GRADES

II. CLASSIFICATION AND PROMOTION

MISS ELIZABETH BUCHANAN, KANSAS CITY, MO.

While there is probably no more important element in the successful management of a modern city school than proper classification and promotion of the pupils, yet just *how* to do this in order to subserve the best interests of the school as a whole, as well as of the individual child, is an ever-recurring problem.

There can be no ideal classification and promotion unless all teachers and pupils be reduced to a uniform dead level of ability and attainments. Each city in America has worked out a system of its own, and each claims a reasonable degree of satisfaction in the success of its plan, tho many are as yet only in the experimental stage, and, from the nature of the question and the changing conditions and environments of the schools, always will be.

There were many excellent features in the old ungraded schools, but there were equally as many objectionable ones. The graded schools, in trying to avoid these faults, fell into others no less grievous. An effort is now being made to combine the advantages of both ; to bring into the class work of the present schools the individual attention enjoyed by children of the ungraded schools. When this is successfully accomplished, then "marking-time" of pupils on certain portions of the school work and the "lock-step" system of promotion will be done away with, and with them will vanish one of the most serious complaints ever made against the public schools.

A move in the right direction is to make the interval between classes short. It is much easier to assign children their places, and more

convenient for the superintendent to make reports in a system of schools having the year or half-year interval between classes. But such a classification is at times manifestly unjust.

Because of a few weeks' absence from school, on account of ill-health probably, children are required to go back a year or half-year in their work, or else be placed under a great strain to overtake their classes when they are least able, physically, to do it.

An interval of a year, or even a half-year, between classes is too long for primary and lower grammar grades. In a school year of nine months, three divisions of twelve weeks each will give a better opportunity for the correct placing of children in grade work. Then, if for any cause a child is debarred from school for a time, he will the more cheerfully return, knowing that at the most he need go over only a third of the year's work, probably only over a sixth, because in a large school some of the classes are only six weeks apart. He thus takes up his studies where he was forced to lay them down, and his future work is not weakened by omitted or hastily reviewed lessons, nor is it made wearisome by his being compelled to idle his time away while the next lower class catches up with him. This division of the year into three terms gives opportunity for an equal number of promotions. The classes, however, need not change rooms or teachers in making these promotions. They remain with one teacher during the year and pass to more advanced work in that room, as too frequent change of teachers has been found detrimental to the progress of young children.

In the highest grammar grade the half-year interval can satisfactorily be introduced, and promotions be made twice a year to correspond with class promotion in the high school. The pupils in a room are divided into two classes; these classes may be three months apart in their work, or they may all be together at the beginning of the year.

If their attainments are so nearly equal that they begin the work as one class, the brighter ones, in a few weeks, show ability to outstrip their slower classmates. At the end of six weeks it is better to rearrange the classes, and give the brighter children the opportunity to advance as rapidly as their ability will justify, and at the same time accord a like privilege to the slower ones. These classes will gradually drift farther apart, until by the end of the year the slower class has accomplished only five-sixths as much as the other, or possibly only two-thirds as much. The children of slower development are thus accorded more time than the brighter children to cover a given amount of work, and are not dragged, bound to the chariot wheels of the brighter ones, rapidly over the year's work, and then assigned, at the end of the year, to go over the same ground, or part of the ground, again.

Such an arrangement might be deplorable if it threw all the bright children permanently into one class, and the dull ones into another; or if

the teacher having a bright class and a slow one so poorly understood her mission as to make the slow class feel like Ishmaelites, forsaken of God and man. There is a remedy for both evils; for the latter, the watchfulness of the principal; for the former, recruits who come in as special promotions from below, and the readjustment of the slow children with different classes each year.

Instead of placing forty or fifty children of the same class under one teacher, it affords a better opportunity for harmonious work to separate them into two divisions and place them under different teachers, with classes three months behind or in advance of them. These classes are near enough together to combine them in music, writing, drawing, calisthenics, or any oral instruction necessary; and far enough apart to prevent one class absorbing most of the freshness of the lessons before the second class reaches them.

If one of these teachers is inexperienced in the work, she has the stronger teacher as a model, and will endeavor to hold her class to the same work; or if a child and his teacher are antagonistic, as sometimes they will be, instead of driving that child from school or making the teacher's task almost unendurable, a quiet transfer from one room to the other often restores peace, and the classes continue their work without serious friction.

If at any time, under either arrangement of classes, a child in the lower class shows an awakening, a desire to undertake the work of the advanced class, he can, with a little extra study and assistance, bridge the intervening gap; and should one of the upper class become lazy or indifferent, he can, after having been warned of his shortcoming and given sufficient time in which to retrieve himself, be demoted to the lower class, if he has failed to do so, and review the work not satisfactorily learned at first.

The children in the class that has completed only five-sixths or two-thirds of the year's work ought not to be forced to go over, next year, the work already performed, as they surely must in a system of schools where the classes are a year or half a year apart. This would be a most serious wrong done to each child in the class. If they were permitted to begin each year's study at the point where they left off the year before, they may, at some stage in their school life, under the right teacher, not only accomplish a full year's work as prescribed by the course of study, but they may do more than this; the one-third or one-sixth lost in a grade below may be compassed also, and the children enter high school on schedule time.

Children seem to have periods of mental as well as physical growth, and can during such times accomplish wonders. In any city the individual schools must conform, in a general way, to the system of classification and promotion in favor with the superintendent and board of education; yet each school in the system has to meet and solve its own special problems along this line, and not a little of the success and

harmony of the school depends on the man or woman in charge of it, and the relations existing between principal and teachers. It is impossible to have a fair and just method of classification and promotion where the principal is a "faddist," or where there is constant friction between him and his teachers regarding methods of instruction or requirements for promotion. For the successful solution of these questions the school needs in its principal a keen, incisive mind that looks closely into conditions of affairs; is not daunted by the seeming hopelessness of gathering up the many threads of this reticulated work and weaving them into a cable; is sympathetic with childhood, yet firm enough to resist the pressure brought by those who, ignorant of the requirements of the school, urge their children's promotion with undue haste. He must be able to see clearly and distinctly the design or purpose of each division and subdivision of the school, and then systematize the whole into a splendid working force.

If behind the general running plan of the school there is not a clear knowledge and definite purpose of each class and grade, then there is, and can be, no system of classification and promotion. Each room is a school, separate and apart from all the rest, with only one tie to bind them together—the misfortune of being crowded into the same building with many others.

In a well-graded and long-established system of schools the placing of those children who have been regularly in the schools, to their best advantage for work, is readily determined. It is far more difficult to classify the children who are new to the schools, whose educational antecedents are unknown, whose attainments are obscured either by a timid manner or by an overconfidence in their scholarship.

If children come from other schools in the same city, or if they have never attended school before, it is an easy matter to assign them to their classes; but the children from different cities or towns, or from the ungraded country schools, add to this question the perplexing element, and awaken in the minds of both principal and teacher a feeling of uncertainty and hesitancy in passing judgment on their ability or attainments, and thus defining their places in the school.

Many cities have an eight-year course of instruction before the pupils are prepared for the high school, while others do this work in seven years. Children from the former cities cannot, regularly, fit into the grades of corresponding number in the latter cities. The seven-year course naturally compresses into each year more of the work than the eight-year course, and a child in the sixth grade of the eight-year schools will probably fall somewhere in the fifth grade of the seven-year system.

Just to which division or class of the fifth grade to assign him, and at the same time remove from his mind the suspicion of being "put back," that great "bugbear" to most children in changing schools, is, in my

opinion, more satisfactorily accomplished by a conversation with the child than by a formal written examination. He has forgotten many things in the migration from one place to another, is surrounded by new faces and conditions, and probably could not acquit himself creditably if put thru the ordeal of a written examination. A few pertinent questions will discover enough of the child's attainments to give him a trial in a certain class, with the understanding that if he prove himself able to do more advanced work, he will at once be placed in a higher class; but if, on the contrary, he finds the work beyond him, he must be willing to take a lower class and not feel demoted, since he is only endeavoring to find his proper place in the school.

The child from the ungraded school is even more difficult to classify. His reading is usually very mechanical—merely the indifferent pronunciation of words; his writing execrable; music and drawing, nil. If he has studied arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history, he has been permitted to devote most of his time to the one subject that suited his fancy, to the partial neglect of all the others. It is rare that such children can be advantageously placed in a graded school. They feel discouraged and humiliated when placed where they really belong, with children much younger than themselves; yet they are a clog in the wheel of progress when assigned to a class with children near their own age. In either class they are a source of worry and distress to the teacher. Some educators advocate the idea of placing such children with pupils more advanced, rather than with younger children whose scholarship is more nearly that of the ungraded pupils, trusting to the reserve force in them for determined effort to bring up the studies hitherto neglected. The majority of children who have been allowed to arrive at this condition have no great amount of reserve force. They are content to do the little tasks set for them and feel that they have accomplished all that could be desired. For such children it would be well, in large schools especially, to have a room set apart and presided over by a strong, enthusiastic teacher. There, if the child has this reserve force, he can more readily repair the damage done by neglect or lack of opportunities in his earlier years. A few cities have tried this plan, and they speak enthusiastically of its success. There is no reason why it could not be made a success if no reproach be attached to that room. A knowledge and appreciation of its mission in the school should be a well-established fact.

As soon as a child had made sufficient progress in the neglected studies, he could be placed in the class and grade to which he now belonged. But, if he could not accomplish this, he could still in this room pursue his studies according to his inclination, with credit and honor.

In many schools the basic study for classification or promotion is arithmetic. If the child is proficient in the amount of work assigned to the grade, he is promoted, tho not up to the mark in reading, spelling,

language, geography, or other subjects. So completely does this arithmetic idea prevail in certain localities that a child is promoted, and his weaknesses in other branches readily condoned, if he is well up in arithmetic; and the child whose strength lies in history, geography, or language is actually frowned upon and held back from promotion if he cannot show a clean bill of health in handling numbers also. While it is necessary for children to learn certain combinations of numbers and certain fundamental processes before they can attempt higher work in arithmetic, it is not essential that they should fully understand the philosophy underlying these processes. They are to go over this field again and again, and on each journey can be taught to look for new and different meanings to those puzzling, hieroglyphic signs of a year or so ago. If a child can only do this work mechanically—and I believe most children do it so—let him do it and be promoted. He will learn the reason *why* he does it the next time he comes across this subject in a higher grade, with a mind better trained to look into the secrets of number. He here repeats the earlier processes, and associates them, with a broadened understanding, in new and varied colors that his mental eye could not have seen and enjoyed in the lower-grade work, tho he had been detained there indefinitely.

It is an injustice to the child to promote him, or withhold promotion from him, on the strength or weakness of his attainments in one study alone. If he has, as we claim, a many-sided nature, then we should be consistent in our methods of development and training for him, that this nature may have symmetrical unfolding, instead of producing a one-sided creature by retarding his advance along certain lines while we apply hot-house forcing processes to produce abnormal growth in another. Nor can it be necessary to hold a child in one class or grade until he thoroly understands every subject taught in that grade. Thoroness is not characteristic of childhood; still he must have a reasonable degree of proficiency in the subjects taught in each grade before he can be eligible for promotion to the next higher, or the standard of scholarship will be held in light esteem. In the primary grades both reading and arithmetic should be considered essential studies in promotion, while in the higher grades the required ones should be reading, arithmetic, language or grammar, geography, and history.

The greater number of children in a school will meet the requirements in these branches of study as well as in all others, but if pupils are detained in any grade until they are thoro in the work, some child would be kept at the same monotonous task long after the children of his-age have gone to newer and higher duties. Not that it is unnecessary for some children to go over certain portions of their studies again, but the retardation of children in school is often too thoughtlessly done by both principal and teachers. If a child has been regular in his attendance at

school, and has made a reasonable effort to perform the work assigned him, he should have the opportunity to attempt the work of the next grade, even if he rank among the poorer ones of his class. It has been my experience that such children, if detained another year in the same grade, are no better the second year than the first. They may, by this extra time, be more accurately drilled in certain portions of arithmetic or grammar, but they show no more ability to grasp the subjects and no more familiarity with them than the children who are attacking the lessons for the first time; and the teacher has the disadvantage of contending with a feeling on the part of the delayed children that they have been unfairly dealt with, and that the pupils regularly promoted always have a pitying regard for them. If held too long on any part of their earlier work, they are apt to drop out of school before reaching the grades where they take the studies that enable them to widen their horizon beyond the mere drill stage, and their after-lives are not brightened by the memory of enjoyable school days.

The progress of the great majority of children from one class to another, or from a lower to a higher grade, should be easy and natural. The parents, teachers, and the children themselves expect this; yet in this onward movement of the great body of students each child should be individualized in the school. The teacher should know his ability to receive instruction, his power of application, his relative age to his grade, his possible future opportunities for attending school, and in all doubtful cases for promotion these facts should have due consideration.

It may be that a child is not so well prepared as other children in the same class on a certain portion of the year's work, and yet it would not be wise to hold him on that work for further instruction and drill. The latter half or third of the grade work may be still harder and require longer time. Some children are not of the nature to show satisfactory results from the instruction given, no matter how long they may stay on a subject, nor how often they may go over it. It is better to give such children the opportunity to find pastures fresh and green, where they may search out a few rich, juicy leaves of truth, than keep them treading worn-out fields with vacant eye and listless manner, in the vain hope of making them thoro before the next teacher above receives them with the disparaging remarks of the previous teacher's training.

No system of promotion should be so iron-clad that it cannot be bent to suit the needs of the individual pupil. Whenever a child studies away from and ahead of his class, the principal of the school should be notified of the fact, that he may give that child special attention for a short time. If, after observing the child's power of thought and application, he feels that it will not be an injury, but rather an advantage, to promote the child to the class above, the parent should be informed of the joint decision of principal and teacher, and his advice asked. If the

child's physical health is good, the parent usually gives his consent, but not always.

In any special promotion or demotion the parents should always be consulted before final action is taken. A special promotion is not always desirable, because of outside duties that would overtax the child if extra school work be put upon it, and a demotion can often be avoided if the aid of the home be invoked in time to check the backward movement of the child in school.

The evil attendant on tardy promotion is no greater than that associated with hasty, ill-considered advancement. Here is a pupil leading his class and taking great pride in the fact. He is specially promoted to the class above, thus passing without notice or drill many important connecting truths between the two classes. Conscious elation at his promotion will sustain him for a short time, but unless he is exceptionally bright and studious he will find himself at the foot of the class to which he has been promoted. He does not fully grasp the meaning of his present lessons because of the loss of the intervening lessons. He feels bewildered in this wider sea of knowledge, becomes discouraged, loses interest, and finally drifts along in a mechanical sort of way, his mind dulled and wearied. He is as a man who has bounded up a long flight of stairs, skipping two or three steps at each jump, and finds when he has reached the top of the first stairs that there are longer and steeper flights just ahead to be climbed, while he is already tired and out of breath. The next stairs will be more and more toilsome as he ascends; he has lost the vigor and enthusiasm that spurred him up the first steps, and which might have carried him even to the highest point in the tower, had he calmly walked up each step at first.

Promotions based on formal written examinations alone are, in many cities, a thing of the past. The schools have outgrown that idea, and now promote on the daily work of the pupils and the judgment of the teacher as to their ability to undertake the studies of the next higher class, deeming it a wiser and better method to develop in the child a habit of study and the power to think than to crowd his mind with isolated facts that he may pass a creditable examination.

Among the many teachers employed in every city or town will always be found the weak and inexperienced teacher whose work needs to be carefully watched, and the results in some way tested. Frequent written examinations or tests in all grades above the primary for the purpose of showing both teacher and pupil where further instruction or additional drill is necessary are very beneficial to such teachers, and no hardship to the teacher whose class is always well taught. These tests, however, should count no more *for* or *against* promotion than an ordinary recitation.

In doubtful cases probably it is well to have a written examination to determine the promotion, but these cases should be exceedingly rare in a

school well supervised. Such children for the last half of each term should be carefully watched and weighed in the balance; the children themselves should have full knowledge that this is being done, and when the decision is finally reached in regard to their classification for the next term or the next year, they may, if the decision is unfavorable for promotion, feel somewhat depressed over it, but few will ever question the justice of the assignment.

As the judgment of the teacher must always count a great deal in the promotion of children, the principal should know his teachers well before relying implicitly upon their judgment as to promotions or demotions, for several reasons:

1. She may not fully understand the requirements of the grade above her.
2. Her standard for judging the work of her own grade may be poor.
3. She may fear the criticism of the teacher above, and unduly hold back from promotion.
4. She may have such a prejudice against a child that she cannot accord him proper credit for his work.
5. She may wish to gain favor with patrons and with children, and promote indiscriminately.
6. She may be fluctuating in her power of discrimination. The same pupil, with the same effort put forth, will at certain periods receive commendation at her hands, and at others condemnation. If the latter period should unfortunately fall near promotion time, that pupil is apt to suffer, unless one who understands the situation interfere in his behalf.

If the principal makes frequent tours of special inquiry into the progress of each pupil in the school, and keeps a record of the same, it will be a check to the children who are falling back in their work, and an encouragement to those who always do their best. They look for this visit from time to time, and if on any occasion it has been necessary for the teacher to report unfavorably on a child's work—or if he reports his own case—he will, after a calm talk with the principal over the causes of failure, determine to remove them, and he usually succeeds. On the next visit he will meet with the statement from the child, and be confirmed by the teacher, that he is improving, and soon there is perfect accord. If the pupil does not improve after two or three visits, then his parents are notified of the unsatisfactory condition of affairs and their assistance asked; it is usually most heartily given, and the combined influence of school and home arouses the seemingly incorrigible from his lethargy; but if this fails, the child is then demoted to the next lower class.

If this plan is followed thruout the year, it will be found that at the close of the year's work the children are in their proper classes and ready for the next step forward. It will not need an examination to decide

who shall be promoted ; the work during the year has been looked into, and parents, principal, teachers, and pupils all know if the work has been satisfactory or not. No child is surprised at his grading for the next term. "Snap" judgment has not been taken on anyone, but all come up with full knowledge to the final adjustment of the classes for next year.

One fault of our schools, and one that causes much of the confusion in the matter of promotions, is the teaching of each subject separately, and apart from all other subjects in the course of study, instead of regarding them as wheels within wheels, where each revolves on its own axis, yet crosses and recrosses the paths of the others at every revolution. The reading class is heard at a given period and dismissed for the day ; the teacher complains that her children are poor readers because she has not time enough to drill them, not knowing that every recitation in arithmetic, language, geography, history, etc., is in one sense a reading lesson. The drawing, so little understood or appreciated by many teachers, should be a valuable aid in arithmetic, geography, history, reading, language, literature, and in many other branches.

Thus it is with each study taken up in the school, and when we have learned the value of each subject we are attempting to teach, and its interdependence on every other subject, we shall then be capable of dealing with this special problem of school management ; and when the question of promotion presents itself for consideration, we shall not say the child is weak in this branch or strong in that, but shall take into account his general proficiency in the work he has accomplished, and the power and breadth of mind acquired for the work of the class or grade above him.

THE PROBLEM OF THE GRADES

III. INSTRUCTION

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More fully expressed, the fourfold problem of instruction is : the child instructed (his evolution), the means of instruction (curriculum), the manner of instruction (method), and the personality and power of the instructor.

This is the greatest world-problem, past and present, because, once solved, and its results proven, all other problems relating to human life are solved—industrial and sociological, ethical and religious ; since "in the grades" means the all-important time when men and women are "in the making."

Thirty minutes is the time allotted for presenting this world-problem in the present stage of its evolution to the highest representative body

—the senate—of American educators, who are themselves making it their life-study!

Can you not feel the tumult of the brain, as the multiform and manifold phases of this problem go tumbling about in the head, challenging—yes, daring—attack? Educational values; formale ducation; “the three R’s” and the so-called “fads;” the old education and the new; the value and place of nature study, music, drawing, painting, and modeling; industrial training, ethical training, æsthetic training; correlation, concentration, and all the other “-ations” that follow in this train; methods—text-book and laboratory, synthetic and analytic, hygienic and dyspeptic; the evolution of the child, “culture epochs;” and so on, *ad infinitum!* All under cover of this tremendous subject!

Can one thought be found to unify the many? Reminding ourselves that upon the platform of the National Educational Association one is expected merely to state problems—not to settle them—we take courage. In this case the attempt will be to state the problem from the point of view of the elementary schools; to state it in its highest, therefore simplest, terms; so to state it that we may go back to the children for the solution, with clearer insight, renewed enthusiasm, earnestness, determination of will, consecration of heart and will, courage, faith, and joy.

A problem, as defined, is a “matter of uncertainty requiring further light to determine the truth.” A clear statement must indicate desired results in illuminated as well as simple terms, since to bring into view the outlines of the to-be-struggled-for quantity is to draw it in lines of light. This implies clear understanding of conditions, and of the specific, definite character of the unknown to-be-found quantity. Whence shall come the “further light” needed? It does not emanate from the classroom of the doctor of philosophy, tho here must be sensitized the eye that would see; nor from the pages of the notebook filled with the wisdom of the psychologist who makes occasional visits to the schoolroom and views conditions from behind his learned spectacles (blue or otherwise), tho he, too, serves as an oculist. It does emanate from the room in which children daily live. Here philosophy, insight, sympathy with child-life, combined, must read as well as solve the problem. Is it possible so to express it as both to illuminate the ideal and radiate sidelights upon the means to be used in reaching it? We take the question to the schoolroom. The combined and accumulated wisdom of the philosopher and of the poet earnestly asks of the child whom it would serve: What are you? What are your needs? Browning, the poet-philosopher, has voiced the answer that comes to every truthseeker that has “ears to hear”: “I am made up of an intensest *life*; . . . a principle of restlessness which would *be all*—have, see, know, taste, feel all.”

Unquestionably the teacher’s present concern is how to nourish this throbbing, pulsating, all-demanding life that now is. That, too, has

been answered. The "letter killeth, but the spirit [the essence of life] giveth life." Life is generated by life only. The life of mind and soul is quickened by contact with life. It cannot be touched by the "outer shells and skin of life." The child of today gives the same answer that has been proclaimed and reiterated by every educational prophet; and still we offer many a stone for bread. We recall Goethe's ridicule of methods of instruction of his time :

He who would know and treat of aught alive
Seeks first the living spirit thence to drive ;

* * * * * *

Then are the lifeless fragments in his hand.

And Mrs. Browning's burst of gratitude for salvation from the general wreck :

In looking down

Those years of education

I wondered if Brinvilliers suffered more

In water torture, flood succeeding flood

To drench the incapable throat and split the veins.

. . . . Certain of your feebler souls

Go out in such a process ; many pine

To a sick, inodorous light ; my own endured ;

I had relations in the Unseen.

I kept the life, thrust on me, on the outside

Of the inner life, with all its ample room

For heart and lungs, for will and intellect.—God,

I thank thee for that grace of thine!

This order of things is passing away, but has not yet passed. The great need of today is the *vitalization* of the curriculum, of methods, and of ourselves. Life is the result of instruction ; life is to receive the instruction by means of life. Here, then, is the desired statement : *Life demands life*. Life-stuff in the curriculum ! Methods born of life and touching life ! Education, a life-process !

We know that the life of mind and soul means seeing, knowing, thinking, and feeling ; yet we have often *seemed* to believe that life in the schoolroom is *sui generis*, a life of knowing facts, or perchance of knowing with a little incidental thinking ; while it is quite traditional that the schoolroom feeling shall be one of dislike for school tasks. "How else could the doing of tasks give proper discipline?" But what are the manifestations of the true life that grows ? Up-reaching ; desires ; loves ; out-reaching to other lives and to life in nature ; response to beauty ; movement within ; activity ; dynamic force ; power to do and to overcome ; joy in receiving, in expressing, in achieving. Is this "in the air" ? That is just where we want it *first*. In the air of every schoolroom—elementary, college, and university—so that it must be breathed into the lungs. *Then* shall we develop the clear eye that can see the beauty of the flowers of the field beneath, of the stars in the sky above, and the beauty of

everyday living and loving and working; the open air that can hear the songs of the birds, the murmur of the winds in the treetops, and also the call to share the joys and griefs of those about us; the tender heart to feel "the throb of spring," and the singing bird, and the rejoicing or sorrowing neighbor; the nerve that thrills with aspiration and faith; the firm muscle of determination that overcomes; the vitalized blood that carries vigor and health to each and every part—the vigor that makes for dynamic force, for radiating power of personality, for power to reach others, to stir them to new life, in turn to quicken, hearten, and uplift.

This *life-test* is intensely practical. Let us apply it to the curriculum, method, and teacher, and ask of each, in turn: Do you awaken loves and aspirations for what is healthful and high? Do you promote sympathetic relations with life in nature or with human life? Do you awaken the fundamental interest that holds to concentrated attention and continued effort? Do you create a desire to express; open a new avenue of expression; give to the child the joy of expression? Do you help to habitual use of more fitting, more effective, and more beautiful forms of expression by voice, hand, or body? Do you open eye or ear to the beauties of the world? Do you cultivate appreciation of beauty? Do you vivify the imagination—that gift of gifts—the power to see that which is not visible to the physical eye? Do you generate increased power to do; greater joy in doing?

The affirmative of each one of these questions means the *life-touch*, as regards both the child and what is given him. Instruction in the grades must meet every one of these demands; give "right of way" to what meets most of them; shut out everything that meets none. That which cannot bear the life-test must go—the sooner the better. It is dead. Bury it.

What of knowledge-getting, observation-training, and form-study? Each is a necessary element of that which stands the life-test. But these *means are not ends*, and must be felt as all-important because they serve higher purposes. Men feel and have learned to know by observing. God planned it so. Knowledge of the facts of life deepens his feelings of wonder, awe, love, and sympathy. God planned it so. This is as true of the child of today as of the child-man of the past. Observation is the divinely ordered first step in the life-process. But physical seeing, mind-seeing, and heart-seeing (seeing, knowing, feeling) go hand in hand, and here is where we have failed to work in harmony with the divine plan. It is not years of observation-training for observation's sake, and of knowledge-getting for its own sake, with vague thoughts of life in the future; nor is it a sentimental working upon the emotions; but daily training to observe, daily "knowing for certain" some new truth that shall at once cause the heart to respond. God planned it so. That which stands the life-test does so because observation and knowledge are the building-stones, but living relationship with things

that only knowledge can breed is the *final goal*; the knowledge is not itself life.

“ Let knowledge grow from more to more,
But more of reverence in us dwell.”

The relation of form-study to the life-test is that of perfecting or mastering the forms of expression in order that they may more effectively and beautifully reveal or express a larger measure of life.

Our curriculum, then, has two divisions: subjects that bring in vital contact with life-sources; exercises that develop power to express and communicate that life in various forms.

To bring in these subjects and exercises *at the right time*, so as to touch the life of the child at that time, is the life-test applied to method.

Now to the daily program with our standard. Since all life is either that of nature or of man, every life-idea relates to the knowledge of truths concerning life in nature or in man, or to their interpretation.

We challenge nature study. There is a so-called study of nature that is a study of death. Carlyle gives us a hint of the *life-method* by which the race-child has grown by contact with nature. It is as truly a hint as to the life-method needed by the child of today:

The young generations of the world, who had in them the freshness of young children, did not think that they had finished off all things in heaven and earth by merely giving them scientific names, but had to *gaze direct* at them there, with awe and wonder.

True nature study, founded in observation-training and knowledge of facts, rouses the thought and the determined, persistent effort to express it, that results in discovery and mastery of forces—inventions; it also awakens a response to the inner meanings of things—appreciation of beauty, wonder, reverence.

Over our manhood bend the skies;
Against our fallen and traitor lives
The great winds utter prophecies;
With our faint hearts the mountain strives;
Its arms outstretched, the Druid wood
Waits with its benedicite;
And to our age's drowsy blood
Still shouts the inspiring sea,

says Lowell. We would have our children *see* the bending skies, *hear* the prophecies of the winds, *respond* to the strivings of the mountains, *feel* the blessing of the wood, *be urged to action* by the shouts of the sea.

Truly, we dare not transplant the child from the world of nature in which God placed him into a world of our own planning. If we are not ready to lead him there, we must either get ready or “get out.”

History, the story of the life of man—his thoughts, loves, hopes, efforts, defeats, and victories—in its elementary phases (child-life, primitive life, and biography) makes the direct appeal to the child that is the life-touch, rousing the imagination, sympathy, aspiration, and

determination to reach ideals. Led along this line he becomes conscious that "through the ages one eternal purpose runs," and later learns to know history as the story of human life in sequence; the story that sounds the bugle-call to his own duties, as his part in this world-life takes on new meaning and significance. This is the true teaching of patriotism.

Geography finds its place as a study of mutual relations.

Literature, the queen of the curriculum, brings the higher—yes, the highest—touch. Thru experience, as we have noted, the child gains a knowledge of life-truths and more or less vaguely feels their inner meaning; he may even be able to express a part of what he sees and feels; but in literature he finds the thought of those who have seen and felt more deeply; he catches the spirit and takes a deeper breath. This, however, only when he has himself lived to some degree the life portrayed. It is in this sense—considering the previous contact with nature and human life as essential elements of interpretation of literature—that it becomes the queen which all others must serve. But, like a true queen, *it* also serves right royally. The word "reading" on our daily programs should have all the significance of literature, and more, the *oral reading of literature*; both life and its expression. Thus interpreted, life-lessons and literature precede reading-lessons. To the former the child is entitled from the first day of school; there are many reasons for postponing the latter. And literature in abundance is his.

Fairy stories and myths have in them the life-touch for little children, because here are word-pictures of what they are themselves living in the world they know, which is but enlarged for new fairies, and fancies with new meanings. The myth, the "report of the dawning of great truths on the minds of primitive men," is eagerly devoured, because there is a similar dawning on the minds of the primitive men of the schoolroom. Such poems as those of Stevenson and Eugene Field are a delight to them, because they find there pictures of everyday plays and loves of their own child-world. *Hiawatha* is, perhaps, the children's favorite. He lives in their plane and in their beloved out-of-doors; his little brothers are theirs; his rainbow of flowers is theirs; his fondness for the great story-teller is theirs; his "What is that, Nokomis?" is but the echo of their daily refrain—and the poem "*Hiawatha*" is literature. It is full of life and beauty, set in the rhythm beloved of childhood. Longfellow's "Children's Hour" appeals to another side of their life. They find here painted the tenderness and strength of the love of a father—what they have unconsciously felt, either by having or missing.

Boys and girls that have tasted the delight of wandering in November woods see and feel the pictures in such poems as Helen Hunt Jackson's "November," and go back to the woods with deeper sympathy with all wild things as they "lie down to sleep." They delight in the stanzas from "Barefoot Boy" that portray their own experiences. (The last stanza

is not for them.) Said one small boy (what thousands have felt): "I like best that place where he sat barefooted on the doorstep and ate his bread and milk and looked around at the sunset, and said 'I am monarch!'" Parts of "Snowbound" are very dear to them also, because of the home-feeling and home-loves pictured, as well as out-of-door delights. Yes, literature daily; first thru the teacher, later in the daily reading-lessons.

Considering reading as the oral expression of literature, we have a test, not only of what shall be read, but of the methods of learning to read. With reading-lessons proper, begun at the right—because the ripe—stage for such lessons, symbols vivified by thought are easily mastered without previous study as symbols. This is not a theory, but a proven fact, and the rapid mastery of vocabulary under the impulse of thought seems marvelous. Children taught in this way are *readers*, and are not cursed with that false glibness in using words that sacrifices mental pictures and definite thought.

There are so-called exercises in reading that are ready for burial. These are built on the plan of making and polishing beautiful shells, into which life is later to be induced to creep and find a magnificent home. This hermit-crab method of teaching reading does not recognize the fact that life must make the shells, and cast them off as it "builds more stately mansions;" that the word is of value only as it is itself vitalized; that we have lowered, degraded it in the eyes and the heart of the child by giving him devitalized words with which to perform gymnastic tricks. He enjoys the feeling of mastery as he finds himself able to make new combinations and untangle others, but such appeal to the trick-performing power should be made with other material than the word. This trick performance is in no way akin to the pleasure of reading to which the child is entitled, and which he may taste in some degree from his first reading-lesson to his last. The great wrong lies in the resulting mental attitude toward the printed word as dead and cold, instead of winged with life; and first impressions are seldom, if ever, quite erased. Reading is the Cinderella of the kitchen and not Cinderella the queen, so long as doggerel and sentences prepared for word-calling are substituted for the sentences that are alive because the breath of thought and feeling is in them. How dare we sell the child's birthright for a mess of pottage?

We turn to the second division of the curriculum: modes of *life-expression*. It is a recognized law of growth that live thought and feeling must break forth in some form, not only that it may give to others, but also express itself, and become a means of mind- and soul-expansion. It seeks expression in terms of beauty and effectiveness. The development of the child, then, demands of us that we open many avenues of expression, and also develop skill in the use of most beautiful and effective forms. What avenues? Again we turn to the children for answer. We find

that those forms which child-life seeks are oral language (expression by the spoken word); representation by painting, drawing, modeling, and making (expression by hand); song, and later written language (involving writing and spelling). We believe that every one of these bears a vital relation to growth. Again we recall the questions in the life-test, and note the affirmative answers. We have not time to note the specific value and place of each, but must pause to give thanks for the truer as well as the enlarged vision, the deeper appreciation of beauty, the more vivid imagination, and the increased joy that have come to thousands of children with the use of brush and color in the elementary schools; for the help that illustrative drawing has proven in the interpretation of literature; for the quickening of brain, as well as practical skill in doing, that are coming with greater opportunities for hand-training. And, then, the joy of achievement when the child has made something, has created! We need a systematic course in industrial work from the first to the last grade, but it must touch life, and not be merely a set of formal exercises.

The methods of training to express in terms of beauty and effectiveness must also be shaped by the life-test. Every art has its technique, but the approach to it is thru quickened thought and feeling, that desire and attempt to express may lead to appreciation of need of skill in use of its forms. These are best shaped and perfected by using. The proportion of form-study will increase, but remain subordinate to the thought and feeling expressed. Study of structure and pure technique belong to the later stages of the development of child and of art.

Our curriculum is still incomplete. Physical training is felt to be necessary because of the life-relation between body and soul.

"The soul is not the body, and the breath is not the flute;
Both together make the music; either marred, and all is mute."

The body must be trained to serve, and to express health, strength, harmony, and beauty of soul.

Arithmetic, or number, finds its place in the elementary school—its touch with life—as a necessary means of exchange, enabling men to live together in communities. This must not be interpreted to mean that *all* that is in our text-books in this guise has any excuse for being there, or anywhere else, but in dust and ashes.

Nature study, history, geography, oral reading of literature and oral language (including training to express in clear, well-modulated tones and with correct pronunciation); representation by drawing and painting; music; manual training; written language (including writing and spelling); physical training; number. All these? Yes, every one! Not the arbitrary will of pedagogs, but *life* demands it. Will it not mean superficiality and dissipation of energy? It may; or it may mean concentration of forces and energy, if the subject of thought and feeling be made the keynote, and each exercise contribute to the seeing of a new

phase, or to the mastery of another mode of expression. (We believe that exercises in physical culture, and number, and these only, should be excepted from this direct unification ; that the latter makes its fundamental associations with form-study.)

It is, perhaps, needless to add that this life-test is the supreme test of the educator. Nothing is of value in the hands of a dead leader.

Again a message from Goethe :

If feeling prompt not, if it doth not flow
Fresh from the spirit's depths, with strong control,
Idle your toil.

* * * * *
Oh, if it rush not from thine inmost soul,
Thou hast not now the life-restoring draft.

Ourselves winning this life-restoring draft, we may hold it to the lips of the children, that they may go out from us knowing a few things "for certain," believing more things, hoping all things, loving high ideals, responding to beauty, able and eager to do honest, efficient work in the world, and finding joy in doing, in achieving, in being. This is the life that knows no end.

THE INFLUENCE OF MUSIC UPON NATIONAL LIFE

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When Louis XIV. asked his prime minister, Colbert, how it was that so great and popular a nation as France was unable to subdue or conquer a little country like Holland, the prime minister answered : "Sire, the greatness of a nation does not depend upon the extent of its territory, but rather upon the character of its citizens."

Luther, in summing up the elements of national greatness, said :

The life and character of a nation do not depend upon the abundance of its revenues, the strength of its fortifications, the size of its army, the beauty of its buildings ; but on the number of its cultivated citizens : its men of education, enlightenment, and character. In them lie its chief strength, true greatness, and *real* power.

An English poet wrote :

What constitutes a state ?
Not high-raised battlement or labored mound,
Thick wall or moated gate,
Not cities proud with spires and turrets crowned,
Not bays and broad armed ports.
* * * * *
No : men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude.
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain.
* * * * *
These constitute a state.

Here are the opinions of three great men; the first, a warrior and statesman; the second, a minister, philosopher, and thinker; the third, a poet and seer.

Judging from these statements, to affect the life of a nation effectually and permanently we must affect the lives of its individual citizens; and to affect those lives we must begin with them in the plastic years of childhood, when the mind responds most readily to the invitation and incitation of the great truths placed before it.

The child who comes to us in the first years of his school life, still almost fresh from the hand of God, is, as someone has said, a bundle of possibilities. But still more might we say that he is a bundle of likes and dislikes, the result of his inborn emotions. It is universally recognized that childhood is the most favorable time for character-formation, because the character is then in its formative state, consisting only of a number of tendencies or emotions. During the child-life these emotions are usually the springs that move the child to action; but action oft repeated results in habit, and habit of action in childhood forms, later on, everyday conduct, and everyday conduct results in character for the man that is to be. The process of education is but the continuous battle between the inherent egoistic and the desirable altruistic emotions which we, as teachers, endeavor to instill into the child by the processes of modern education. The subsequent character of the man to be is dependent upon the final outcome of this struggle. If the egoistic triumphs, man becomes an undesirable quantity in society; while if the altruistic gains the ascendancy, conquering and subduing some of the egoistic emotions and casting out others, then man becomes a man in the fullest sense of the word; a man who can rise not only above his surroundings, his labor, the circumstances of his life, but who can rise above himself, and

"Unless above himself he can
Erect himself, how mean a thing is man!"

The question now presents itself whether music can help in this struggle between the egoistic and altruistic emotions, and upon which side it arrays itself; for upon that will depend its influence in the formation of individual character; and when these individuals are banded together into societies which we call town, city, state, or nation, the cumulative influence of music will be felt upon the life of these societies, upon the life of that nation.

I spoke a moment ago of the struggle between the egoistic and the altruistic emotions. The first of these are fear, hatred, sullenness, cruelty, despair, etc. These, as it is well known, are forever and forever bitterly and unutterably opposed to, and engaged in deadly fray with, their opposites, the altruistic emotions of courage, love, cheerfulness, kindness, hope, sympathy, etc. The very archenemy of all soul-expansion

is fear. When fear is cast out the soul expands in courage, which is simply the sense of the soul's triumph over, and its escape from, the prison of self in which it had lain captive. Fear is but the preponderance of self. Courage is the forgetfulness of self. All egoistic emotions are the assertions of self, while courage, love, kindness, hope, and sympathy are the results of self-forgetfulness.

Can music cast out fear and thus permit courage to assert itself? The battlefield is pre-eminently the place where we expect to see exhibitions of greatest courage; and we shall find a striking answer to our question if we will but note the prominence given to music in warfare, among all nations, savage or civilized. There has never been a people so poor that it did not have some simple song or ballad, dear to the common heart, to serve as a source of comfort or inspiration in the time of sorrow or peril. How many times has

"The hollow eye grown bright
And the poor heart almost gay"—

when the wearied and disheartened soldier has heard some well-known strain and felt his pulse beat in unison to its measure!

A recent instance is but one of many hundreds which might be given to illustrate: On June 24, 1898, when the memorable battle of Santiago was being fought, the regulars of the United States army, firmly supported by the volunteers, were arrayed against the very flower of the Spanish forces, and were suffering from a fearful rain of shot and shell and most deadly rifle-fire. Men fell wounded and dead on all sides. Reinforcements were constantly in demand. An unseen enemy was decimating our troops, and it seemed as if all were lost in the face of that awful fire. Suddenly one brave, enthusiastic soldier struck up the strain of the "Star-Spangled Banner." Others, as they caught a fresh gleam of the bit of sacred bunting, joined in the song; and with souls thrilled anew, and hearts nerved by what seemed almost superhuman power, they pressed forward, and victory crowned our arms.

A great and thoughtful writer has said that when at the last day the recording angel opens the books and reads the story of the battle of Waterloo, it will be found that a very large portion of the dead who fell in the latter part of that conflict is set down on the debit side of that intrepid military band of the Old Guard which persisted in playing the "Marseillaise" long after Napoleon had uttered the never-to-be-forgotten words, "*Sauve qui peut!*" and had himself left the field.

History is full of examples of the wonderful power of song and music upon the battlefield, in turning the tide of battle and in invigorating men with a courage that was simply sublime. Lifted out of himself, the soul of man, when listening to the inspiring strains of music, lives temporarily in an atmosphere and in a clime whose air and sunshine are the result of the most exalted emotions.

Sound is a social agent, and musical sound the soul's agent *par excellence*. Pain and sorrow expressed in music move us far more than words or gestures ever could; and when we would give voice to our highest joy, music is the medium employed. It addresses itself directly to the emotions and to the soul in a language understood only by the emotions and by the soul; yet it is a universal language, and speaks as many dialects and idioms as there are nations, races, and individuals. The modern development of music is but a response to the needs of humanity for a vehicle for the expression of the emotions, the soul-feelings, which cannot find utterance in words, and for a medium which will calm these emotions or will exalt them beyond the power of words. Music is the most popular of all arts. It can reach and move the impersonal soul of a crowd, and arouse it to the noblest deeds, or calm the violent emotions which prevail in times of panic. Music also fosters love for refined pleasures, and leads from low and degrading pastimes.

That nation is best educated in which knowledge is most diffused, in which learning is in the grasp of the greatest number; and only so far as any art or science becomes a part of popular education can that art or science become a power, an influence in the land. But there are some people who would make the keynote of their educational creed "utility," and would bar out music as useless. Well, they have one thing in common with the savages, who are the most utilitarian people on earth. And yet even they, these savages (according to the testimony of Stanley, Grant, and other travelers), chant a sort of song when cleaning their rice, rowing their boats, or traveling, knowing that they can work better and accomplish more when thus accompanied. Field Marshal Wolseley, viewing the subject from his standpoint, wrote not long ago these words: "Troops that sing on the march not only get to their destination soonest, but they get there in better condition; and not only that, but they get there with a feeling of self-confidence which is the mother of victory."

Popular education today means more than mathematics, language, or the natural sciences. We have finally learned that mental experience alone does not make the most desirable character, and that emotional experience is absolutely necessary. After the instinct of self-preservation, the strongest motives of action spring from the emotional nature. To the purest elements of that emotional nature music appeals; therefore, how can this most desirable experience be better gained than by music? We are now speaking a great deal, and doing a great deal as well, for the culture-education of our children. The schoolroom of today is full of pictures and casts, copies of some of the greatest art works, because we believe that the contemplation of these copies will be of lasting benefit in the formation of the characters of these children. It must not be

forgotten, however, that none of these copies can in any way be considered equal to the originals which remain in the possession of the owners.

With music, however, it is otherwise. The performance of a great musical art work by an orchestra or by a chorus is not a *copy* of the original, but is the original itself, living, breathing, pulsing, fresh as it came from the soul of the composer. It is therefore not at all to be considered as optimistic if we say that, if the contemplation of the *copy* of an art work is considered elevating, the contemplation of the original, especially if we ourselves can help in re-creating this original, will undoubtedly be far more elevating. Even the person who knows nothing of the musical art receives often his greatest joy from music because it is to him a mental, and unconsciously also an emotional, stimulant and food. Music, perhaps more than in any other way, discloses its power in its indirect effects. Christ said, "He that would be greatest among you, let him be servant of all," and it is when music becomes the servant that it is most divine. Busy men, thoughtful men, and profound thinkers, understanding this, have often put themselves in contact with music, not to listen to the music itself perhaps, but for the effect which it had upon them unconsciously. George Sand wrote many of her best thoughts while listening to Chopin, and Browning has often expressed his debt to music as a quickening influence upon the mind.

Music has held a prominent place in the educational systems of all nations. It has gone hand in hand with intellectual and æsthetic culture, and has ever been reckoned as a divine art, an acknowledged force in molding character and government. The most highly educated and civilized people have been the most musical.

The first great musical awakening in America began in New England. And it is a significant fact that this awakening came at the time when the new spirit of culture, in its fullest, broadest sense, became rife. The love for *good* music came with the conquering ideas; those ideas which "proclaimed liberty throughout all the land to all the inhabitants thereof;" liberty of thought and conscience, freedom from the traditional bonds of church and state; those ideas which placed deeds above creeds, mind above matter, and the dignity of human nature above the mere chance of birth or circumstance; which believed in worth as the standard of political justice, and in the common heritage of all in whatsoever things were good, pure, and beautiful.

This was culture in the free unfolding of the best of character; the kindling anew of that divine spark in the human heart which brings man to see, understand, and feel the beauty of the world about him and *within him*. But when man reaches this point there is sure to be some tangible evidence of his advancement, and we find these higher elements of culture expressing themselves in art—art, which is the harmonic

expression of the human emotions ; the sphere of man's activity wherein the creative energy asserts itself, and his kinship with the divine is made more plain. And what form of art, what appeal to that part of man's being which is wiser than the intellect, was peculiarly the need of our age, this Christian age, this age where "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself" is the principle by which we seek to live? What form of art, we say, was so widely available and so eminently fitted to meet these wants as music? The people who began to see deeply saw musically. And those who turned to Emerson and his fellow-philosophers for spiritual food found in Beethoven and his musical associates that which likewise met their desire for "something more and more divine." We are told that the people from Brook Farm often walked seven miles to Boston to drink in the great symphonies, and trudged home unconscious of fatigue, happy in the joys thus experienced, and carrying with them a new genius, beautiful and strong, to help them in the next day's labor. These people were scoffed at by their more prosaic neighbors, but they did much to make music respected, and to bring its merits, as one of the humanities, to the attention of thoughtful people. Their ideas have permeated the thought and culture of our entire land. In the fierce heat of controversy which they aroused, creeds have been melted, the lines of demarcation between sects almost obliterated, great national wrongs righted, and the brotherhood of man more firmly established.

From these beginnings have sprung those mighty forces, of which music is *not* the least, which are now molding, refining, and humanizing our too crude and boastful civilization. Great reforms are the product of great ideas ; and great songs are the living embodiment of these ideas. Great music, into which great men have breathed their inmost souls, calls forth lofty thoughts and impulses, and often renews the spirit of the times. Music is the most fluid, subtle, and sympathetic of all arts. It is a bit of heaven upon earth, breathing of life and its possibilities, and immortality and its joys. Music, therefore, must become an integral part of our common, our atmospheric education. It must be made the people's possession, not alone a source of enjoyment and cultivation, but a mighty means for a mighty end — the upbuilding and strengthening of this great American nation. Music has ever been a potent agent in civilization. We Americans are a conglomerate people, "half-brothers of the world, with something good and bad of every land," and we need music more than any other nation. We need some ever-present, far-reaching, potent influence, which shall weld into one mighty whole these different elements of our national character, subdue our self-assertion, round off the sharp corners, and efface our glaring inconsistencies ; that shall sweeten the bitterness engendered by the conflict of opinion, temper party strife, and pervade the masses ; bringing out the genial humanity of each individual, and freeing him from the thralldom of party, creed, or fashion — an influence

that shall give us a proper conception of the meaning of the word "freedom;" that shall teach us that freedom is not license, but a source of action governed by certain fixed laws; that the highest freedom, and that which should be the real motive for the assertion of our individuality, takes cognizance of the laws of divine order and unity; that,

"True freedom is to share
All the chains our brothers wear,
And, with heart and hand, to be
Earnest to make others free."

But this very spirit of freedom must be properly restrained, or it will rush to its own destruction. It must be controlled by some gentler, more harmonious, more humanizing agency, which shall pervade the whole mass of the people with a beautiful enthusiasm, and a deep reverence for something far above themselves—something beautiful and pure, which will waken the sleeping ideality in their souls, and lift them above the dead level of daily life and toil. Legal enactment or stern prohibition cannot exert this power. It must be something which shall touch that part of human nature from which the actions spring; something which shall put into the soul higher motives and broader sympathies. What can do all this, and do it so effectually, as music? What can so quickly magnetize a people into harmony of thought and action as this divine art?

The more prosaic and sordid a man's life and daily occupation, the more he needs the outlooks and leadings to a higher life. The more he dwells among *things*, the greater his need of contact with a spirit greater than mere things; the material life must touch the immaterial; the body must have an indwelling soul with aspirations and affinities, with a life above and beyond the routine of everyday life. The solution of our labor problems will speedily be reached when we come to realize that the need of the millions of toilers in our land is soul-expansion, and the ennobling, revivifying influence of pure joy. When these people learn to look for a larger, freer life, not so much in their toil, or party, or creed (for these all have their limitations), but in themselves, in that part of their being which can rise above mere circumstances and surroundings, and live and enjoy, then will they become more happy and contented. They need to taste this better, broader life; and has not this life come to thousands of us, and to thousands of others, while listening to music, or while joining our voices in some thrilling chorus, that seemed to make the very heavens open and to give us a glimpse of the divine? We simply *must* look to music to help us in this good work of providing soul-expansion for the masses; it is an appeal to which we are all open; in music we can forget ourselves; we can blend into good fellowship and friendship when we listen or sing together; when our emotions are permitted to express themselves in their own language, and our baser natures are silenced.

We believe that when the genius of song crowns the gospel of work there will be fewer strikes, the grimy faces will be less haggard, the tense muscles will lose their rigidity: under the unconscious influence of beauty, harmony, and rhythm, labor will be more cheerfully, more faithfully performed.

The influence of music in our schools at this time supports our arguments and presages much for the future. Wherever music is a part of the regular curriculum the culture and influence of that school are being uplifted. Coercive discipline is superseded by happy self-control. The pupils are acquiring elasticity of spirit, joy in harmonious co-operation, in the blending of life with life; a rhythmical sense of order, a quickening of the ear and senses, a new and deeper respect for the rights of others, and a loftier patriotism. We of older growth may not be as amenable to such influences as the children, but in so far as we place ourselves within the reach of this mighty agent shall we be benefited and helped.

After all, freedom, to the average American, is not a reality, but a myth. We are so enterprising, so unceasing in our pursuit of the means of living, that we have no time to *live*. We are veritable slaves to business, and to a barren theory of discipline, *discipline*, unrelenting DISCIPLINE. We still cling to the old Puritanic idea of self-repression, and are afraid to give ourselves up to the happy instincts of our natures. The paths of business, fashion, intellectual advancement, and even religion are clearly mapped out for us, and woe unto him who dares to leave the beaten track!

We lack the knowledge of the art of living; we lack geniality; we do not even know the true meaning of the words. Living, to many, is a synonym for existence, while geniality is a part of some forgotten language. This last word comes from the same root as the word "genius," and we all know that genius is a spontaneous thing, which

"Soars—it does not need to climb—

Upon God-given wings to heights sublime;"

that it contributes to and sympathizes with enjoyment, excites pleasure, and reconciles it with loyalty to conscience, and with universal, holy, and disinterested purposes. If our civilization endures or progresses, this element must enter more largely into our national character. We must *live* more, *think* more, *feel* more. The garb of business, the stamp of party or profession, must be laid aside, and our lives must become more genial, more responsive to the demands of our higher natures.

"So far as it is a matter of culture, it is through art that this genial era must be ushered in, and music offers itself as the most available, the most popular, the most influential, of all the fine arts. It possesses the nature and ability to unite and blend and harmonize all who may come within its sphere.

"It nourishes and feeds the hidden springs of hope, love, and faith; renews the old convictions of life's springtime: that the world *is* ruled by love, that God *is* good, and that beauty *is* a divine end of life.

"It floods out of sight the unsightly, muddy grounds of life's petty, anxious, doubting moments, and makes immortality a present fact, lived in and realized. It locks the door against the outer world of discords, contradictions, importunities, beneath the notice of a soul so richly occupied; lets 'Fate knock at the door'—Fate and the pursuing Furies—and even welcomes them, and turns them into gracious goddesses, Eumenides! When man has tasted of that higher life, and has given himself up to it, at least for a time, until he has become acclimated to it, then man, no matter what may be his party or creed, will belong to the harmonic and anointed bodyguard of peace, fraternity, and good-will. His instincts have all caught the rhythm of that holy march, and the good genius leads. Somehow the smallest fiber, the most infinitesimal atoms of his being, are magnetized and attracted to the pole star of unity; he has grown attuned to the believing mood, just as the body of a violin or the walls of a concert-room become gradually seasoned into smooth vibration."

When the individual men and women who make up this nation have finally grown attuned to this believing, loving mood which leads to the realization of the brotherhood of man in its highest phases, I am certain that thoughtful and studious men, observing and understanding the cause and effect, will say that much of this result is due to the influence of music upon our lives, and consequently upon the life of the nation.

THE INFLUENCE OF POETRY IN EDUCATION

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In its widest range poetry treats of nature, man, and God. There are no distinct boundary lines separating these. Poetry has two essential elements—one is thought intensely felt; the other is thought artfully expressed. It has its fullest fruition when these are happily blended. "A vein of poetry," says Carlyle, "exists in the hearts of all men. No man is made altogether of poetry. We are all poets when we read a poem well." The phenomena of human experience and the ideals of poetry and nature are complementary parts of an arch wanting a keystone. Poetry is the putting in of the keystone, and, like Cicero's conception of reason, it is the chain that links God and man. The true aim of poetry is variously interpreted. Professor J. C. Shairp says:

To appeal to the higher side of human nature, and to strengthen it, to come to its rescue when it is overcome by worldliness and material interests, to support it by great truths set forth in their most attractive form—this is the one worthy aim, the adequate end of all poetic endeavor, and this it does by expressing in beautiful forms and melodious language the best thoughts and the noblest feelings which the spectacle of life awakens in the finest souls.

Our own Steadman, in dedicating the first chair of poetry in America, said: "Poetry is rhythmical, imaginative language expressing the invention, taste, thought, passion, and insight of the human soul." Poetry has most largely to do with the realm of the perfect, altho it may include in greater or less degree the other principles of rational intuition.

Goethe probably had this relation in mind when he said: "The beautiful is higher than the good. The good is included in the beautiful." The worthiest poetry is born when the poet, with his soul high-wrought, sees, as in a new vision, the harmonious relation that nature bears to the human mind, and in the enrapture of the inspired scene expresses this beauty in melodious and truthful language. Every thinker remembers what new relations of truth and beauty at times dawn on his mind with the distinctiveness of a creation's morn. In some such way the poet grasps what has been called "the open secret" of the universe. "Open to all," says Carlyle, "seen by almost none." The untutored savage strolls with stolid indifference amid sublime mountain scenery, along wonderfully terraced cañons, and down beautiful, musicful woodland streams; while he who approaches these scenes with the life of an artist is impassioned with their voiceful thought and ravished with their evolving graces. He who sits inattentive in a great auditorium with unnurtured ear may not be fit for treason, stratagems, and spoils, yet his smile of incredulity is in painful contrast with the inspirited soul, sunlit by the truth and exalted with the sweet harmony of a grand chorus from one of the masters. St. Augustine once said: "Being thus admonished to return to myself, I entered into my inner self, Thou being my pride, and I was able to do so because Thou wast my helper, and I entered and beheld the eye of my soul (such as it was) even above my soul, above my mind, a light unchangeable." So the largest-minded poet approaches nature, man, and God, and in the "light unchangeable" reveals the beauty of higher, exquisite thought and skill.

Such an environment poetry brings to education. The greatest force of the schoolroom and of the world is personality. An inspirer must be inspired in turn. Spirits feed on spirits. Poetry furnishes to the educator and the youth ambrosial food essenced from earth, air, sky, man, and God. Prince Metternich said: "Revolutions begin in the best heads and run steadily down to the populace." The most epochal and marvelous revolutions of history occur in the schoolroom. The evolutions of civilization come thru the revolutions of the brain of some masterful teacher or character. "Alexander [the Great] left his schoolmaster, living Aristotle, behind him, but took dead Homer with him," sleeping with a copy under his pillow every night because in the characters of Achilles, Ulysses, Nestor, Ajax, and Hector he found fortitude, heroism, and virtue more forcefully taught than was possible in the acute, cold abstractions of Aristotle. Some books are the livest things in the world, and of such poetry furnishes the largest proportion, for "poets are the rulers of men's spirits more than the philosophers, whether mental or physical."

Poetry brings to education a universal language. Some months ago, standing by trees on the banks of a South American river, environed by

flowers of most exquisite loveliness and fragrance, were several Spaniards and an American. We didn't know each other's language, but there was a language in the beauty of the coloring and the inspiration of the perfume that kindled our emotions with a mutual spirit of a universal language. Those flowers were both English and Spanish, and beside us we might have selected representatives of all the tongues of the earth, and they in turn would have understood this mother-tongue in the flowers of God. So with the kingdom of men: in the profoundest depths of character are written by the Almighty the elemental principles of universality. As the poet in the meanest flower that blows could find thoughts even too deep for tears, so in the humblest creature among the children of men there are thoughts superlative and profoundly too deep for tears. The poet is to this universal language in inspirational verbiage much like the epistles of the saints—known and read of all men. Tennyson, in his "In Memoriam," reaches the deepest depths of the soul's experience in severance from its friend. Heights and depths of human experience, like Victor Hugo's intellectual primacies, have no secondaries, but all are equals. In the sublimities and profundities of "In Memoriam" is a language common to all tongues of men. Wordsworth, "the whole world's darling," with his triune theme, nature, man, and God, has disclosed the universal mind teeming thru all matter, and translated earth, sky, woodlands, lakes, animal, man, and Deity with characters universal as love of truth and beauty, and hallowed as a scripture from heaven. Milton fathoms the human soul to its ocean beds with a plummet line of poetic thought, revealing the war of the spirits in heaven and the wars of the spirits of earth so fully that the human tragedy, as perpetual as the life of the race of man, of paradise lost and paradise regained, longs for no other master-portrayal in the annals of time, and has contributed beyond compare to the securement of his own definition of education, as fitting a man to "perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices of life, both public and private, in peace and in war."

Poetry reveals the uncommonness in the common things of everyday environment. The Millers, the Locks, and the Mannings, not only in the landscapes of Emerson's description, but in all portions of the earth, have an eye and a desire largely for the harvest's grain, while a revealer of nature will find a property in the horizon, an integration of field and woodland, to which warranty deeds give no title. One man looks on the modest humblebee of the meadow merely as fit for a dog to snap or a foot to crush into the earth, while the man who sees and understands with the poet this "yellow-breeched philosopher" will have to tell him

"Of Syrian peace, immortal leisure,
Firmest cheer, and bird-like pleasure."

A humble birch tree seems of little worth, especially to the ax of the woodman, but a seer of nature can stand in its presence and find the thought-keys of many sylvan revelations as he addresses it:

"Thou art to me like my beloved maiden,
So frankly coy, so full of trembly confidences:
Thy shadow scarce seems shade, thy pattering leaflets
Sprinkle their gathered sunshine o'er my senses,
And Nature gives me all her summer confidences."

The water-fowl is an object of smallest attention upon the part of most people. A few gather around it the pleasure of the hunt, but to him who in the love of nature holds communion with her visible forms this humble water-fowl becomes a thoughtful messenger of the highest destiny, and the poet sees that

"He who, from zone to zone,
Guides through the boundless sky thy certain flight,
In the long way that I must tread alone,
Will lead my steps aright."

The chambered nautilus to the general observer is but a small object of idle curiosity; to the scientist a mere specimen of a once abundant race of mollusks; but to the poet—and we are all poets, only, like the stars in glory, differing in magnitude—this mollusk becomes a child of the wandering sea, to call forth thanks for a heavenly message, as thru the deep cave of thought he hears a voice that sings:

"Build thee more stately mansions, my soul,
As the swift seasons roll!
Leave thy low-vaulted past!"

The mind as emotion is a kind of understanding that often penetrates farther into truth than the emotions will furnish adequate words to unfold and express. The poet is a philosopher by seership. Some minds can tell more than they know, and others know more than they can tell. Poetry leads men to see, but does not deal with conduct; yet to succeed it must deal with life morally. Like the Holy Scriptures, it does not give -ologies, but furnishes the philosophies of all life. The poet is able to give these emotions interwebbed of the soul a language fit to their intrinsic worth. This is why the songs of a nation outweigh its laws. The churches have sung more truth into the people than they have preached. Keble's "Christian Year" in the devotions of the church ranks equal with the "Imitations of Christ." Patriotism thru the poets has sung itself into the lives and hearts of this American people creditably with polemics and wars made in defense of our institutions. It ministers to child and man alike. The poet takes many of our emotions that are languageless and gives them a vocabulary of their own. Authors and publishers who are producing and collecting poetry for the youth, relating to love of country, love of nature, man, and heaven, are world-formers into a higher life.

Poetry brings the priesthood of nature into education. Poetry educates by revelation and illumination. From a single bird's nest is interpreted a poetic beauty for all bird nests as the poet enhancingly sings:

An oft unintruding guest,
 I watched her secret toils from day to day;
 How true she warped the moss to form the nest,
 And modeled it within with wood and clay.
 And by and by, like heath-bells gilt with dew,
 There lay her shining eggs as bright as flowers,
 Ink-spotted over, shells of green and blue:
 And there I witnessed in the summer hours
 A brood of Nature's minstrels chirp and fly,
 Glad as the sunshine and the laughing sky.

A spring morning is a wide-flung portal to heaven's palace-gate, and Wordsworth gives form to the language of your heart:

But now the sun is rising calm and bright:
 The jay makes answer as the magpie chatters,
 And all the air is filled with pleasant sound of waters;
 All things that love the sun are out of doors.

And likewise Celia Thaxter:

For who the pleasure of spring shall tell,
 When on the leafless stalk the brown buds swell,
 When the grass brightens and the days grow long,
 And little birds break out in rippling song?

Who that from childhood has been in love with the honest countenance, cheerful manner, brave spirit, and soulfully sweet notes of the bluebird, calling to mind how the old home garden looked, and feeling anew the summer air of the days of his singing,

"When earth seemed heaven with buds and bloom,
 South wind and sunshine and perfume,"

—who that has thus experienced feels not helped by heavenly ministry thru the poet as he verses:

Never was sweeter music —
 Sunshine turned into song,
 To set us dreaming of summer,
 When the days and the dreams are long.
 Winged lute that we call a bluebird,
 You blend in a silver strain
 The sound of the laughing waters,
 The patter of spring's sweet rain,
 The voice of the wind, the sunshine,
 And fragrance of blossoming things.
 Ah! you are a poem of April,
 That God endowed with wings.

Then take the experience of outdoor life when a child first draws off his shoes in spring, and coatless and hatless skips over the greensward:

"No fountain from its rocky cave
 E'er tripped with foot so free;
 She seemed as happy as a wave,
 That dances on the sea."

Poetry greatly influences education because it not only gives us a language for our holiest emotions, but it also awakens our senses to new truths and beauties. This awakening sense we enjoy in the writer or the orator who tells us not all that we know, or only what we know, but drops a seed-corn of truth into the mind. Suggestion is first child to creation. Matthew Arnold has said: "The great power of poetry is this interpretative power by which . . . we feel ourselves to be in contact with the essential nature of these objects, to be no longer bewildered and oppressed by them, but to have their secret, to be in harmony with them." The poet possessing

"Heaven's gift and sense with thoughts made to perceive
Objects unseen before"

may do this by putting old truths in new lights, and in this light disclosing still newer things. Hebrew poetry is a "speaking picture" that everywhere awakens new energies of the soul; "truly as," says Philip Sidney, "the holy David's Psalms are a divine poem." Homer painted true to nature characters that led the heroic in fields of renown for centuries, and they are still appreciable to man. Dante in his *Divina Commedia* took the Christian mediations of over ten centuries as to the destiny and worth of life here and hereafter, and thru making himself lean he made others rich in all goodly virtue by his mystic, unfathomable song. The exclamation of the Veronese, "See there is the man that was in hell," attests the soulful, earnest, and fathomless sincerity and truthfulness of things that will teach and inspire, not only one century, but centuries. Shakespeare took the fossil history of his age, and from scattered remnants, like Cuvier who reformed an animal from a single bone, he fills with wondrous completeness the separate histories of the past, according them closely with sense and philosophy. He does more; like the dry bones in Ezekiel's vision that gained anew sinew, flesh, and breath, he has given with the inspiration of the spirits the breath of life to these comparatively insignificant fossils of history, so that they stand upon their feet an exceedingly great army, a lordly spectacle of character, which towers in the intellectual heavens like Horeb, the mount of God, and around which have gathered the tests of literary criticism, and upon which the focalization of the world's best thought has centered, only to hush, to cease, and to give way in admiration to the myriad-minded genius of the author that as,

"The soul of Adonias like the star,
Beacons from the abode where the eternal are."

Milton in his youth, with every word that is a discovery, gave much of the bloom and fragrance of the fields whose beauty was escaping the people, and in his maturer years laid tribute on the entire literary world for simile and illustration, and with limitless imagery revealed to man

things on earth, in hell, and from heaven, and painted characters ranging from Eve in whom

Grace was in every step, beauty in her eye,
In every motion dignity and love,

down to Satan as a Leviathan "slumbering on the Norway foam." Walter Scott, the Homer of Scotland, wove the folklore of his native highlands into rhythm and song that made hitherto silent places speak with meaning, and preserved for generations with his choicest minstrelsy the feudal and heroic deeds of the then rapidly receding past.

And the time would fail me to speak of the influences in education of Bryant, the druid of our forests, disclosing choicest beauties of our natural life and scenery; of Whittier, pleading for a free people and our own type of national life; of Emerson, in his independence of thought and magnanimous range of vision and depth of insight; of Holmes, in his sparkling melody of rostrum and drawing-room; of Taylor, in his spirit of cosmopolitanism and freedom of mountain heights; of Longfellow, in his joys and duties of home and finer instincts of everyday life; of Lowell, in his classical humor, heavenborn passion, and generous optimism of verse; of Whitman, the magnanimous commoner, the comrade supreme, the frankest poet of all, in his exaltation of the body and the glorification of the humblest man of the streets; of Poe, in his seership of melancholy and despondency; of Hart and Miller, in their setting of scenery refreshing as the air of the Sierras; and of the many humble poets who have written out of their hearts to soothe a Longfellow when the day is done, and whose thought,

Blazoned as on heaven's immortal dome,
Leads generations on.

Poetry makes a vast contribution to education in the fostering and development of sentiment. A wholesome sentiment is the offspring of universal truth that brought our fathers and mothers to honorable marriage, makes hallowed our boyhood and girlhood, and holds us in bonds of a love kindred to that of the spirit of the Father in the skies. "Human-heartedness is the soil from which oldest thoughts originally grew and are continually fed." It exalts this great system of public education, and unites the youth and the teachers of this land into mighty forces of seventeen millions of our youth in the schools officered by four hundred and fifty thousand teachers. Sentiment expressed in poetry joins country and town, county and state, state and nation, into one great national unity, devoted to institutions as broad as the rights of man, as high as his inspiration, and as true as his love of liberty. Sentiment is the divine power that has made poems which fired mighty warriors and ennobled more powerfully the sensibilities of the civilized world with a truth whose fragrance is "as pleasant as the flowers of the May." It is a kindred spirit with music, "the sphere-descended maid and wisdom's aid,"

to speed thru the air of thousands and win the soul of a higher life. Poetry is eternal truth and eternal beauty, with Raphael's Godlike art that pencils figures which are almost the natural man, and empictures moods of earth and sky in creations beautiful and inspirations immortal. Poetry cultivates sentiment that drives out the prejudices and bickerings and sectionalisms, the faultings, the stabbings of words, the hatred of black hearts, the jealousies of small minds, the wars of flesh and spirit, the Hadean abodes of the black angels of error and vice, and introduces a magnanimousness in love with truth in all creeds, enamored and enarmored with right in all nations, thrilled with the beautiful and the good of all classes, and proclaiming not only the state, not only the nation, as the supreme idea of civilization, but demanding that the race of man shall issue in the universal brotherhood of mankind at peace with each other and at war with vice eternally.

THE VALUE OF ENGLISH LITERATURE IN ETHICAL TRAINING

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What is it to follow an ethical line of conduct? English literature, perhaps, answers this question better than ethics. I know of no better answer for the inquiring young mind than this precept from Carlyle: "Do the duty which lies nearest thee, which thou knowest to be a duty; thy second duty will already have become clearer." Such action in the direction of the nearest duty has marked the lives of those whom earth could least have spared—men like Martin Luther, Oliver Cromwell, and George Washington. One reason why the words of Carlyle had such stimulating power was because they awoke drowsy human beings to the consciousness that there is a duty lying next to everyone—next to the schoolboy, next to the teacher, next to you and to me.

It was a moral achievement for Carlyle, instead of sickly ethics over with the pale cast of thought, to impress on youth the duty of doing the thing that lies next, of settling doubt by action. We can still hear his clarion voice commanding a hesitating age:

Produce! produce! Were it but the pitifulest infinitesimal fraction of a product, produce it in God's name! 'Tis the utmost thou hast in thee, out with it, then!

We hear it said that human beings are sadly irresponsive to moral stimuli. The truth is exactly the reverse. There is not another class of stimuli to which humanity is as sensitive. An intellectual truth often falls on dull ears. The world is leaning forward to listen to moral truths. The ages have consigned to oblivion the most of the literature of the intellect. Such literature has paled, like the lost Pleiad who was wedded to mortality, but those productions that are ennobled with enduring

moral truths still shed their sweet influence, like the group of sister-Pleiads who were wedded to the immortals. It may be that a smaller number can communicate to the world a moral stimulus. It may be more difficult to mine diamonds than iron, but it will not do to say that moral diamonds go unappreciated. The world never has neglected luminous moral teaching any more than the flowers have neglected the sun. Is there a person in this audience who would not uncover his head quicker at the grave of George Washington than of Sir Isaac Newton? Is there one who would not feel a deeper throb at the grave of Abraham Lincoln than at the grave of Charles Darwin? Even the erring queen in the *Idylls of the King* finds that our human nature is so fashioned that "we needs must love the highest when we see it."

The teacher and the pupil should remember that there is ethical training in every mastered subject that presents difficulties to be overcome. Some teachers and some parents insist that all chance for moral development be eliminated from the curriculum; that everything be made plain, easy sailing for the child; that every difficulty, every subject of dislike, be removed; that we have no more of the hardships and rigors that developed those wonderful characteristics in our forefathers who settled New England and the Carolinas. Do the teachers and parents forget that we enjoy this republic today only because the moral power of those who founded it was so great that even we can faintly realize it? Shall we forget the difficulties that rocked the cradle of this moral power? Shall we forget the cold, the hunger, the savages, the absence of every convenience that pampers the child of today? Shall we forget that the soldiers who won their independence were often without clothing or food or shelter in the wintry storm? Shall we forget that these men could have been tracked by the blood from their bare feet upon the frozen ground? Can it be that the teachers of the children of such ancestry will today remove every difficulty from their path? Can it be that parents will allow children to drop studies the moment the path becomes thickset with difficulties, the moment that the development of character begins? Suppose that Washington and his men had dropped the campaign when they encountered that awful winter at Valley Forge! What is the use of having such ancestral ideas as these, if you and I are not enthusiastic enough to see that they become a cloud by day and a pillar of fire by night in the horizon of every youth intrusted to our charge?

Not every study is equally fitted to develop moral fiber. None of the easy studies, so palatable to children who whine the moment they have to swim for their moral and intellectual lives, will develop true manhood and womanhood. Parents may declare that their children shall have a cloudless, pleasant youth, but a greater Parent has passed the immutable law that no child shall reach even his full earthly heritage of power until he has been trained in the school of difficulty and hardship, until he has

known the glory of rising from defeat. And that Parent made that law operative on his own Son. The thorny path and the thorny crown and the great defeat came before the Easter morning.

I would introduce children in their middle teens to some of the selected poetry of Robert Browning. I should see if I could not thereby develop in them a love for difficulties. Much of his poetry is tonic with that love, and with the optimistic belief that the fighter will develop enough muscle to win. In "Rabbi Ben Ezra" Browning introduces the nineteenth-century idea of growth thru effort and trial. These lines are not merely cold philosophy; they incite us to gird on our armor:

Then, welcome each rebuff
That turns earth's smoothness rough,
Each sting that bids nor sit nor stand but go!
Be our joy three parts pain!
Strive, and hold cheap the strain;
Learn nor account the pang;
Dare, never grudge the throe.

* * * * *

He fixed thee mid this dance
Of plastic circumstance,
This Present, thou, forsooth, would'st fain arrest:
Machinery just meant
To give thy soul its bent,
Try thee and turn thee forth, sufficiently impressed.

Even to the last, Browning's ideal is one of conflict. He shrinks not from encountering the last difficulty:

Fear death? to feel the fog in my throat,
The mist in my face,
When the snows begin, and the blasts denote
I am nearing the place

* * * * *

I was ever a fighter, so—one fight more,
The best and the last!

We shall take leave of Browning with the feeling that we have gained fresh inspiration to effort. He had for his ideal

One who never turned his back, but marched breast forward,
Never doubted clouds would break;
Never dreamed, tho' right were worsted, wrong would triumph,
Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better,
Sleep to wake.

The greatest aid in moral development is the formation of an ideal. Browning says:

Ah, but a man's reach should exceed his grasp,
Or what's a heaven for?

Now, in order to reach effectively one must have something to reach for. That something is the ideal. Desires lie in the direction of ideals. Tell me what the pupils like, and I can tell you the ideals of their teachers and

homes. Every teacher is responsible for developing in his pupils a well-ordered system of desires—desires for things that are lasting, that aid in the development of the higher nature. I sometimes enjoy asking students of various schools what they like. Not infrequently the replies indicate a teacher or a home with high ideals. Neither you nor I can give to the young what we do not possess. If we have no glorious ideals ourselves, we shall communicate no magnetic influence to those around us. Our pupils will aspire no higher than to become hewers of wood and drawers of water, and alas, they will spoil the wood in the hewing and spill the water in the drawing.

There are two sources for ideals. The world around us furnishes one and literature the other. The teacher cannot escape being an ideal for the pupil. It may bore the teacher to be compelled to play that rôle, but the teacher who is unwilling should leave the profession. Some of you may worry because your pupils think that you are wiser and more perfect than you are. I hope that they do think so, and I thank God for that. Let us be honest with our pupils; but if they will build vast ideal structures on our very slight suggestions, let us be thankful for the mighty power of suggestion. We teachers can no more escape serving as ideals for the youth of this country than we can avoid the influence of gravity. An excellent old teacher said to me: "I never knew that I had so many faults until I went into those schools where my former pupils were teaching." He saw that his own faults had become imbedded in the personality of the teachers, but he might also have seen that it was due to him that these faults were offset by so many excellences. Neither you nor I entirely like the responsibility of furnishing the ideals for the future guidance of this republic, but let us recognize that responsibility like men and women. Such recognition should prove our strongest ideal

"To serve as model for the mighty world,
And be the fair beginning of a time."

I think that all of us recognize the need of having the models that *we* furnish supplemented by the great ideals that are enshrined in literature. Magicians as we are before our audience of youth, we shall often find it necessary, like the famous Houdin, to draw off their attention from us to something else, to other actors, when we wish to present remarkable deeds. We may call to the stage a long line of ideal characters, from Chaucer's Parish Priest to Tennyson's King Arthur.

Literature, whether historical or imaginative, focuses the ideals of all the ages. We are no longer swayed merely by such ideals as our immediate neighborhood or few acquaintances suggest. We all may sit down at the round table of the ages, in company with all the knightly figures of the world. It is well that we can pass from our own narrow circle to the great historic figures, and that we can supplement the ideals of history with those of imaginative literature. Too often do the heroes of history, like

Julius Cæsar, Marlborough, and Napoleon, embody objectionable qualities. It is the business of the imagination to alter the ideals as they are actually incorporated in human beings. The imagination can subtract, add, combine, re-create. It can subtract the selfishness from Napoleon and leave his divine energy. It can add to Julius Cæsar the moral patriotism of Alfred the Great. Tennyson could combine the bravery, perseverance, purity, and forgiveness of a dozen of nature's noblemen and fashion for us the knightly ideal of King Arthur, who set the example to that fair "Order of the Table Round,"

To ride abroad redressing human wrongs,
To speak no slander, no, nor listen to it,
To honor his own word as if his God's.

And Shakespeare could re-create the types of womanhood that he had seen in Warwickshire and fashion them into his Portias, Imogens, Perditas, and Cordelias.

When we say that we *ought* to pursue a certain course, what do we mean? The term "ought" signifies a rule of action which my ideal self has prescribed to guide my real self. If we have no ideal self to serve as a guide toward those higher regions for which every soul should strive, then we ourselves demonstrate that reversion to a lower type is an accomplished fact. The man who has no ideal cannot progress; he will gravitate toward the animals. Browning tells us that the ascending man "creeps ever on from fancies to the fact." This is psychologically correct. The fancy, the image, the ideal must precede the fact that is suggested. The Brooklyn bridge, the Atlantic cable, existed in the mind of the projector before they became realities. Browning continues:

And in this striving, this converting air
Into a solid he may grasp and use,
Finds progress, man's distinctive mark alone,
Not God's, and not the beasts', God is, they are,
Man partly is and wholly hopes to be.

In the light of this, Wordsworth's "moving about in worlds not realized" is perfectly intelligible. Everyone of us is moving about in a world not yet realized, but in one that we hope some day to realize.

It would be difficult to estimate the power of the great poets in refining, broadening, and ennobling the ideals of those who have been brought under their influence. Goethe asks: "Who but the poet was it that first formed gods for us; that exalted us to them, and brought them down to us?" And Tennyson says:

I held it truth, with him who sings
To one clear harp in diverse tones,
That men may rise on stepping-stones
Of their dead selves to higher things.

That is the highest mission of the poet, to enable men to rise on stepping-stones of their dead selves to higher things.

The closing years of the nineteenth century have emphasized the social side of man's nature. To emphasize the social without the ethical is to leave Hamlet out of the play. As population increases, men are jostled more closely together, and their moral relations with each other become more important. In the nomadic state men see but little of each other, but they can be fully developed only by means of each other, only by the interplay of social forces. Adherents of all schools are agreed that obedience to moral law will become more and more necessary as the pressure of population increases.

Ruskin saw whither the social world would drift if the sun of moral law did not hold it in its orbit. He heard the voice of distressed humanity calling, and he left all and followed the example of his Master. Ruskin is the great nineteenth-century exponent of noble social ideals. From the way they were at first received he feared that they were doomed to failure, when he wrote :

Because I have passed my life in almsgiving, not in fortune-hunting ; because I have labored always for the honor of others, not of my own . . . ; because I have lowered my rents, and assured the comfortable lives of my poor tenants, instead of taking from them all I could force for the roofs they needed ; because I love a wood-walk better than a London street ; and would rather watch a sea-gull fly than shoot it, and rather hear a thrush sing than eat it therefore the hacks of English art and literature wag their heads at me.

Such ideals leave their traces on humanity. Today the world is placing laurel wreaths on Ruskin's grave.

The clergy of the eighteenth century often qualified the advice, "Be moral," with, "But don't be too moral." George Eliot and John Ruskin, on the other hand, strove to impress the truth that one sin, one wrong, subtracted just so much from what should have been life's perfect whole. Said Ruskin : "The lost hour can never be redeemed, and the accomplished wrong never atoned for. The best that can be done afterward, but for that, had been better."

In a social world *sympathy* is the cornerstone of morality. How can the world be made more sympathetic? What are the conditions, the antecedents, of the mental state called sympathy? We may apply one test of the practical worth of psychology by seeing if it can answer this question. Psychology replies: There must be careful observation of human beings. The penetrating eye must look thru the mask and read the soul. There must be knowledge. The stupid person, the one ignorant of another's condition, cannot be sympathetic. That poet voiced a great truth who said that "utter knowledge is but utter love." In addition to other forms of intellectual activity, there must be imagination, the power of putting yourself in another's place. The raw materials of imagination are taken from your own world of self, supplemented by your observation of the world of others. Then, there must be a developed,

emotional nature, and, for action along sympathetic lines, there must be a cultivated will.

I know of no better way to cultivate sympathy than to set pupils to interpreting Shakespeare in terms of life. One of the great teachers of English said recently: "No masterpiece is fitted for first work with a pupil unless it engage his sympathies, his imagination." I cheerfully subscribe to this statement, but I would add that the masterpieces best fitted for students of any age are those which develop their sympathies and stimulate their imagination.

Shakespeare's plays stand among the great ethical forces of the world, not only because they show the workings of the great eternal moral powers that make for righteousness, but also because they teach a needed lesson of the necessity of a sympathetic interpretation of human life. From sympathy to effective morality is but a step.

I think the first thing to be impressed on the student of Shakespeare is that he does not despise his characters, that for the time being he identifies himself with them and looks at life thru their eyes.¹ Merely to despise and nothing more is a sign of a narrow soul. A tendency to mere satire is always a mark of deterioration in an age or in an individual. Even Carlyle, late in life, acknowledged that sarcasm was a child of the devil. Shakespeare's disapproval of evil in human action is what we might call sympathetic disapproval. He disapproves, but he sees what grim forces are battling with the erring man, forces that might deflect us from the moral path.

Shakespeare's sympathies are as wide as the world. To him the servant is as human as the king. Trouble is as much trouble to the nurse as to the queen. The peddler, the smith, the alewife, the shepherd, sit down with him at nature's table. With him all the children of nature are aristocrats. If this republic is to survive without bloodshed, it will be because the different classes understand each other. That understanding will enable them to feel the touch of a common nature and will cause them to glow with a sense of kinship to all. How is this to be accomplished? Will it be by having our children brought up in a narrow circle, by having them feel contempt for the blacksmith, the carpenter, the factory hand? Did you ever know a member of an exclusive set to be broad-minded, to do anything to advance the interests of the world? Breadth of view, toleration, and charity were cradled in a manger. They followed the plow of Robert Burns to listen to his song, "A man's a man for a' that." The world was Shakespeare's set, his select coterie. From boyhood I can remember how these lines of Shakespeare caused me first to observe the blacksmith and the tailor, and how that observation soon developed sympathetic interest, which has lasted to this minute:

¹For a fuller elaboration of this point see the author's *History of English Literature*, pp. 151, 152, 161-6.

I saw a smith stand with his hammer, thus,
The whilst his iron did on the anvil cool,
With open mouth swallowing a tailor's news;
Who, with his shears and measure in his hand,
Standing on slippers which his nimble haste
Had falsely thrust upon contrary feet.

The modern principle of the division of labor has its good side in the industrial world, but it has dwarfed the broad sympathies which the Elizabethans felt for life. Today a factory hand may spend years making one particular kind of rivet for a watch. He may have no conception of what his fellow-workman is doing in the next room. How can such a man have broad sympathies? Today the teacher often begins to specialize early. He may study mathematics, or some form of science, or the roots of some language, living or dead. He cuts himself off from the varied interests of life, and becomes a man of one idea, a man in a rut. His pupils have a right to expect to feel from him the stimulus of the living world. They find in him a mummy, less interesting than one that has survived from Pharaoh's time. I know of no one who is more in need of Shakespearean study than the teacher who is a mere specialist.

The time of Shakespeare was without these over-specialized factory hands and over-specialized teachers. The various pursuits of life were then more of a common heritage. Men of different callings associated with each other more intimately.¹

Of course, Shakespeare may be so taught as to obscure his sympathy and his ethical qualities. I recently summoned up courage enough to keep from asking classes a single grammatical question while they were studying one of his plays. I noticed how much more interest the students displayed when they were asked questions of human interest, such as: "What character in this play would you rather have for a constant companion? Why? Which seems to you the most and which the least sympathetic character?" And then, for silent consideration, I would sometimes ask: "What character do you think would appreciate you the most? What qualities in you would that person find most objectionable? Do you think they ought to be changed?" Such questions bring not only the intellectual faculties in play, they have also a pronounced ethical bearing.

The young are apt to be satirically inclined and to think that all the world, with the exception of themselves, ought to be far more perfect. Shakespeare may lead the more open-minded students to make this rare discovery:

There is some soul of goodness in things evil,
Would men observingly distill it out.

¹ See the author's chapter, "How Shakespeare's Senses Were Trained," in *Education of the Central Nervous System*, pp. 171-208.

Anything that adds to the sum total of human happiness of the right kind must have positive ethical tendencies. No study develops the self on as many sides as the study of the great masters in literature. They not only fashion our ideals, but they also help us to pull aside the curtains of our souls and to look face to face upon the beauty of this world. The Grecian boldly wrote down the equation: The beautiful equals the moral. After we have looked at nature thru the eyes of a great poet we can see more beauty. I shall never forget the first time that the daffodil appeared transfigured. I had often seen it before thru a glass darkly, but when I read Shakespeare's lines,

. . . . daffodils
That come before the swallow dares, and take
The winds of March with beauty,

the flower was invested with new glory.

We shall find that nature will whisper "rememberable things" in our moral ear, if we rise to the height of Wordsworth's conception of her. To him she seemed to possess a conscious soul, which expressed itself in the primrose, the rippling lake, or the cuckoo's song, with as much intelligence as human lips ever displayed in whispering a secret to the ear of love. With rare genius he has taught us to look beyond the color of the flower, the outline of the hills, the beauty of the clouds, to the spirit which breathes thru them, and to commune with "nature's self, which is the breath of God." Communing thus, he has led us to discover

. . . . truths that wake
To perish never.

By force of arms our warriors may conquer lands beyond the orient wave and annex them to our own. Wordsworth has given to the English-speaking race a new heritage in nature's beauty. He is one of the long line of English poets who have given noble moral ideals to the race, more valuable than eastern lands with all their promise of gold. It still uplifts us to hear Wordsworth calling:

In our halls is hung
Armory of the invincible knights of old;
We must be free or die, who speak the tongue
That Shakespeare spake; the faith and morals hold
Which Milton held. In everything we are sprung
Of earth's first blood, have titles manifold.

Our closing benediction on the great poets of our race shall also be taken from Wordsworth:

Blessing be with them, and eternal praise,
Who gave us nobler loves, and nobler cares;
The poets, who on earth have made us heirs
Of truth and pure delights by heavenly lays.

EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES APPLIED TO THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE

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In the closing years of the last century Rev. Manasseh Cutler journeyed from his home in Boston to the great city of Philadelphia, then as now the city of magnificent history.

In his diary the distinguished divine records that he desired most of all to see, when in the city, its two objects of greatest interest—the Liberty Bell and Benjamin Franklin's "long arm." This long arm was Franklin's invention. The savant of the Revolution had a large library, whose volumes filled the shelves to the ceiling. To reach the volumes near the ceiling Franklin devised a long wooden arm with flexible fingers, by means of which he was able readily to reach any book he wished to consult. What this long arm was to Franklin the ability to use language is to the human race. Language is the long arm of the race:

The child lives in his senses, and they report to him an immediately present and narrow environment. The child is enslaved by its sense-life until it possesses the magical mystery of symbols. These make the mind free. Of these language is the most valuable. To use the language symbol is to be emancipated. The far is made near. The past is made present. All the glory, inspiration, majesty, and might of the race in all times and at all places open, like a bursting bloom, to his inquiring mind. His mental horizon is lifted, and his mental sky is illumined with steadily sparkling systems of truth undreamed of in the day of his sense-limitations. Thus, by symbols, the soul achieves universal freedom. To teach the language symbol in all its flexibility, possibility, potency, and beauty is the first and noblest work of the school. It is not all of an education to master language, but all education is conditioned by this mastery.

We have introduced so many informational studies into our elementary curriculum that the child has not time to acquire the symbols with which to entertain and use these bits of crude information. The result is that the child gazes, gazes, and then gazes, and then forgets—no, not forgets, for he never really gets the message of the thing. He needs the symbols before he can rightly use the data of the senses.

"Things before symbols" must be understood only as a tentative statement of a most elementary need of the mind. Things of sense are of value, of virtue, of necessity to an understanding of the symbol, but it is vastly more true that symbols are the necessary antecedents of an *adequate* interpretation of things. Knowledge of a formal and systematical sort, knowledge that is usable, results only to the mind that approaches things with a previously acquired symbol-mastery.

But language is not mastered until it is comprehended as a language — as the mighty instrument by which a great people reports itself. This comprehension dignifies and defines linguistic ends. We have never truly taught language to a child until we have taught this language thru the literature of the language.

The end of language lessons, elementary grammar, composition work, parsing, analysis, conjugation, declension, etymology, definition, reading, spelling, writing, and all these under newer mercantile titles, is a re-survey of the whole constructive process from the literary heights of the language.

We shall scarcely lessen the effort of the child, nor the folly of the process, by coining new names for old ways of doing the same thing. We all denounce vehemently the old object-lessons—a scheme for foisting tedious and useless categories of words upon a child in the name of object-teaching. We seem oblivious to the fact that much of the same pernicious practice still flourishes like a green bay tree under the soothing appellation “nature study.” The fault, dear teachers, is not with our terms, but with our processes, that we are censured for our lack of literary results.

We live in processes. There must be a change of view, a conversion to the gospel of results. Our children do not need endless categories of analytic processes in language to reach literary results. Analytic processes have their value as mental discipline, and as a basis for a sort of a rhetoric and grammar long since relegated to the shelves of antiquarians. The pupil needs early to feel the beauty of his language. This feeling is the best result of his early training.

We have over-intellectualized all our processes. School today ignores the æsthetic, the emotional phase of mind-growth. Biologic research at every advance confirms the principle that high thought is based upon keen emotion—especially thought that moves the will and controls the conduct of life. One’s mind may be so thoroly intellectualized that fidelity to thought becomes the only aim of life. Thus action, conduct, ethical ends in life, are wholly ignored, and the life is a parody on its possibilities. This thought-craze has taken on the form of immediate expression after enforced impression. Does anyone seriously entertain the thought that these lightning reproductions are anything more than an unholy scheme to secure a show of industry and to lessen the possible disorder of the school? We have forgotten that the child in reflection is struggling and strengthening, and will finally—not instantly—break into expression indicative of sanity, and of value not only in measuring the growth of the child in language, but also his growth to self-mastery and to self-respect.

This quick response, so widely demanded and usually called “busy work,” is the fertile friend of superficiality and the deadly enemy of genuinely valuable mental culture. It requires time to grow any product

of value. To create a literary taste, to give lofty literary ideals, to secure stately concern in literary models, is impossible under the rush and crush of present-day "busy work" processes.

Will not the day speedily dawn when we shall all be taught, and when we shall all recognize, the vital distinction between idleness and reflection? In that day we shall trust a child more, and we shall know that the twin-evil of idleness is the hasty, scratchy, chaotic stuff now produced in our schools under the name of "busy work."

The main purpose of the early work in literary training is to arouse in the pupil a sincere love for the best in our literature—not the best judged by standards of mature criticism, but the best measured in elements that arouse in the pupil that rich and deep emotional response so essential to a keen enjoyment of all that is highest in our literary ideals. This love may, in the higher grades, be organized into all forms of truth and into all orders of science. The habit of enjoyment is the fundamental enrichment of the mind for all subsequent effort. We do our best work in literature, not when we compass a given course of prescribed reading in a given time, but when we so direct the pupil's taste in school that his whole after-school career is attended by constant reading of the best literature. The literary habit is to be acquired in school that the life may demand daily concourse with the choicest spirits in the nation's literary life. And this will not come to us so long as we teach by the term, measure progress by the term, and promote by the term. Our graded courses of study need to demand more and more a minimum of required work, a maximum of free activity under the guidance of a sympathetic teacher. If we trusted more to the good sense and skill of teachers, and less to our rigid requirements, we should mark a great advance in all our teaching.

What avails an enriched curriculum if we have impoverished and enslaved teachers? If we really seek enrichment of the pupil, it will be achieved only by a fuller enrichment of the teacher.

That system in teaching is wise no sane mind will deny, but this system may and should be established not in advance and hypothetically, but definitely and adjustably by the teacher. If we trusted teachers with larger discretion we might shock the devotees of grade equality, but we should make possible, and doubtless actual, a mighty revival of free activity and pleasurable progress in our pupils.

It may not be inappropriate to note also that the spirit of a noble teacher infinitely transcends any prescribed method. We shall never reach results by quarreling over this or that specific method of teaching; most so-called methods are mere devices, born of an enthusiasm that is not of knowledge, and foisted upon teachers to their great distress, and to the utter neglect of the vitally significant fact that devices are born for an emergency, that they perish with the occasion which called them

forth, and that their use thereafter is but the dangling of a skeleton before the eyes of living spirits craving life to enrich life.

Every normally constituted child enjoys much that it has not yet the power adequately to define. The child may know that it enjoys, without knowing *why* it enjoys, or knowing *how* to describe its enjoyment. Indeed, it is a test of good teaching to arouse in the child those loftier emotions which baffle all adequate expression. Who wants a miserable paraphrase of a great work of art? Is it not enough that the child shall feel what it "can ne'er express, yet cannot all conceal"?

Literature ought to make the child uneasy under all inartistic influences. This can be done. The mind must be trained to distinguish between doing a thing and doing it well; between saying a thing and saying it well; between the touch that satisfies and the touch that creates endless longing for a better way, a longing that stirs the soul to supreme effort and endless endeavor; between passive acquiescence and active, conscious, volitional reform, both in thought and in act. For we have taught well only when our pupils, as a result, think clearly, feel keenly, and act nobly. It is the keen feeling that makes noble action. Our literature must, then, touch at every turn the springs of feeling, that there may flow forth a steady stream of worthy acts. We do not want to think our literature—we want to feel it and live its ideals.

The paucity of literary interests is a great menace to our civic and social stability. Is it not at least possible that this lack of literary taste is due to the erroneous view of our schools—namely, that teaching a child to read by some fanciful device is the surest and speediest way to create a literary spirit in the pupil? Reading, at the outset, is a process of language mastery. Its first years are clearly mechanical and contribute only indirectly to a taste for literature. We do not rise from a method in elementary reading to an abiding love for literature. A child may read until he becomes a member of the class of readers; but this by no means insures the child against dissipation in reading. In some other way must the appetite be set for the right things in literature. I take it that this will be done first by reading to the pupil, with few comments, such classic poetry and prose as will arouse a keen emotional concern. This should not be followed by any sort of didactic process whatever. The purpose of such exercise is not to teach reading, but to stimulate a taste for the real works of art in the language. This is often best done by having the pupils sit with closed eyes and image the scenes as they unfold. The closing of the eyes aids in the introspective and reflective phases of interpretation. A poem so interpreted will never be forgotten. The words may later be memorized, and this will be all the more readily and permanently accomplished when the spirit of the selection is emotionally entertained. The child memorizes best the things he enjoys most.

There has been a growing tendency to crowd children's minds with data about literature, in the evident belief that these data are in some mysterious way a training in literature. These take the form of extended biographic sketches of literary characters, detailed descriptions of the homes and haunts of famous writers, memorized lists of authors' leading works, and learned criticisms of literary productions which the pupils have not yet read. All these are interesting, and, for some mental function, perhaps valuable, but they no more enlarge the literary taste of the pupil than a lecture on foods satisfies the normal needs of the body for nourishment. Better than all biographic facts, than all lists of titles, than all formal criticisms, than all literary rambles, is one sincere effort to unfold to a child the beauty and the virtue of a great poem. Our teachers have too confidently taken the current works on literature and taught them in much the same way as history of any other sort is taught, and have come to believe that this historic survey of a field they have never entered is really teaching literature.

There was a day in my own life when I could name Shakespeare's plays, recite the uncertain facts of his life, quote brief selections from his works, and name the chronologic order of his productions—yet I had never read one single work of the author. My knowledge was arbitrary, and, later on, positively detrimental to a just appreciation of this king in a princely group. The real awakening to an understanding of what literature is, and how it is to be studied, came to me under that great teacher—the late Dr. Child, of Harvard University.

It is true that the reading of good literature by the pupils in our schools is rapidly increasing. This is an omen both of good and of evil. I do not hesitate to assert that some pupils are reading too much literature—measured in terms of pages conned. It is more than probable that such reading is little more than a pleasurable reaction from serious effort. Before the child reads extensively he should be taught how to interpret his readings. Following the reading of standard selections to the pupils by the teacher, there should be a judicious selection of a few standard works of worth, and the careful, deliberate study of these by the pupils, under the direction of the teacher. This directive reading is all-important. It enables the teacher, by judicious questioning, to help the child to a right interpretation of the *motif* of the selection.

It may be said in objection to this plan that it is inadequate, that the field is large, and that the results so achieved are meager. To this it may be answered that no process is inadequate if it be the right process, and, further, that the pupil will have type standards of literary interpretation. Education at no point aims to cover the entire scope of possible effort. All it can do is to determine definite types of processes, fix the order of mental effort, and reveal in outline the large fields of inquiry and research, the mastery of which is the serious activity of mature years. This plan

also gives to the pupil a clear grasp of that part of the literary world he is permitted to know. What is done is well done, and the best teacher does not scruple to do less, that she may do best.

The free use of libraries, undirected, is a pernicious practice. It is better far to have the teacher select and restrict the reading of the pupils. Many a complaint of poor work is due to the fact that the mental energy of the pupil is appropriated to reading books of no value in his educational progress, leaving him dull and listless for the specific work of the school.

The final work of the schools in giving the pupil a proper basis for literary appreciation is the process of analysis, by which the mind clearly distinguishes between the thought-plot of the author and the literary adornment of this plot.

It is a great gain to reveal to the inquiring mind why each character is introduced; the influence of each new character upon the subsequent unfolding of the theme; the marvelous effect of the physical environment; the function of the supernatural and the distinctly theistic elements; and the final weaving of all this moving morrice of characters, incidents, and objects into a harmonious and satisfying unity. This is the psychic interpretation of a literary masterpiece.

When this thought-plot is seen in its unity and in its totality the pupil is for the first time able to interpret the exquisite linguistic dress of this plot—the literary adornment of thought. Here all the matchless symmetry and grace of the language is revealed. The mind interprets the æsthetic spirit—the touch of genius—that, sleeping, awaits the touch of a kindred spirit to call it into joyous life and to make it glow with light and beauty. This is the artistic interpretation of a literary masterpiece.

It is this alone that compensates for all the earlier work, and that gives the child nutrition of feeling and enrichment of soul. It remains only to point out once more and emphatically the fact that a true patriot is a lover of literature as well as a lover of liberty, that lofty civic virtue is found only in the soul that loves with equal and undying fervor the fatherland and the mother-tongue, cherishing for each a supreme and inseparable passion, striving to honor both by understanding their mission and their power, and living, under the flag, in uncompromising and abiding loyalty to the literature of the nation and of the race.

“WHAT MANNER OF CHILD SHALL THIS BE?”

HON. G. R. GLENN, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
ATLANTA, GA.

Two thousand years ago, in the humble home of an aged priest in the hill country of Judea, a child was born. The priest was burning incense

in the temple at an early morning hour, when an angel appeared and announced to him that his prayer had been answered, and that a child of promise should come in his old age. The child was to "bring joy and gladness; he was to be great in the sight of the Lord; he was to be filled with the Spirit; he was to turn the hearts of the fathers to the children, and the disobedient to the wisdom of the just, and to make ready a people prepared for the Lord." More than all this, this child was to be the herald of a mightier Child, "the latchet of whose shoes he was not worthy to unloose." Marvelous things happened in connection with the birth of this Judean child. One sent from God announced his birth; the dumb spake and glorified God when he was born and brought into the temple; angelic visitors appeared upon the scene; fear came upon all that dwelt in the region round about, and the common people, amazed at what they could not comprehend, said: "What manner of child shall this be?"

After John came Jesus. After the voice of one crying in the wilderness came the voice of Him who spake as one having authority. The first century of the world's Christian era began with the life of the greatest teacher that this world ever saw; himself the infinite Logos, the author of all laws human and divine. He came to teach men how to have dominion, how to win conquests over mind and matter. If men marveled at the voice in the wilderness, they marveled much more at the voice of Him who spake as never man spake. He not only commanded men and they, without question, did his bidding, but he commanded the wind and the waves and they obeyed him. He confounded the doctors of his time by talking of the coming of the kingdom, whose subjects were to be as loyal and as loving as little children. The miracles that he worked were wrought, not in violation of the law, but according to law. Those who heard him could not comprehend the laws by which he worked. He himself declared that he came, not to destroy the law, but to fulfill the law. Man did not grasp his saying when he declared himself to be the Way, the Truth, and the Life. He was a light shining in Cimmerian darkness, and the darkness comprehended it not; but he stood in the gateway of the world's first century, and his wonderful sayings and his matchless miracles were but the foreshadowing of what is taking place at the present moment in the closing year of the nineteenth century of civilization. His wonder-working was the prophecy of conquest which the human mind is today winning thru discovery of law over material things. His teaching is leading men to a knowledge of law that will yet make them to have dominion over all things on land, in air, or in sea; for man is yet to have dominion over all this earth, the footstool of God.

The child that is born today is born amid miracles as astounding as those that accompanied the birth of the child two thousand years ago. The

world today is in an attitude of excitement and expectancy. The marvelous is taking place every hour. The sway of the mind that conceived and uttered the Sermon on the Mount has gone out in direct line and in concentric circles, until the influence of the Great Teacher has touched every land upon which the sunlight shines. The great conquests of mind over matter that have made this age the most wonderful of all ages can be traced directly to the light that came into this world two thousand years ago when a little child was born in a manger in Bethlehem. The intelligence of a Christian civilization has forged the power that builds and propels the palace steamship that crosses the sea. It is this same power that has laid the cables on every ocean bed. It is this same power that drives a vestibule train from the Atlantic to the Pacific. It is the power of this same civilization that has founded every asylum for the poor and the lame and the halt, every sanitarium for the feeble-minded, that has directed the spire of every church and laid the foundation of every schoolhouse. It is the same power that has lifted the hand of man into the air above him and brought the lightning from the clouds to do his will. It is this same power that touches the wire now going to every part of the habitable globe and brings messages to our breakfast table each morning from every part of the world. The very air that we breathe is now condensed into a liquid energy whose potential force no man can measure. The spectroscope and telescope have made us acquainted with the stars that float over our heads, and the electric light and the chemist's crucible have gone to the very heart of the hills and the mountains revealing a wealth that far outshines "the wealth of Ormus or of Ind." Is it any wonder that men gather today about the presence of a little child that is born amid the miracles of splendid and matchless conquests of the Christian mind over these material things, and ask, "What manner of child shall this be?"

If the central figure of the first century was the Great Teacher with his hand placed in benediction upon the head of a little child, the central figure of the twentieth century will continue to be a great teacher, holding the hand of a child and leading him to the fruits of his inheritance. "The heir of all the ages" must still be taught the pathway to his own by one who has not only the supreme and commanding voice, but the patient and all-loving spirit of the Master. If the world's first century began by sending a star to light the wise men to a child, the world's twentieth century will begin by focalizing the light of all the stars that burn in the firmament above us upon the cradle, not of one child, but of every child born under our beneficent skies.

If I were asked what is to be accounted the great discovery of this century, I would pass by all the splendid achievements that men have wrought in wood and stone and iron and brass. I would not go to the volume that catalogs the printing-press, the loom, the steam-engine, the

steamship, the ocean cable, the telegraph, the wireless telegraphy, the telephone, the phonograph. I would not go among the stars and point to either one of the planets that have been added to our solar system. I would not call for the Roentgen ray that promises to revolutionize the study of the human brain as well as the human body. I would pass over all the labor-saving machines and devices by which the work of the world has been marvelously multiplied. Above and beyond all these the index finger of the world's progress, in the march of time, would point unerringly to the little child as the one great discovery of the century now speeding to its close.

If we pause for a moment to contrast the condition of the child even one hundred years ago with the condition of the child that is born today, we marvel at what God has wrought within a hundred years. At the beginning of this century learning belonged to a limited oligarchy. Education was the privilege of the few, and ignorance the sodden heritage of the benighted masses. With the beginning of the century few only of the world's teeming millions could read, and fewer still did the thinking for the "great unwashed." With the beginning of the twentieth century the public school is going into every hamlet among the civilized races of the globe, and its beneficent light is illuminating the darkest recesses of the humblest home. Education is no longer the exclusive privilege of an autocratic minority. It is today the divine right of an all-powerful democratic majority. If at the beginning of the century we had alienation and separation, a great impassable gulf between the rich and the poor, today we have union, strength, and life, and millions of happy children of rich and poor alike marching under a banner on which is inscribed "Freedom of opportunity for all." What this freedom of opportunity means to every American child no man can estimate. What the American child of the future is to be no man can prophesy. The wide distribution of human knowledge has brought him in touch with all mankind. He is neighbor to every possible achievement, and his splendid environment makes him a potential factor for accomplishing every human good. Already we Americans have discovered that the old system of education will not fit his case. We have begun to shift and readjust the paths that lead to and from the schoolhouse. We have quit trying to fit the boy to a system. We are now trying to adjust a system to the boy. The American boy is praying the prayer of the psalmist as he never prayed that prayer before: "Set thou my feet in a large room." We American teachers are trying to obey the command of the Great Teacher when he said at the grave of Lazarus, who came up bound hand and foot in his grave-clothes: "Loose him and let him go." If we might reverently change this command to fit our day and time, the change would be: "Loose him and let him *grow*." The demand of the hour is that we shall take away, not only the grave-clothes, but all deadly cerements from the minds and bodies of our children,

Even teaching-power in the future must be defined in new terms. Here again we must approach more nearly to the mind and spirit of the Great Master-Teacher of the world. Time was when the power of the teacher was measured by what he could do with a bright boy or a bright girl. From the beginning of this new century the power of the teacher will be measured by what he will be able to do with the dull boy, the defective child. More than ever before in the history of this world the real test of teaching-power will be measured, not by what can be done with the best, but by what can be done with the worst boy in the school. The Great Teacher who began our civilization came into this world to seek out and to save that which was lost.

The new century will demand that the stress of all energy and the culmination of all intelligence shall be applied to redeeming what has been going to waste. We shall have a new psychology as well as a new education, and the new psychology will be the psychology of the prodigal son and the lost sheep. The great rejoicings in American life will be when we have so mastered our problems of child study and so perfected our lines of school-growth that our American systems of education will touch and develop and control every American boy. We shall come to our place of rejoicing when we have saved every one of these American children and made every one of them a contributor to the wealth, to the intelligence, and to the power of this great democratic government of ours.

Men now demand that those who build their machines shall build a machine that will do twice the work with an expenditure of half the fuel that a machine did even ten years ago. A few afternoons since I was waiting for my train to leave the station from the capital city of the state. I saw a great company of people gathered about an object at the end of the station. In answer to an inquiry as to the cause of the gathering of this great crowd, I found that the attraction was a Great Mogul passenger engine that had been brought to pull a vestibule train that was to speed its way from New York to New Orleans. When I asked the engineer to explain the difference between the new engine and the old one that had been laid aside, he said to me, while the great machine stood there throbbing with power like a thing of life: "The engine that I laid aside yesterday, when doing its best, could pull my train from Atlanta to Montgomery at a speed of thirty-five miles per hour. This machine can pull the train with the consumption of less coal, and make an average speed, if need be, of sixty miles an hour." Twenty-five years ago it was regarded a marvelous achievement for one woman to manage two looms in a cotton factory. Today one woman will manage a dozen looms, and each one of the dozen looms will weave twice the number of yards of cloth that were woven on the loom twenty-five years ago. If a new environment has come to the machine, you may be sure of it, a new environment has come to the boy. If the world demands of machine-shops more powerful machines, and machines

that will economize time and labor, we may be sure the world is going to demand of those who build the boys and girls of this country that they shall build them to become men and women who may have twice and thrice and quadruple the power that men and women ever had before.

One other thought in this connection. Those who build these magnificent machines make no mistakes. Every piece of steel is tested, and every piece of brass is weighed and sounded, and every bolt has its place, and every bar its peculiar function. No machine-shop in this country could live a year that employed anybody but experts to fashion and shape every part of the machine. An expert is one who knows, and he must know that he knows. The twentieth century will demand of those who train the children not only that they know, but they too must know that they know. The material in the mind of a child is infinitely more delicate than the finest steel-bar ever made by any Bessemer process. The new century will say to the teacher: "Take thou this child and know him. Know thou his soul, his mind, and his body, as the expert machinist knows every part of his machine and the quality of all its materials, and the peculiar fitness for use of all tools required for the completion of the machine. Make thou no mistakes!"

To change the figure and find an illustration from the laws of life: A few hundred miles from the spot where this meeting is held millions of little beings are constructing a reef on a Florida coast. Men travel for thousands of miles to find inspiration and courage from these countless toilers of the briny deep who fringe our coasts with a structure that has excited the wonder of the ages. The study of the coral polyp reveals the truth that those who do the building are on the front side of the reef. The food supply even for this little being comes from the billow that lashes the frontal line of the structure. The tiny being feeds on the ministry of the storm. The very billows, while they lash and rage in their fury, bring the food supply to the tiny being that builds the coral reef, and each little builder gathers himself into the stony structure and welds his being into all that is below him, and dies.

No one of these countless beings, however many times its life may touch the life of other beings, interferes with his fellow. He feeds upon his environment, grows to his full estate, is gathered unto his fathers, and becomes a part of a permanent, beautiful wall that barricades the coasts from the storms of the equatorial belt. But some of these tiny toilers are swept by the billows into the quiet, stagnant waters of the inland basin, and in these eddy-waters, that furnish no food supply, they stagnate and die and sink into the bottom to form a part of the ooze and the slime of the silent shore.

The coral polyp has no power to rescue his fellow when the wave pushes him back and away from the line of life, and the line of food supply, and the line where the building is going on. It is not so with us

who are building a structure of American life, a structure far more transcendent in the beauty and magnificence of its proportions than the coral structure which the polyp is building. We are building here the foundations of a national barrier against which the storm and the billow of the ages to come are to bring their food supplies and spend their fury. We need the life of every American being to go into this structure. The new century will demand of us that we shall go into every submerged district and bring to the top and to the front every child who has within him the unmeasured possibilities of an American destiny. We shall not reach the limits of our empire, and we shall not expand to our farthest bounds, until we have brought back to the structure we are building the withering hands and the atrophying soul of every American child that may add glory to our people. What responsibilities the new century will bring us no man can tell, but the American school system will not reach the climax of its power until its beneficent light has gone into every American home, and until the expert American teacher, who knows that he knows, has led every one of our children out and up from the ooze and slime of every submerged district, and placed their feet in a large room where every boy can grow to the full measure of a man.

CLOSING ADDRESS

PRESIDENT A. P. MONTAGUE, FURMAN UNIVERSITY, GREENVILLE, S. C.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT]

Mr. President, and Fellow-Members of the National Educational Association:*

The Athenians of old were wont to invite strangers of far-off lands to visit their great city, in order that in the groves of the lyceum and in the shadows of the academy they might behold the unfolding of doctrines of high philosophy, and might realize that thought, dominating the world, had its home in Athens. The ancient Romans, in the pride of their power, in the glory of their imperial dominion, welcomed to their city by the Tiber ambassadors and legates from far-distant countries, in order that these strangers, awed by the manifestation of power and material splendor, beholding the eagles of Rome that had winged their flight for a century and more from the shores of the German ocean to the Lybian desert—beholding this greatness and this matchless power, might realize the hopelessness of contending for empire with the imperial city of Rome, and that they might bend the knee to Cæsar and own allegiance to his sovereignty.

With far different feelings from these, Charleston, one year ago, sent her ambassadors across the continent, from the Atlantic ocean to the far

Pacific, to fair California, to plead with you to come to this City by the Sea—this old city, rich in legend and tradition, and glorious in achievement. The spirit of a high and broad fraternity prompted the sending of this message to come; the spirit of a high and broad fraternity, Mr. President, gave the response, "We will come." And, brothers and sisters of the National Educational Association, you came from grand old New England, rock-bound and splendid; from the state where flows the Mohawk river on its course to the sea; from the rolling plains of the mighty Middle West; from the land where the shadows of the Rockies are—those Rockies whose peaks seem to pierce the sky, appearing to whisper and ask of the stars and constellations the mysteries of the heavens. You came *from* homes where light and love and liberty gladden your hearts; and, thank God, you come *to* homes where light and love and liberty gladden our hearts, too.

You have come, my friends, as representatives of education—education as old as Egypt and Mesopotamia, yet strong and young and robust with the blood of perennial youth; education that long centuries ago was but a tiny brook, that, receiving tributaries from every land, has become a mighty ocean, in which the spirit of mankind may bathe, and, bathing, resplendent grow; education that revives the sleeping æons of antiquity; that gives the mastery over "the thoughts that shake mankind;" that reads in strata and substrata the secrets of Mother Earth; that equips for the coming of that century whose beacon lights are all aglow now on the horizon of time; education that, true to the source whence come mind and powers of reasoning, should lift the heart and the mind and the soul of man into communion with the Spirit of the living God.

You have come to the South, and the hour is almost here when you must say "good-by." In the words of the ancient poet I would say: "As long as the heavens shall feed the stars; as long as the shadows shall traverse the convex sides of the mountains; so long, with us and our children's children, will be the memory of your coming" to the old Palmetto State.

When you shall have returned to your far-distant homes, we shall, as long as life shall last, recall the gracious women and knightly men who came to us unknown and depart our beloved friends.

We have looked, my brothers and sisters, into your eyes, and there we have read a common purpose, a purpose shared with us, your brothers and sisters of the South—the exaltation of truth and the glory of learning. We have looked into your hearts, and there we have seen enshrined, as there are enshrined in our hearts too, the very spirit and essence of love for and loyalty to our mighty country, which, once sundered when swords flashed and cannon roared, and eyes were dimmed with tears for the noble dead, is again and forever one, indissoluble and indestructible.

Oh, my friends, the glory of the legacy that is ours in the common past ; a legacy rich with triumphs of armed hosts, with triumphs of mind, with triumphs of soul !

In our temple of fame—a temple new, perhaps, but stately, grand, and imposing—stands Washington, with eyes aglow with love of country and “freedom’s holy light,” and around him a group of figures of the stalwart men who stood with him in his day and time for constitutional liberty. Walk with me down the corridors of this temple of fame of ours, of these United States, and behold the great trio, Webster, Clay, and Calhoun, whose voices awoke the echoes of the world. Their talents and patriotism undying ennoble this country just as much as in the older times the glorious talents of Pericles and Demosthenes and Cicero ennobled the lands whose children they were.

We now stand before a figure in this temple, whose face is graven with lines of care, rugged with thought, and drawn by pain for the sufferings of his land, longing to hear no more the drumbeat of a war too cruel, but listening for the melody of peace ; and on a brow where once rested the shadow of impending doom is now the wreath of hero and of statesman, while in the hearts of the North and of the South alike lives the memory of the mighty dead, Abraham Lincoln.

Near, in that temple, two other figures stand, captains of mighty hosts, leaders of great armies, heroic and colossal, nobler far in purpose than was Alexander of old, grander far in aim and achievement too than the conquering Napoleon. “They sleep their last sleep, they have fought their last battle,” but Lee and Grant can never die.

Did time permit, I might hallow this hour by calling the names of the glorious Jackson, the heroic Hancock, and other names that would stir your hearts and cause your pulses to beat responsive to the words—the mere calling of their names—the leaders both in war and in peace, in literature and in the arts and in the sciences, and, thank God, the leaders too in the commonwealth of our Master, the Christ.

On behalf of the South, as a humble representative, I thank you with all my heart for coming to Dixie land.

You go from this sunny land, the land of the Palmetto and the sea, back to your homes, respected, honored, and beloved. Let us all carry with us the purpose to teach, not only arts and sciences, but love of freedom, a broad, a high, and a comprehensive patriotism, and reverence for the flag under whose folds sit truth and wisdom, and justice and mercy have their habitation. Let us all go forth from this great educational meeting, this great national gathering—in one respect the greatest this noble body has ever held—let us go forth, I say, resolved more than ever to cherish our hallowed past, to be true to the living present, and to stand, in the years before us, for freedom, for fatherland, and for that banner, star-spangled and stainless as the blue heavens above us.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

CHICAGO MEETING

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST DAY

MORNING SESSION.—TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1900

The Department of Superintendence was called to order in University Hall, Fine Arts Building, Chicago, Ill., at 10 A. M., President Augustus S. Downing in the chair.

After music by the Glee Club of the Hyde Park High School of Chicago, an invocation was offered by Right Rev. Bishop Fallows. Another selection by the Glee Club followed, after which Hon. Howard S. Taylor, representing his honor, Mayor Carter H. Harrison, delivered an address of welcome on behalf of the city of Chicago. Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews, superintendent of city schools, welcomed the department on behalf of the board of education and the teachers of Chicago. President Downing responded on behalf of the department.

An address was then delivered by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, New York city, on the subject, "The Status of Education at the Close of the Century." The paper was discussed by President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University and Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education.

The department then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The afternoon session was called to order at 2 : 15, President Downing in the chair. The president appointed the following

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Superintendent F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.

Superintendent L. C. Greenlee, Denver, Colo.

Superintendent E. H. Mark, Louisville, Ky.

Hon. L. D. Harvey, state superintendent of public instruction of Wisconsin, presented a paper on "Two Opportunities for Improvement in the Administration of Graded School Systems." The paper was discussed by State Superintendent Alfred Bayliss of Illinois.

The report of the committee appointed at Columbus to make a recommendation with reference to the location of the meeting for the years 1901 and 1902 was then presented, as follows :

Members of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association:

Your committee appointed by virtue of the following resolution passed at the annual meeting of the department at Columbus, O., February, 1899, viz.:

"That a committee of three be appointed with instructions to report on the first day of the meeting in 1900, recommending a place for the meeting of the department for the two succeeding years, 1901 and 1902," submits the following report:

That the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association be held in Chicago in the years 1901 and 1902.

AARON GOVE,
O. T. CORSON,
GEORGE H. MARTIN,
Committee.

A motion to adopt the report was made by William J. Cox, of Moline, Ill. Superintendent C. M. Bardwell, of Aurora, Ill., moved as a substitute that the report be laid on the table until Wednesday morning, and taken up immediately after the close of the regular program. The substitute was lost. A vigorous discussion of the motion then followed, which was participated in by Messrs. Glenn, of Georgia; Gove, of Colorado; Prettyman, of Maryland; White, of Ohio; Treudley, of Ohio; Brown, of Illinois; and Bouton, of Massachusetts. Superintendent Bouton then moved to amend the report so that it would apply only to the year 1901. The motion was carried by a vote of 89 to 59, and the president declared that Chicago was the choice of the department as the place for meeting in 1901.

The following Committee on Nominations was appointed and instructed to report at 12 M. on Wednesday, February 28:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Superintendent George B. Cook, of Arkansas.

Superintendent D. L. Bardwell, of New York.

Superintendent W. C. Bates, of Massachusetts.

President R. H. Halsey, of Wisconsin.

Superintendent G. R. Glenn, of Georgia.

The department then adjourned.

EVENING SESSION

The evening session was held in Central Music Hall, beginning at 8:15, President Downing presiding. Music was furnished by the Joseph Medill High School chorus. After prayer by Rev. Jacob Stolz, Walter H. Page, of New York city, delivered an address upon "Right Use of Speech in a Democracy."

Adjourned.

SECOND DAY

MORNING SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28

The session opened at 9:30, with the president in the chair. An invocation was offered by Rev. Dr. A. C. Hurst, of Chicago. Music was furnished by Miss Joy, of California.

Superintendent Aaron Gove, of Denver, Colo., read a paper entitled "The Trail of the City Superintendent." The discussion of this paper was opened by Superintendent Charles M. Jordan, of Minneapolis, Minn.

Superintendent Charles E. Gorton, of Yonkers, N. Y., then read a paper entitled "The School Superintendent in Small Cities."

Assistant Superintendent A. P. Marble, of New York city, concluded the discussion of Superintendent Gove's paper.

E. O. Vaile, editor of *Intelligence*, Oak Park, Ill., introduced the following resolution, and moved its adoption:

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence does hereby memorialize the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association at its next meeting in Charleston, S. C., to appropriate the sum of \$1,000 for each of the next five years, to be expended in promoting the cause of simplifying our English spelling, under the direction of a commission composed of the following members:

Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C., *president*.

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University, New York, *first vice-president*.

Dr. F. Louis Soldan, superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Mo., *second vice-president*.

Dr. William R. Harper, president of the University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Dr. W. H. Ward, editor of the *Independent*, New York.

Francis J. Child, professor of English, Harvard University.

Thomas R. Lounsbury, professor of English, Yale University.

William Dean Howells, New York city.

Benjamin E. Smith, managing editor of the *Century Dictionary*.

Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews, superintendent of schools, Chicago.

It being provided that any vacancies arising in the above board shall be filled by a vote of the members.

Resolved, That the retiring secretary of the department is hereby instructed to see that the above memorial is duly communicated to the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association.

After discussion by Dr. E. E. White, of Ohio; President A. S. Draper, of Illinois; Colonel Francis W. Parker and Superintendent O. T. Bright, of Chicago, it was moved that the matter be referred to the Board of Directors of the National Educational Association, with an expression of opinion from the department. This motion was lost. It was then moved and carried that the resolution be laid on the table for one year; yeas, 93; nays, 71. After further discussion it was moved and carried that the substance of this resolution shall be assigned a place for discussion on next year's program of the Department of Superintendence.

Dr. W. T. Harris introduced the following resolution:

Resolved, That the president of this department be, and he is hereby, authorized and instructed to appoint a committee on the National Bureau of Education, the same to consist of six members, whose duty it shall be to aid that bureau, in whatever way they find it practicable, to accomplish its work.

The resolution was adopted.

The department adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The afternoon session opened in University Hall at 2 o'clock with a paper by Professor W. O. Atwater, of Wesleyan University, Connecticut, upon "Alcohol Physiology and Superintendence." A formal discussion of this paper was introduced by Superintendent S. T. Dutton, of Brookline, Mass., and closed by Superintendent R. G. Boone, of Cincinnati, O. It was then moved that the discussion close at 4:30, and the president ruled that no speaker should exceed five minutes. The following took part in the discussion: Superintendent C. P. Carroll, of Massachusetts; Colonel F. W. Parker, of Illinois; Dr. D. L. Kiehle, of Minnesota; Professor George W. Webster, of Chicago; Hon. Henry Sabin, of Iowa; Superintendent Joseph Carter, of Illinois; Professor Winfield S. Hall, of Chicago; Superintendent C. G. Pearse, of Nebraska.

It was moved by Superintendent Boone, of Cincinnati, that thirty minutes of the Thursday morning meeting be given to the further discussion of this topic.

The committee provided for by the resolution of Dr. Harris was announced, as follows:

COMMITTEE ON BUREAU OF EDUCATION

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of New York.

President A. S. Draper, of Illinois.

Superintendent G. R. Glenn, of Georgia.

Superintendent N. C. Dougherty, of Illinois.

Dr. E. Oram Lyte, of Pennsylvania.

Superintendent Aaron Gove, of Colorado.

Department adjourned.

EVENING SESSION

The evening session was held in Central Music Hall, Vice-President G. R. Glenn in the chair. An address was delivered by President Edwin A. Alderman of the University of North Carolina, upon the subject, "The Obligations of Scholarship."

Department adjourned.

THIRD DAY

MORNING SESSION.—THURSDAY, MARCH 1

The department was called to order in University Hall at 9:30 A. M., President Downing in the chair. Music was furnished by the eighth-grade class of the Brainerd School, Chicago. After an invocation by Dr. William Lawrence, of Chicago, the discussion of Professor Atwater's paper was continued. On motion, Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, of Boston, was allowed fifteen minutes to discuss the paper. She was followed by Mrs. Jessie Willard Bolte, of Winnetka, Ill. Superintendent Dutton, of Massachusetts, moved

that Professor Atwater be allowed what he may regard as sufficient time in which to close the discussion. An amendment allowing him ten minutes was lost and the original motion carried. At the close of the discussion the following resolution was offered by Superintendent Joseph Carter, of Champaign, Ill.:

Resolved, That it is the judgment of this department of the National Educational Association that the teaching of temperance, errors being corrected if there be any in our books, shall be continued by law in our schools.

Superintendent C. M. Jordan, of Minneapolis, Minn., introduced the following :

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence expresses its deep interest in every legitimate effort to further the cause of temperance, and its hearty approval of temperance instruction, based upon sound pedagogical principles, in the public schools of the country.

Both resolutions were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

At this point President Downing surrendered the gavel to President Corson of the National Educational Association, who introduced a delegation from South Carolina, consisting of Superintendent H. P. Archer, Charleston; Hon. J. J. McMahan, state superintendent of public instruction; and Dr. A. P. Montague, president of Furman University, who constituted a committee, appointed by the city of Charleston, to present to the department the greetings of the citizens of that city. These gentlemen, in eloquent and impressive addresses, extended to the department an invitation to attend the annual convention of the National Educational Association, to be held in Charleston in July, 1900.

Superintendent Bright, of Illinois, then moved that the department proceed to complete the business which was to come before it. Carried. The report of the Committee on Nominations was as follows :

To the Members of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association:

Your committee begs leave to submit the following nominations for officers of the department for the ensuing year:

For *President*—L. D. Harvey, Madison, Wis.

For *First Vice-President*—A. K. Whitcomb, Lowell, Mass.

For *Second Vice-President*—W. F. Slaton, Atlanta, Ga.

For *Secretary*—F. B. Cooper, Salt Lake City, Utah.

GEORGE B. COOK, *Chairman*,

W. C. BATES,

R. H. HALSEY,

G. R. GLENN,

D. L. BARDWELL,

Committee on Nominations.

It was moved that the secretary cast the ballot of the department for the names presented by the committee. The motion was carried and the ballot so cast, and the officers named were declared elected.

Adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The afternoon session was called to order at 2 o'clock.

President John W. Cook presented a paper on the subject, "How a Superintendent may Improve the Efficiency of His Teachers." A formal discussion of this paper was opened by Professor A. S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan.

Superintendent R. E. Denfeld, of Duluth, Minn., then presented a paper on "The Superintendent as an Organizer and Executive." This paper was discussed by Superintendent E. H. Mark, of Louisville, Ky.

The Committee on Resolutions presented the following, which were unanimously adopted :

To the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association:

The Committee on Resolutions respectfully submits the following report:

Resolved, That the thanks of this department are hereby tendered to the retiring officers for the wisdom and energy they have displayed in the preparations for this meeting, which by their efforts has been one of the most successful department sessions in the history of the association,

Resolved, That the thanks of the department be tendered to those who have presented the papers and the addresses which have formed the program of this meeting.

The department expresses its appreciation and gratitude to the Local Committee of Arrangements, whose work has contributed so much toward the success of the meeting; to the board of education, and to the city and the citizens, of Chicago, for their generous hospitality; to the press for its extended and satisfactory reports of the sessions; to the Woman's Club of Chicago for its generous reception; to the railroads for the facilities which they have offered for this meeting and for the reduction in the rates of transportation.

Resolved, That the request which this department made to the directors of the National Educational Association one year ago, and which met with generous compliance, be renewed for the next session, viz.: that an adequate appropriation for the meetings of this department be provided; and that the officers be directed to present this request at the next session of the Board of Directors.

In consideration of the deep interest which this department takes in every legitimate effort to advance the cause of temperance, and of its desire to promote in the schools of the country the teaching of temperance based on sound pedagogical and scientific principles, be it

Resolved, That the chair appoint a committee of seven, whose duty it shall be to report upon the teaching of physiology in the schools, especially with regard to the condition and progress of scientific inquiry as to the action of alcohol upon the human system, and to recommend what action, if any, by this department is justified by the results of these inquiries.

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, *chairman*,
L. C. GREENLEE,
E. H. MARK,
Committee.

EVENING SESSION

The evening session was held in Central Music Hall. The meeting was opened at 8:15 with prayer by Superintendent N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania. An address was delivered by President Benjamin Ide Wheeler of the University of California, upon "The Place of Secondary Schools." At the conclusion of the address the following committee upon temperance instruction in the schools was announced by the president:

COMMITTEE ON TEMPERANCE INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS

District Superintendent A. G. Lane, of Chicago, *chairman*.
Hon. O. T. Corson, of Ohio.
Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, of Colorado.
Dr. E. Oram Lyte, of Pennsylvania.
President E. A. Alderman, of North Carolina.
Superintendent F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri.
Superintendent E. P. Seaver, of Massachusetts.

The incoming president, Superintendent L. D. Harvey, of Wisconsin, was then presented and made a few remarks.

The department adjourned *sine die*.

CHARLES M. JORDAN,
Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

STATUS OF EDUCATION AT THE CLOSE OF THE CENTURY

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, PROFESSOR OF PHILOSOPHY AND
EDUCATION, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Imagination and feeling increasingly bear the brunt of shaping human opinion and human conduct. Intelligence does its organizing work and then disappears below the surface. Much of life goes on without its active co-operation, just as many of our mental reactions, first organized in the brain, come to be carried on thru the spinal cord alone. When we stop to think, we realize that a century is of human making, a purely arbitrary division of time. Century might have been the name given to a longer or a shorter period, twenty years or two hundred, without doing violence to anything save present associations. The limits of a century are wholly imaginary. The skies do not change when a century is ushered in, or the thunders roll when it passes out. A century begins and ends as noiselessly and as unperceived as any moment which glides from the future into the past. Imagination, however, gives to the century an objective reality, and feeling welds our thoughts to it. The arbitrary period of time which it covers, and the events which happen in that period, come to have for us a relation of cause and effect or of reciprocal dependence. We cannot rid ourselves of that feeling. Fancy, if you can, Attila charging upon the Western Empire in a century called the fifteenth instead of the fifth, or Louis XVI. losing his head in the eighth century instead of the eighteenth, or Columbus discovering America in the twentieth!

We do well to resign ourselves to the spell of these mental creations, and to learn, as Macaulay somewhere said, to know our centuries. But who can *know* the nineteenth century? Development so rapid, changes so startling, inventions so undreamed of, crowd each other in a whirl of confusing images when we try to picture this century and to note its salient facts. It is the century of Napoleon and of Lincoln, of Hegel and of Darwin, of Goethe and of Kipling, of Bessemer and of Rockefeller. More leaders of enterprise and more captains of industry have appeared during this one hundred years than in all previous recorded history. The average of human intelligence and of human efficiency has been raised to a point, in the United States certainly, which a few hundred years ago would have entailed notoriety, and perhaps distinction. Prosperity and querulousness, desire and happiness, have all multiplied together. How can all this be interpreted?

The wisest answer seems to me to be this: The nineteenth century is pre-eminently the period of individual liberty—political, religious, intellectual, industrial; and its manifold triumphs and achievements are due to the large opportunities which have been granted to individual initiative and to individual expression. The greatness, the shortcomings, and the contradictions of the nineteenth century are alike due to this.

It must be borne in mind that mankind discovered the significance of the individual rather late, and that, when discovered, this significance was variously interpreted. Man's early institutions and his law, based as they were on kinship, took the family, bound together by tie of blood, as the unit. The individual was of very secondary importance. The horde, the tribe, the state were successive aggregations of families, or, perhaps better, a larger family. The interest, the ambition, the vengeance of the group or community controlled each individual's acts and, in large measure, his opinions and his thoughts. Under such circumstances education could only be tribal or ethnic in its aims and in its forms. It sought to reproduce a type, not to develop a capacity.

The journey during the history of civilization from this point of view to one from which the individual is himself of importance is a long and arduous one. Of representative ancient thinkers the Sophists, the Cynics, and the Stoics alone championed the cause of the individual as such, and their appreciation of the real meaning of individualism was most imperfect. The Sophist hope that a man could spin a web of successful and useful existence out of the shadowy contents of his own perceptions was dashed once and for all by Socrates. The Cynic revolt against social order and convention is typified by Diogenes with lantern and with tub. The Stoic outlook was a broader one, but it in turn was shut in by the massive height of an omnipresent, overruling law, before which man could only seek virtue thru stern resignation. The clue suggested by the master-mind of Aristotle, by which the essential nature and the limitations of individualism might be made known, was not fully followed up for centuries. Yet from the fifth century before Christ onward philosophy was increasingly becoming, not only the science of human conduct, but the art of human living; and individualism was necessarily the gainer. How shall a man live to attain wisdom and virtue? was the question which the Greek and Roman moralists pressed home upon each individual listener with tremendous force. Then Christianity came, with its teaching of the equality of every human soul before the judgment-seat of God. Here, at last, individualism seemed to have found a secure foundation. The Sermon on the Mount was its charter and its moral guide. A man's salvation depended upon himself alone. Speedily, however, a reaction set in, and the old habit of setting hard and fast limits for the individual asserted itself. Christianity grew rapidly into an elaborate system of doctrine to be held in its entirety *semper, ubique, ab omnibus*. On the

other hand, the Roman jurists were elaborating a system of personal rights, which was destined to afford individualism a new foothold and to exercise a profound influence upon European society. Superficially, then, individualism was checked by a body of doctrine, uniformly prescribed, which guided faith and practice; under the surface, rights and opportunities for the individual continued to develop slowly. Education took on the form of the superficial appearance of uniformity, and for centuries the western world continued steadily to uncoil itself in constantly widening circles, but still in circles. At length the inner contradiction between the two great elements of mediæval civilization asserted itself, and the crash came. With the mocking jests of Rabelais, the caustic wit of Montaigne, the masculine fervor of Luther, pent-up individualism hurled itself against the bars which confined it. It broke thru, now here and now there, and rushed headlessly hither and yon, searching for escape. It tried mysticism in religion as a relief from the clanking chains of dogma, and absolutism in politics as a protection from its nearest foes. Meanwhile, the crushing force of ancient tradition asserted itself with dogged determination. But it was too late; the long-checked desire for a freedom which was too often interpreted as anarchy, and for a liberty which in its newness appeared to mean license, could not be controlled. In its name the persistent Anglo-Saxon challenged the house of Stuart, and after two centuries worked himself substantially free from the old forms of bondage. The more passionate and quick-moving Celt had to wait longer, but he acted more quickly. In the dramatic horrors and sublimities of the French Revolution he gained his immediate end at the risk of losing every precious possession of the race.

The smoke of the French Revolution hung over Europe when the nineteenth century opened. As it gradually cleared away it became obvious that the successful struggle of individualism for recognition was almost over, but that the results were to be worked out by argument, not by anarchy. The century soon to close records what happened.

Education, as a matter of course, has always borne the impress of the civilization whose product it was. From the fourteenth century to the nineteenth, the demand of individualism for representation in the schools has been heard, now earnest and reasonable, now passionate and incoherent. Politics and religion so far overshadowed education in importance that it was a long time before there was any widespread recognition of the close relation in which education stood to them. On this matter the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries brought great light, and there was new hope for the schools. False and partial as we must hold much of the French and English philosophy of the eighteenth century to be, it is nevertheless to be credited with having convinced the world that a fundamental principle bound together rational progress in politics, in religion, and in education. To this conviction the nineteenth century

has clung most tenaciously. The result has been an unexampled and dazzling expansion of educational endeavor and accomplishment.

When the century opened Rousseau had been dead nearly twenty-three years. Pestalozzi had just left Stanz for Burgdorf, and at the age of fifty-five was crying ecstatically: "The child is right; he will not have anything come between nature and himself." Froebel, an introspective youth of nineteen, was at Jena, at that moment the very center of the productive activity of German thought. Reinhold had been expounding the new gospel according to Kant there, and Fichte had only recently been expelled while trying to interpret it. Then and there Froebel, as he himself said, began to know the names of Goethe and Schiller and Wieland. Hegel, too, was at Jena. His *Lehrjahre* were behind him, and at thirty years of age he was nearly ready to measure his strength with the masters. The lecture programs of the University of Jena, as has been said, at that time fairly "dripped" philosophy. Herbart, who had been one of Fichte's pupils at Jena a few years earlier, was still, at twenty-four, studying and giving private instruction. These five men—Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Hegel, and Herbart—were to give to nineteenth-century education most of its philosophical foundation and not a few of its methods. From them have come the main influences which have shaped education for a hundred years.

Each one of the five pleaded in his way for the value of the individual. Rousseau, with no institutional sense and no insight into the meaning of history, exclaimed: "O man, concentrate thine existence within thyself, and thou wilt no longer be miserable! Thy liberty, thy power, extend only as far as thy natural forces, and no farther. All the rest is but slavery, illusion, prestige." Pestalozzi, whose intellect never quite caught up with his emotions, was really neglecting the individual by his method of trying to care for him. Froebel and Hegel saw far deeper. They knew the meaning of institutions, of thought-relations, of development, both inner and outer. They taught the individual as a *Gliedganzes*, a whole and yet a part of a larger whole, and so gave us our truest view of individualism in education. Herbart's individualism was hard and mechanical, tho his doctrine of apperception gave promise of something better and more vital.

These men, then, projected individualism into contemporary educational theory. They had hosts of disciples in many lands, and the movement grew apace. It needed, however, the touch of practice to make it genuinely real. This came after 1848, the line which divides the century into two parts—the earlier part dominated by thought, with spirits like Goethe, Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Emerson as its exponents; the latter dominated by action, with Lincoln, Gladstone, and Bismarck as exemplars. In 1848 the individual gained the foothold which he had struggled for, but lost, in the haste of 1789.

The pressure from practical life followed. The old educational material and the traditional educational methods were attacked with greater frequency and with greater vigor, as not adapted to modern needs. The ancient languages and the civilizations they embalmed were denounced as fetiches. The world's philosophy was nonsense; its art was archaic; its literature pedantic and overlaid with form. Straightway altars were erected to new and unfamiliar gods; before all to that product of the human understanding called science, which Mr. Herbert Spencer, with a humor quite unconscious, defined as partially unified knowledge. The new spirit exulted in its freedom. It accomplished much; it ignored much. In a thousand ways it impressed itself on life, on literature, and on art. Education was shaken to its foundations. Nothing was sacred. No subject of study, no method of teaching was immune. Old institutions of learning were too slow to move and to adapt themselves to these conditions. New ones were invented, created, set in motion. Wealth, public and private, poured out like water to make possible and to sustain these new types of school. The seven liberal arts faded into insignificance beside the endless list of subjects now found to be worthy of study.

This great, world-wide movement justified itself for the time by its results. Commerce, industry, and invention multiplied apace. The forces of nature were commanded thru being obeyed. Education had become democratic, and was ready to offer training in preparation for any calling. The traditional list of learned professions was increased by architecture, engineering, and a dozen more. Early and complete adaptation of the individual to his appropriate career was hailed as the new educational ideal before which all else must give way. In consequence, the hasty conclusion was drawn that not only methods of procedure in education, but the sole principles upon which to proceed, could be learned by the study of the infant mind and the infant body. Upon this as a basis a superstructure of educational theory and practice was erected, which would have delighted the heart of that arch-Philistine, Rousseau. All that had been was wasteful, misleading, wrong, not on its merits, but simply because it had been. The progress of the race in civilization was explained as having taken place in spite of men's ideals, not because of them; and it was therefore rejected as a source of inspiration and of information. Individualism had not only won a great victory, but apparently its opponents were annihilated.

This new philosophy, however, had not established itself without a protest, and as this type of individualism became more and more extreme in its claims, the protest grew louder and more earnest. Could the crowded centuries of the human past teach us nothing? Were the art of Phidias and of Raphael, the verse of Homer and of Dante, the philosophy of Plato and of Kant, the institutions of the Roman law and of

constitutional government, all to depend for their educational meaning and value upon the carefully noted actions and preferences of the unformed infant in its cradle? The humor of the situation revealed itself, and the reaction set in.

Individualism had gone too far. In the effort of forming its fullest flower it had torn itself up by the roots. History did mean something after all; and environment was discovered to be a thing of three dimensions, not of two only. Reflection succeeded to controversy. Meanwhile the new sciences of nature had themselves been studying embryology and heredity. These words took on new meanings. The individual was seen to be a product as well as a producer. Product of what? Of all that man had thought and done, and of his own infinitesimal self. But if this were true, then what of education? Obviously, the defenders of the new must shift their ground and retreat from the untenable position of Rousseau to the impregnable fortress, *Glückesburg*, of Froebel, of Hegel, and of all philosophical teachers of evolution. This change has been made, and as the century closes the soundest educational philosophy the world over teaches that the individual alone is nothing, but that the individual as a member of a society and of a race is everything. Selfhood, which can only be attained by entering into the life-history and the experience of the race, is now put in the high place which was about to be rashly filled by Selfishness. True individualism, which would enrich the life of each with the possessions of all, is well-nigh supreme, and sham individualism, which would set every man's hand against his fellow, is disposed of, let us hope forever. Education rests securely upon the continuous history of man's civilization, and looks to the nature of each individual for guidance in the best methods of conducting him to his inheritance, but not for knowledge of what that inheritance is.

Every conception of this nineteenth century, educational as well as other, has been cross-fertilized by the doctrine of evolution. In whichever direction we turn we meet that doctrine or some one of its manifold implications. We have incorporated it into educational theory and have thereby shed a flood of light upon problems hitherto dark. Evolution has assisted mightily in that interpretation of individualism which I have just defended. It has bound the universe together by homogeneous law, and the relations of each to all, both physical and social, have become far clearer and more definite. But much remains to be done in applying the teachings of evolution in actual plans and methods of instruction. The application is going on, however, all around us and without cessation, and is the cause of not a little of the existing educational inquiry and unrest. Our schools have shed one shell, and the other is not yet grown. Illustrations of this will be found in the teaching of mathematics, of language, of history, and of the natural sciences. We

halt often between the logical and the psychological order, failing to appreciate that evolution gives a place to each. The logical order is the order of proof, of demonstration; the psychological order is the order of discovery, of learning. Children do not learn logically; they come later to see logical relations in what they have learned. The well-equipped teacher knows both logic and psychology. He is prepared to guide the pupil in his natural course of learning, and also to point out to him the structure of relationship of what he has learned. Text-book writers the world over have been slow to see this distinction; but, with only few exceptions, the best American text-books, which control so powerfully all school processes, are in advance of those most in use in Europe. The logical order is so simple, so coherent, and so attractive that it seems a pity to surrender it for the less trim and less precise order of development; but this will have to be done if teaching efficiency according to evolution is to be had.

The course of evolution in the race and in the individual furnishes us also with the clue to the natural order and the real relationships of studies. It warns us against the artificial, the bizarre, and points us to the fundamental and the real. Only educational scholarship can protect the schools against educational dilettantism.

Two lines are needed to determine the position of a point. The two principles of evolution and of an individualism, viewed in the light of the history of civilization, seem to me to determine the status of education at the close of the century. The working of these principles is exemplified in practice in a thousand ways. They lie behind and determine every effort for improvement and for progress. The diverse types of school, higher and lower, with their widely different special ends and yet with a common fund of basic knowledge which they all impart, reveal a purpose to cultivate and to adapt the special powers and talents of the individual, while holding him in touch with the life and the interests of his kind. The existence of the wonder-working elective system in secondary schools and colleges, together with the limitations put upon it, is due to a real as opposed to a sham individualism. The marked emphasis now laid upon the social aspect of education, in Europe as well as in the United States, and also upon the school as a social institution and a social center, is additional evidence of the dominance of the individualism of Froebel rather than that of Rousseau. The demands for the establishment of a proper system of secondary education in England, for the making over of the secondary-school systems of France and of Germany, for the closer articulation of lower schools and higher schools, of schools and colleges, in the United States, for making elementary-school instruction as little wasteful and as full of content as possible, for bringing forward studies which give adequate scope for expression in various forms, and the demand that the community shall relate itself to

its educational system simply and effectively—all these are based, consciously or unconsciously, upon the desire to apply the teachings of evolution and to progress toward the ideal of a perfected individualism.

Education, so conceived and so shaped, has made an irresistible appeal to every civilized nation. During the century education has definitely become a state function, not as a dole, but as a duty. Consequently, the public expenditure for education has become enormous. In the United States it amounts annually to \$200,000,000 for the common schools alone, or \$2.67 per capita of population. This sum is about one-tenth of the total wealth of Indiana or of Michigan as determined by the census of 1890. In Great Britain and Ireland the total public expenditure on account of education is over \$88,000,000, or \$2.20 per capita. In France it is about \$58,000,000, or \$1.60 per capita. In the German empire it is over \$108,000,000, or more than \$2 per capita. These four great nations, therefore, the leaders of the world's civilization at this time, with a total population of nearly 210,000,000, are spending annually for education a sum considerably greater than \$450,000,000.

The annual expenditure of the United States for common schools is quite equal to the sum total of the expenditures of Great Britain, France, and Germany combined upon their powerful navies. It is nearly four-fifths of the total annual expenditure of the armed camps of France and Germany upon their huge armies. It is a sum greater by many millions than the net ordinary expenditures of the United States government in 1880. This expenditure for common schools has nearly trebled since 1870, and during that period has grown from \$1.75 to \$2.67 per capita of population and from \$15.20 to \$18.86 for each pupil enrolled.

These imposing and suggestive statistics mark, in the most objective fashion possible, the distance we have traveled from the beginning of the century, when there was literally no such thing in existence anywhere in the civilized world as a state system of education. But pride of achievement should yield to a feeling of responsibility for the future. In the light of the nineteenth century no man dare prophesy what the twentieth century will bring forth. We only know that a democracy shielded by insight into the past and armed with trained minds, disciplined wills, and a scientific method is as ready as man's imperfect wisdom can make it for whatever may come in the future.

Daniel Webster, in his oration at the laying of the cornerstone of the Bunker Hill monument, exulted honestly in the conviction that the example of our country was full of benefit to human freedom and to human happiness everywhere. "We can win no laurels in a war for independence," he said. "Earlier and worthier hands have gathered them all. Nor are there places for us by the side of Solon, and Alfred, and other founders of states. Our fathers have filled them. But there remains to us a great duty of defense and preservation; and there is opened to

us, also, a noble pursuit, to which the spirit of the times strongly invites us. Our proper business is improvement." This injunction, laid upon Americans by their great orator three-quarters of a century ago, has lost none of its force. It applies with peculiar directness to teachers and to teaching. The glory of founding educational systems cannot be ours; but the effort for improvement, by building wise practice upon sound theory, is within the reach of each one of us.

DISCUSSION

PRESIDENT CHARLES W. ELIOT, Harvard University.—*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* The scholarly address to which we have just listened has described so clearly and comprehensively the educational progress of this century that I need say nothing about the philosophical and biographical aspects of the subject. It only remains for me, in the few minutes during which I can occupy your attention, to supplement in some particulars, as best one may in extemporaneous speech, Dr. Butler's admirable paper. I will touch on three or four of the leading features of educational progress during the last half of this century. As Dr. Butler has already said, it is during the last half of the century—since 1848—that the chief progress in education has taken place.

The first great movement of reform was the introduction of freedom in choice of studies—first in universities, or colleges, and later in schools. Like most other large educational movements, this change proceeded from new conditions entirely outside of the proper realm of education. It proceeded from the wonderful development of new knowledges which took place during the first half of the century, accompanied by the discovery of new principles and methods of scientific investigation. These new knowledges and new methods of inquiry commanded public attention, and created an imperative demand that youth should be instructed in them. The managers of education positively have had no option with regard to the introduction of some sort of elective system. They have been compelled to introduce it. A limited elective system was first introduced into Harvard College in 1826 during the administration of President Josiah Quincy, a layman who came late to an educational post, having previously been a member of Congress and mayor of Boston. His two successors in the presidency did not agree with him as to the importance of an election of studies; so they tried to extinguish the system in Harvard College. The second of these two presidents put on record in his own reports his failure completely to extinguish the system, and gave the true reason for the failure—namely, the incoming of such a number of new sciences and of new philosophical and practical intellectual interests that it was impossible to restrict the program of studies in the college to the old seven or eight so-called liberal arts. Thus then the great change wrought in the second half of our century in public education was forced on college administrations from without. They had no choice; they must give to the student freedom in choice of study; and they must so specialize the teaching that the professor should have freedom to develop thruout all his career the teaching of a single topic.

Let me attempt to give you an idea of what has been going on since 1870 in this one institution in regard to the teaching of a single subject—political economy. A few days ago there died in Cambridge in his seventieth year Professor Charles Franklin Dunbar, who, having previously been a man of business and the editor of an influential paper in Boston, was made in 1871 professor of political economy—an immensely important subject, which at that time had no teacher exclusively devoted to it in Harvard University. It merely received a scanty portion of the attention of a professor of "natural religion, moral philosophy, and civil polity." In his first year of service Professor Dunbar gave

instruction in one course prescribed for juniors, and in that same year he offered one elective course to seniors. Such was the modest beginning of the university's department of political economy. When he died there were in Harvard University three full professors of political economy, one assistant professor, and six instructors. There was no prescribed course, but a large number of optional courses; and any youth who wanted to study political economy with thoroughness could begin that study as a freshman, and continue it for four years, that is, thru his whole college course; and then he might devote two or three years' time to it in the graduate school. One thoughtful, resolute, clear-headed, just man developed this important department of instruction in one American college, in a little less than thirty years, thru freedom for student and teacher alike.

Many persons have a very inadequate conception of the meaning of election of studies. They think of it chiefly as a questionable liberty for a thoughtless student. It is really the sole means of developing thoro, far-reaching university instruction in any subject, or in all subjects, and, therefore, is an indispensable means of promoting and stimulating American scholarship. It is as essential to the production of great teachers and great authors as it is to the training of well-equipped students.

I pass on to the next fundamental change in American education—a change which is pure, far-reaching gain, and which has been wrought out better in America than in any other country. I refer to the change in school discipline. Again, this is a change brought about, not exclusively by professional teachers, but by social forces working thru all the community, but especially developed in schools and colleges. Nowadays we realize that the fundamental object in all education is to develop self-control and the power to give an intense mental attention; and we realize that self-control is not to be cultivated in children under the arbitrary pressure of another's will. As a boy I went to what was considered the best public school in Boston—one famous thruout the country—the Boston Latin School; but I have to testify that the chief disciplinary motive to which I felt myself subjected during my boyhood in that school was fear—fear of the rough tongue of the teacher, fear of the harsh construction put on the childish motive and the childish conduct, and fear of physical pain as an inducement to an unnatural quietness and to mental application. That is a true picture of school discipline before the middle of this century all over the world, the school world, for thousands of years; but here in about the middle of this very century came a great change. It came partly thru the church. Fear began to cease to be the prime religious motive. Men began to find out that systematic theology is an exclusively human science. They began to see that it was a marvelously presumptuous thing in one man, tho he were a St. Augustine, a Calvin, or a Dr. Hodge, to undertake to state in the forms of human logic God's scheme for the salvation of men, and to describe the nature and the results of God's justice. Men began to emancipate themselves from the terrors of systematic theology. Then, too, we began to learn all over this country that government should not really be what for thousands of years government had been—the work of one arbitrary will, or of a few arbitrary wills; but rather that it should be government by the people for the people. We all began to think that the right conception of government for the citizen might teach us something concerning the government of a child. It occurred to us that, if self-government was the whole object of political freedom, then self-control might be the legitimate primary object of a child's development. Again, home discipline began to change for the better. Family government became gentler; and all these changes in society helped wonderfully to the beneficent change in the school. There has not been a more blessed change in the world than this change in home and school discipline from fear to love, from driving to leading. Wonderful has been the fruit of this change on the temper of our people and the happiness of our homes.

I pass on to another immense change, brought about quite outside the schools and colleges, which has nevertheless affected profoundly the public provision of systematic instruction. During the last fifty years, on account of industrial changes, the population

in our own country, and in most of the civilized countries of the world, has been rushing into cities and large towns. This rush into urban life has had a very ill effect on schools. It has tended to make schools large machines; and of course it has deprived the children of the natural out-of-door sports of country life. The grading of classes in a large school had to be inflexible, and the product had to be uniform like that of a flour-mill. That meant that the quick children were held back and the slow were driven forward, to the great disadvantage of both sorts. It meant marking time. It meant also bad air, bad light, and crowded rooms, with fifty or seventy pupils to a teacher. These are impossible conditions for good teaching. The condensation of population introduced new risks of health; so that what was the normal rural death-rate rose in all large cities and towns to an unnatural height. The children suffered most from these increasing risks. Gradually, but chiefly within the last twenty years, we began to escape from some of these evils. We gave greater attention to good air, proper heat, and proper light; we gave greater flexibility to programs, and options among studies; in short, we attended to the conditions under which the children and the teachers worked, and tried to make them wholesome. But more than that it has been absolutely necessary to do. When a child grows up in the country it gets a natural training in accurate observation. It wants to find a four-leaf clover; it runs to see where the green snake went to; it tracks the woodchuck to its hole and gets it out; it learns the songs of the birds; and knows when the smelts run up the brooks, and when the twilight is just right for finding the partridges. In short, the country child gets naturally a broad training in observation. It also has on the farm an admirable training in manual labor. From an early age it can actually contribute to the care of animals, the successful conduct of the household, and the general welfare of the family. In the city all this natural training is lacking, and substitutes for it have to be artificially provided. This necessity has brought into our schools nature study and manual training, to teach the child to use its eyes and its hands, and to develop its senses and its muscular powers; and these new beneficent agencies in education, already well in play, are in the near future to go far beyond any stage at present reached. We do not yet see how to replace in urban education the training which the farmer's boy or the sea-coast boy gets from his habitual contest with the adverse forces of nature. The Gott's Island boy, on the coast of Maine, goes out with his father in the early winter morning in a half-open sailboat to visit their lobster traps and bring home the entrapped lobsters. They start with a gentle breeze and a quiet sea, tho the temperature is low. The boy knows just how to steer the boat five or six miles to sea, where the traps are sunk on some rocky spot which the lobsters love. The father is busy pulling the traps; the boy watches the weather, and suddenly he says: "Father, there is a northwester coming. See the clouds driving this way over the hills!" The boy knows just as well as the father what that means. It means a fearful beat to windward to get home, facing a savage wind and a falling temperature, the spray dashing over the vessel, and freezing to the sails and ropes, and loading down the bow with ice. It means a life-and-death struggle for hours — the question being: Shall we get into harbor or not before we sink? Now, that is a magnificent training for a boy, and the sheltered city offers nothing like it. The adverse forces of nature, if not so formidable that men cannot cope with them, are strenuous teachers; but in modern cities we hardly know that the wind blows, or that the flood is coming, or that bitter cold is imperiling all animal life.

Lastly — for my time has almost expired — a new motive is presented in our day to the teacher, the parent, and the children — the motive of joy thru achievement. The great joy in life for us all, after the domestic affections, is doing something and doing it well, getting where we want to get, and bringing others where they would like to be. Give every child, we say, the joy of achievement. Do not set it to do what you know it cannot do well. Set it to do what you think it can do well, and show it how. That is just what goes on in a happy kindergarten, or in a successful university conference or seminary. This is the new and happy aim in modern education — joy and gladness in achievement.

I need not say that freedom is necessary to this joy. Schools used to set children doing things they could not do well. That, fellow-teachers, is the unpardonable sin in educational administration. It is not for the happiness of the children only that this new motive—to increase joy—has come to bless us. It brings new happiness to the teacher also. It is means of happiness for everybody thruout life. As a result of the advent of this new policy we are learning not to use with children a motive that will not work when the children are grown up. To be sure, we must admit that this doctrine condemns almost all the school discipline of the past, and much of the family discipline; but the future will not mind that, if it finds the new doctrine beneficent.

Ladies and gentlemen, I do not know a more sacred occupation than the function of a superintendent of schools in the United States. The more I see of the kind of work a good superintendent does, the more I am impressed with its beneficent character. Let me urge you to mix freedom with all your policies and efforts. It seems to me that nobody's name lives in this world—to be blessed—that has not associated his life-work with some kind of human emancipation, physical, mental, or moral. Dr. Butler very justly named Rousseau as a great contributor to educational progress. The main work of that man's life tended and still tends toward human liberty, and that one fact has almost sanctified an execrable wretch. Do you remember what Rousseau did with five of his wife's babies, one after the other, in spite of her prayers and tears? He put every one of them in succession into the public *crèche*, knowing that in the then condition of foundling hospitals that destination meant all but certain death. Yet we sit here and listen to the praise of that mean and cruel creature. How shall we account for these two judgments of one man, both just? We can only say that he tied the main work of his intellectual life to the great doctrine of human liberty. Verily, to have served liberty will cover a multitude of sins. May you serve freedom and humanity in all your labors, and then have no sins to cover!

DR. W. T. HARRIS, United States Commissioner of Education.—After the address of Dr. Butler to which you have listened this morning, giving a survey of the movements of this century in the light of former centuries, and after the discussion of President Eliot, who holds with an iron grasp the facts of his time and compares them with the highest ethical standard of our civilization, I am sure that every schoolmaster here feels at least a head taller than before. Dr. Butler has made a magnificent review of the century, showing the growth of its spiritual interests. What he says concerns the work of every person present, and I presume that there are one thousand "one-man powers" here this morning (including several one-woman powers, too, who are superintendents of cities, and even of states). The great movement has been toward individualism, and what has been shown is that this movement is possible only with a reverse movement at the same time from the individual toward the universal by means of an all-around culture; for the highest individualism is that achieved by a self-activity by which the solitary human unit adds to himself the insights and achievements of his entire race, and makes them his own possession so completely that he can use them to conquer nature and to draw closer his union with his fellow-men. For this century of individualism has been made possible by the efforts of scholars to make a scientific inventory of nature and to use the discoveries of science in labor-saving inventions.

I wish to recall to your minds some facts and figures that form one of the best indexes of the rate and character of progress that is going on in this country, namely, the statistics of the increase of higher education. In twenty-five years the number of students in institutions of higher education, such as colleges and universities, has increased from 598 in a million to 1,215 in a million inhabitants, or more than double. Secondary education shows the same increase. While in 1876 there were only 2,150 in a million working on studies preparatory for college and branches of study of an equivalent degree of advancement, in 1897-98 there were 7,630 students (in each million inhabitants) engaged on such

branches. The increase of secondary students studying Latin and advanced mathematics, and in general taking up the branches which are supposed to be more of the nature of a solid foundation than the other branches, is also very encouraging. In eight years the number studying Latin has increased from 33 per cent. of the entire number of secondary students to 49 per cent.

The increase of the quota of the population that acquires secondary and higher education shows conclusively that, in proportion as wealth increases and the productive power of the people gains in strength, the people at large give their children better educational opportunities. What these better opportunities mean in general I will attempt to show by discriminating the cultivation of eye-mindedness from the cultivation of ear-mindedness. It will be admitted that the illiterate person knows language or speech only by the ear. As all people do their thinking mostly in words, the illiterate person may be said to be ear-minded. When a person comes to know language by the ear, he gains in ability in learning the experience of other fellow-beings, such an experience as the highest brute animal is debarred from. For by the use of speech each person may live vicariously over again the lives of other people. He may, by hearing them tell their experiences, their observations, reflections, and deeds, get the net results of their living, so that man even if illiterate may be properly described as an animal who possesses the power of living several lives in one.

Man is an animal who as individual can become a species by acquiring the knowledge and power, the experience and wisdom, of his race. But how limited is this power with the illiterate person! By means of letters one comes to be able to put down his life-experience in written and printed words, and all persons who can read get the power of living over his experience, interpreting the signs which are addressed to the eye and not to the ear. Thru letters the person becomes eye-minded, and when a person can read without effort he finds himself in possession of a much more accurate mind than is possible in the case of the illiterate. Ear-mindedness, having to keep up as it does with the spoken word, and having to depend on the memory of what is spoken, cannot critically examine the statements and descriptions, the definitions and deductions, as it can do when it has before it the printed page. In fact, accurate thinking for the most part becomes possible thru eye-mindedness and not thru ear-mindedness. Then just think of the scope which eye-mindedness attains! It does not depend at all upon the living voice, but it can become participant in the experience of persons at a distance, of all nationalities dwelling in all parts of the world. It is not limited by time. It can make available for its use the writings of all peoples that belong to the historical era, and, in fact, it can use the experience even of the peoples whose only records are monuments and written tablets of the prehistoric era.

Think of the meaning of this for the development of individuality, the development which has been described so eloquently this morning as the peculiar index-mark of the nineteenth century! For individuality grows thru the appropriation or assimilation of other individuality, and while the ear-minded person can command by means of wealth the services of oral teachers and gains his instruction thru absorbing the lives of his oral teachers, the eye-minded, on the other hand, can command the services of the book, and the book awaits his leisure. All parts of the earth become to him substantially present like his own village. Not merely ordinary teachers come to his service, but the wise men of his race await his leisure in the books which he possesses. These facts about ear-mindedness and eye-mindedness seem trite like a twice-told tale, but few persons are in the habit of thinking what a difference it makes with an entire people to pass from ear-mindedness to eye-mindedness thru the beneficent influences of the common schools. In our minds there remains the impression of what we read in the papers this morning regarding the victory of yesterday in south Africa. Some of us read this with grief in our souls, and some of us read it with great rejoicing. As an eye-minded people, with us world gossip has taken the place of village gossip in its hold on our lives,

An educational philosopher in Germany gave us a very profitable point of view from which to study the general meaning of education. He called the chief function of education self-alienation. It was the greatest philosopher in Europe who first used the German word *Selbstentfremdung* in this sense. The human being who takes up the experience of his fellow-men orally or in print has to make in a certain sense a journey out of himself and to entertain hospitable ideas—tolerant ideas—of the others in order to understand them, and when he comes to see their motives and to find their logical connection with his own experience, he has returned in a certain sense to himself. He has completed his cycle of self-alienation and has learned to find himself at home in a social whole much larger than himself as a mere individual. But it is more correct to say that he has enlarged his individuality. What is strange and alien to him at first becomes familiar and rational, and he is prepared to understand far-off peoples, not merely the English, nor merely the Boers, but also the Hottentots and Kaffirs, even the Feejee Islanders and the Patagonians. Substitute eye-mindedness for ear-mindedness, and how easy and how extensive becomes this matter of self-alienation! One extends the sphere of sense-perception to all the world, using vicariously the senses of all the peoples of the world.

We must not fail to remember that in the place of immediate sense-perception which fills almost the entire life of the savage or illiterate civilized person there comes to be a vicarious sense-perception wherein the human being verifies the sense-perception of all the world thru the little sphere of sense-perception in which he lives himself. This is the scientific power of a Humboldt, an Asa Gray, an Agassiz, a Huxley, or a Herbert Spencer, who all performed prodigies of observation, mostly of this vicarious kind, for they have learned best how to perceive the world thru the senses of all observers.

With this era of eye-mindedness we are entered on an era of discoveries. We may define our modern civilization since the discovery of America as a borderland civilization, and Shakespeare is the poet of the borderland. There is scarcely one of his plays that does not in one or more acts take its leading characters out of the civilization into the wild *Uitland* (or outer land). In *As You Like It* the forest of Arden becomes the chief resort; in *The Winter's Tale*, the wilds of Bohemia; in *The Tempest*, the far-off island in the still vexed Bermoothes; in *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, a wood outside of Athens; in *Cymbeline*, the rocky hills of South Wales. When Shakespeare was beginning to write, Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, and the great mariners of England had begun their exploration of the borderland and their struggle with the Spanish for the mastery of the new world.

This age of discovery is in a certain sense, too, a repetition of earlier ages in the unfolding of modern Europe. There was before it the era of the crusades in which all Europe gathered itself together for a mighty struggle with western Asia on its eastern frontier. This was an external crusade. After it came the internal crusade in which the European universities arose, and a great struggle began to master the thoughts of Asia and of the classic periods of Greece and Rome. Here was self-alienation, which ended in an enlargement of the mind of western Europe until it was at home not only in its immediate environment and local history, but also at home in the great world-movements of the preceding sixteen centuries. In the internal crusade, which ended in the building up of the great systems of theology within the Christian church thru the mighty thought of such men as Thomas Aquinas, Albertus Magnus, Bonaventura, and their compeers, the thought of Christendom overcame the attacks made upon its western or European idea by the oriental thought which moved at the bottom of Asiatic civilization.

The Anglo-Saxon race has continued to become more and more a cluster of nations that is active on the borderland of the world. With the industrial results of science and the application of the powers of nature to the subjugation of the elemental forces, it has been

joined gradually by the other races one after the other, until at present the home-staying Germans have learned the lesson and have taken an advanced position among the people who are to take possession of the earth in the interest of the highest civilization. Not a savage people but shall be put to school to learn the two lessons of civilization—first, how to conquer nature by means of machinery; second, how to unite one's own locality with all the rest of humanity, not only by commercial exchange of goods and by productive industry, but especially by intercommunication of experience and ideas.

A Massachusetts poet has stated this remarkable ideal, interpreting the words of the great Neoplatonist Proclus, who saw in the Osiris myth of the Egyptians a poetic image of the race of man on the earth. Osiris, the god, was killed and his body cut into pieces and spread abroad over the land, and the life in the plants and animals of Egypt seemed to him to be the body of Osiris cut up into separate individualities. Bronson Alcott, the poet, expressed the idea in this verse:

Man omnipresent is,
All round himself he lies
Osiris spread abroad
Upstaring in all eyes;
Nature his globed thought,
Without him she were naught;
Cosmos from chaos were not spoken
And God bereft of visible token.

Thus to the race which has become eye-minded the world becomes more and more a revelation of reason to man, and in general all knowledge becomes more and more self-knowledge, because thru self-alienation one comes to find his wider and wider self. Many people indulge their fancy as to the lines future progress in science and inventions will take. I have been greatly impressed with the discovery of Professor Langley, the head of the Smithsonian Institution. To Joseph Henry (his predecessor) we owe the telegraph and the telephone, so far as the scientific nucleus of the discovery is concerned. To Professor Langley I think the future will trace back the practical solution of the question of navigating the air. I mention this to show how the lines of future discovery must go toward bringing civilized people into closer communion, not merely by railroads and steamships, but by airships—toward the conquest of the borderland as we have discussed it this morning.

Self-alienation involves not only the journey outward from the self toward what is strange and foreign to him, but it involves the conquest of what is strange and foreign and the conversion of it into what is familiar. One must learn to make himself at home in what is abroad, and individualism must be carried over into socialism, using that word in its best sense.

This, too, is the line of development of freedom. We cannot conquer our borderlands and assimilate them except by elevating them into the civilization which we possess. We must make them to be as free as we are, and we must make their people as able to think and as able to observe nature; and we must make them as hungry for intercommunication with all the earth as we are.

It goes without saying that the borderlands of the world do not now possess this freedom, but it is the duty of the nations that possess the highest civilization to labor for the elevation of those people into productive industry—into learning with regard to nature and learning with regard to man. Hence, as I have said, while individualism develops thru education, it at the same time thru education makes the individual universal, so that the more free the race is, the more it participates in the life of all the races on the face of the earth. The people of every race and tongue must go to school to this highest ideal of education. Learn to command nature by means of science and learn to convert it to human uses. Each race must learn to know the most internal motives of all other peoples and to appreciate them at their true value. The grand vision of universal

tolerance, which has taken possession of our minds thru the words of President Eliot, is to become the reality of the new century. For this movement, which goes out to the borderlands and makes us cosmopolitan, has to develop perforce the principle of toleration. We can get no good from our fellow-men unless we approach them in the spirit of this principle. We must learn to find the good in our fellow-men. We must hold back our tendency to discover only what is bad. The change in our point of view will make us continually more helpful to others.

I close with my thesis, assumed at the beginning, namely, that our movement toward individualism is possible only in connection with a reverse movement from the individual toward what is universal, and the attainment of this by means of culture — by means of the increase of education of all kinds, especially of higher education.

TWO OPPORTUNITIES FOR IMPROVEMENT IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF GRADED SCHOOL SYSTEMS

LORENZO D. HARVEY, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION OF
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The necessity for improvement in the administration of graded school systems seems apparent, in view of the very general complaint that these schools are failing to secure adequate results, either in the acquisition of the most useful knowledge or in training for the development of power. No one knows better than those engaged in educational work that much of the criticism directed against the administration of our school systems is based on ignorance of the real conditions, and is therefore unjust. But it is true that those who have studied the school systems in this country most thoroly believe that in many cases they are failing to secure the highest results attainable. I shall not attempt to give detailed specifications as to the shortcomings of the schools, but shall indicate what seems to me to be an opportunity for improvement in existing conditions, even in the best of these systems of schools. It is claimed that the courses of many of our city schools are overcrowded, and that pupils are compelled to do more work than the results of such work seem to warrant. I do not believe that this overcrowding is so much the result of the incorporation of too many subjects in the course as it is the result of wasted time and energy on nonessentials in the course. An opportunity for reform, then, which seems to me to exist, is in the elimination of nonessentials, and the better co-ordination of essentials in order of time and in relation to the capacity of the pupils.

When the proposition for elimination of nonessentials is presented, the question arises: What are the essentials, and what are the nonessentials? This is a problem too large to be solved in detail in this paper, and probably too large for any one man to solve, but it is a problem urgently demanding solution. It is not my purpose to attempt its

solution here, but to indicate the proper order of procedure in case its solution is attempted. The first step is to determine the ends for which instruction and training are given in the graded schools; the second, what subjects, all things considered, are best to constitute the course of study adapted to these ends; and the third, what are the true purposes for which instruction and training are to be given in any single branch. With these purposes definitely and thoroly worked out, the next step is to make them clear, not only in the minds of the city superintendents and supervising principals, but in the mind of every grade teacher as well. These purposes must be formulated, not as glittering generalities, but in form and substance which can be justified on rational grounds. When such a formulation of the purposes of instruction in any given branch of the course of study has been made, there yet remains to be made such analysis of these general purposes as the teacher needs to put the instruction during any given recitation and the requirements for the next recitation on such a basis as to purpose as shall make that work a co-ordinated part of the entire work in such subject necessary to the complete realization of the general purpose. In other words, there must be a purpose on the part of every teacher, in every day's work, in every subject. This purpose must be so clear in the mind of the teacher that she can state it with definiteness and exactness, and show that it has a necessary place, and where that place is, in the working out of the general purpose. The success of the individual teacher's work depends primarily upon this definite idea and definite end for each day's work in the subject. It may very well happen that the teacher may have in mind a definite purpose in today's lesson, and may work skillfully and secure good work on the part of pupils for the accomplishment of that purpose, and yet the work be an utter waste of time, because the aim of the recitation has no place in the general purpose for which the subject is being taught. Instead of going in a straight line from the starting-point to the terminal point, the line of progress is a broken one, touching the straight line only at intervals—zigzagging across it and lugging in nonessentials, leaving out essentials, and making the entire work in the subject a thing of shreds and patches, with a resulting failure to realize the true purpose for which instruction in the subjects should be given.

If there be any reason for giving instruction in any subject in the course of study, it must be because that instruction is a necessary or desirable element in the education of the child. It cannot be justified, however, on the ground that it is desirable, if not necessary, until the other question is answered—whether or not some other instruction more desirable could not be substituted for it. To say that any work in the school has a place there because it is valuable is not sufficient. It must be more valuable than any other instruction which could properly be given at the same time, under existing conditions. This will indicate the

care that is necessary in formulating the purposes, and the necessity for detail in working out the specific aim, within these general purposes, for each day's work.

Am I wrong in assuming that there is not clearness of thought, and power to formulate definitely that thought, as to general and specific purposes in the teaching of any given subject in the graded schools? Assuming that every superintendent present is able to formulate to his own satisfaction, and on grounds which he can justify, the purposes to be realized in the teaching of any of the subjects in the course of study, does he find that his subordinate teachers are equally clear, not only as to these general purposes, but also as to the specific purpose or aim in each day's work? If so, it will be interesting at the first opportunity to test, first, himself and, second, the subordinate teacher. Let him undertake the task of formulating the general purposes which he can justify, on the ground that they are of more value in the teaching of that subject than any others which might be stated. When he has done this, then let him try the experiment of observing the grade teacher's work on that subject, and from his observation determine the specific aim which the teacher had in mind in the day's recitation, as appeared from the character of the work, and see whether he can find a place for that as a necessary part of what must be done in the working out of the general purpose. Let him see further if the aim of the day's work is properly related to what has gone before and what is to come after. When he has settled this in his own mind, from his observation of the teacher's work, and without questioning the teacher, then let him ask the teacher to state definitely what the aim in the recitation was, and ask her to justify it as having a necessary place at the time in the working out of the general purpose. When he has completed this experiment, let him try it with another, and another, in this subject, until he has passed thru all the grades in that subject. Let him then go over the results of his observation, to determine whether or not the work in each grade is the necessary work for those pupils at that time, in view of the pupils' present mental condition, for the proper working out of the general purpose before determined. If I mistake not, he will find much work which it will be difficult to justify as a necessary part of the general scheme. Let him then enter upon another line of investigation, more limited in its scope, but not less important. Let him ask his teachers to formulate for him, day after day, in the same subject, the specific aim in each recitation. He must not be satisfied with general statements, but must insist that the details as to what is to be taught, and what drill work is to be conducted, shall be given, and that these details shall appear in the work of the recitation. When this work has been continued sufficiently long for the teacher to be able to formulate easily and definitely her aims in each day's recitation, then ask her to show what part and place these daily aims have in the general purpose of the work. If the

superintendent begins these investigations with a thoro knowledge himself of what is required here, he will discover that a large number of his teachers have been working from day to day without any thought as to the part each day's work is to play in the final result, without considering whether it is necessary, or more valuable than any other work which might take its place, but simply going on, either from force of habit, by inertia, or following the text-book. The result of the investigation will be that, under close analysis, much of the work which the teacher is doing must be eliminated as not necessary for the true purpose for which the work is undertaken. This will not only eliminate much work which the teacher does outside the text-book, but it will eliminate much of the material from the text-book itself. Too many text-books have been made, not that they may serve wise ends in realizing the true purpose for which instruction in the subject is to be given, but rather to make a complete and logical presentation of the subject. The text-book has not been written for the pupil, but for the subject; and a text-book of this kind, followed closely by the teacher, results in a kind of teaching not best for the interests of the pupil.

The line of work thus far indicated will demand the most careful study and thought on the part of both superintendent and teacher, and in many cases it will prove a new line of study. Let it be granted that this work has been carried on in such a manner and for such a time as to secure ready and accurate formulation of general purposes in the study of any subject in the course, and also of the specific aims in each day's recitation. The net result will be to eliminate those portions of the work which have formerly been done, and which the formulation of purposes now shows to be unnecessary. A new line of investigation should now be taken up by the superintendent or supervising principal, viz., that of determining whether the work done day by day by the grade teacher is the work essential for the realization of the purposes determined upon, or whether some portion of the necessary work is being omitted, or work unnecessary is being done.

In order to solve these questions two things must be determined: First, what must be known or done in order that the purpose of the day's recitation may be realized? This must be determined independently of the pupil, and solely by a consideration of the nature and scope of the purpose. What knowledge does it demand? What training or drill is required? When this has been determined accurately, it is evident that everything which is unnecessary for the accomplishment of the definite purpose in mind has been eliminated as a nonessential, and as a matter of observation it will be developed that much has been eliminated from the work of the teacher which, without such an examination, would be done as a matter of course. In the formulation to be made here that necessary knowledge or activity which is most closely and intimately

related to the immediate end in view should be stated in detail, while that knowledge or activity more remotely related may be stated in more general terms. A little experience will convince the superintendent that the teacher needs to do considerable work along this line before clearness of thought and accuracy in determination, combined with facility in expression, can be attained by her. Persistent work, however, will show valuable results, which will encourage to still further effort. When skill has been developed here, the second line of observation on the part of the superintendent is to determine whether in each recitation the teacher, having her aim for the next recitation definitely formulated, and the knowledge and activity necessary for the realization of that aim also stated, proceeds, before the assignment of work for preparation by the pupils, to determine what of the knowledge already decided to be necessary the pupils now have, and what of the activities determined as essential they have sufficiently mastered; thus bringing out clearly what necessary knowledge and activity the pupil is to master for the next day's recitation.

Careful scrutiny by the superintendent will disclose that in the majority of cases this work is not adequately done by the teacher; that the teacher does not take a sufficient portion of the recitation period for this purpose, assigning the lesson hurriedly at the close, but with a vagueness which is only equaled by the vagueness in the pupil's mind as to what he is required to do, and as to what he already does know, or does not know. Too often the pupil assumes a knowledge of the work which he is expected to prepare, and so makes inadequate preparation.

If the work above indicated were thoughtfully done by the teacher, it would clarify her ideas and statements as to what the pupil is to master for the next recitation, and would also give the pupil definite knowledge as to what he did not know, or could not do, and what he would be expected to know and do on the morrow. The investigation will also disclose the further fact that an immense amount of time is wasted by the necessity of teaching over again what has been half taught, or learned, and by failure on the pupil's part to master required work because of lack of the related knowledge necessary to its mastery. He will find that the most serious objection on the part of the teacher to this preparation for the proper assignment of the lesson is that it takes too much time, and that not enough time can be given to the recitation proper. Further observation will disclose the fact that, were the lessons thoroly mastered, one-half of the time spent in the recitation could be saved for this work, were so much necessary, and that the recitation during the remaining half of the period would be far better and more complete than under the ordinary plan is secured thru the use of the entire period for that purpose. A few weeks' experimenting on this line of work, taking so much of a recitation period as may be necessary for the

purpose, or even taking all of it in order to prepare for the next day's recitation, will satisfy the progressive teacher and superintendent both as to quality of results and as to the amount of work mastered. The net result here will be the elimination of unnecessary work, greater clearness and definiteness of thought and statement on the part of the pupil, and such mental activity as will compel the bringing together in the pupil's mind of the new and the related old—an essential condition for the acquisition of knowledge.

These three lines of work put into operation will awaken the average teacher to a consideration of questions vital in any good teaching, but too often almost wholly ignored, and will result in the elimination of a large amount of work now being done, and which is entirely unnecessary, serving only to confuse the pupil, and render the little knowledge he does acquire fragmentary and unrelated. It will save time for work not now attempted, both as to scope and thoroughness. These conclusions are based, not simply on theory, but on experiment and observation.

The second opportunity for reform which I have to suggest is a very simple one, and yet one that is more far-reaching in its results than would at first thought appear. It is in relation to the mode of using the examination as a means of determining the pupil's fitness for promotion or graduation. I shall not consider the questions here, so often discussed, as to whether promotion should be made upon class standing, the teacher's judgment, the records of examinations, or a combination of all three. The particular point which I wish to consider arises whenever the examination is made an element in determining the pupil's fitness for promotion. Ordinarily some definite standing is fixed which the student is required to reach in his examination in order that his work may not be ranked as a failure. I think it is the experience of every superintendent that in many cases—in fact, most cases—when the teacher of a class makes the examination questions, she does it with the required standing vividly before her, and that, if her mental processes could be shown during the process of making the examination questions, it would appear that each question is determined by the probability of the members of the class being able to answer it so as to reach the required standing. It is also doubtless the experience of most superintendents, if they have carefully considered the matter, that, even when they make the questions themselves, the necessity of making them to fit the standing is kept before their consciousness. It is doubtless also the experience of superintendents that both they and teachers sometimes make sets of questions more difficult for pupils than they had imagined them to be, and with disastrous results, frequently leading to a supplementary examination after a little coaching, in order to make the records straight. It has probably fallen to the lot of some superintendents to observe that frequently, under the pressure of necessity for the promotion of a grade, the grading of the

papers is so toned up as to enable the teacher to give the requisite standings. In other words, to sum it all up, the teacher or superintendent is not free, by reason of existing conditions, to make a set of questions which shall not only test memory, but power and skill as well, thus having a value, not only for the purpose of testing, but, what is even more important, a high value in training. Many a teacher would like to ask a question in examination which would test the power of the pupil, putting him upon his mettle, and would do it but for the fact that she knows a rigid marking of the answer would likely place the standing below what is required.

The reform lies in the elimination of what seems to be this necessity for shaping the examination so that pupils may pass, rather than so it may be a valuable educational factor, and at the same time serve all the purposes of the test.

A very simple modification of the existing plan will accomplish this purpose. Instead of fixing a standing of 75, 80, or 85, which the student must reach in order to entitle him to promotion, make the class average in each examination the basic standing, and count as failure the work of any student whose standing in that examination falls, say, 20 per cent. below the class average. Where examinations are given as often as once a month, failure for two consecutive months should operate to place the pupil in a lower grade or section, for work in that subject. Even where the examinations are given with less frequency, but sufficiently often to prevent pupils being retained in classes when they are unable to do the work, the same plan may be adopted. Where the records of class work are kept, and are combined with the examinations in determining the pupil's readiness for promotion, they may be kept upon the same basis, and the pupil's relative standing in his class may be determined at the end of every month. The fact that a student has failed during a month's work, and that he sees before him the probability of being placed in a lower grade or section at the end of the next month, unless his work is improved in that subject, is a most powerful stimulus for better work; especially if parents are notified of the first failure and the consequences of a second failure in the same subject.

In connection with this plan, facility should also be offered for promotion of a student at any time from his present position to the next higher grade or section, in a single subject, if the quality of his work and his physical capabilities and mental capacity seem to warrant making the trial. In this way no apparent necessity rests upon the teacher for framing her questions solely with the purpose of enabling pupils to pass and making a record for herself. No necessity exists for improper marking of the papers in order to secure the same end. A powerful stimulus is presented to the pupil whose work is below the average for improvement, as well as opportunity for the stronger students to pass freely from one

section to another in any subject where the character of the work will warrant it. This keeps the school graded thruout the year, and at the end of the year no tremendous strain is necessary in order to determine the readiness of the class for promotion. Practically every pupil in the school will then be promoted, his work during the year having been so carefully graded that at the end of the year he is ready to go on with the class in which he then finds himself. The difficulties arising from changing from one class to another in a single subject are not so serious as might at first be supposed, as the first failure warns the student of the necessity for renewed effort to avoid the results of a second failure. The plan exalts the examination into the very highest order of mental effort, instead of making it a mere grind, a promotion machine. It encourages the teacher to present, thru the examination, opportunities for exercise of power and skill as well as memory, without making it necessary to add another examination, purely as a matter of form. The work of the superintendent will prevent any falling below the general standard of the work in any given grade. The fixed standing is artificial; the average standing is the natural one.

DISCUSSION

ALFRED BAYLISS, state superintendent of public instruction of Illinois.—The former "czar" of the House of Representatives, discussing an economical question the other day, closed by suggesting that "one of the best ways to meet any evil, and especially the wild discussion of it, is to sit down and reduce to details what we propose to remedy, and how in detail we propose to enact the remedy. This," he said, "will reduce the evil to its just terms, and reduce also the proposed remedy to actual practical life."

The paper just read is an illustration of the application of that very excellent rule to the discussion of a widespread and quite too real educational grievance.

Comparatively little of the adverse criticism of public education is based upon knowledge of evils known to exist, and reduced to detail, and accompanied by a proposed remedy, and "how in detail it is proposed to apply it." The paper, however, deals with two faults of the graded school system in precisely that way. The complaints are:

1. The courses of study are overcrowded, making the amount of work required of the children excessive, and out of proportion to the results attained.
2. The required standing (the pass mark) in school examinations is so artificial that the examinations do not examine. The examiner is not free to set questions that are calculated to test power and skill as well as verbal memory, or, in fact, to *test* anything.

To consider the second complaint first: The specifications are:

1. When a teacher frames a set of questions, she ordinarily does it with the required standing so definitely in her mind that the probability of her pupils being able to answer a given question determines the availability of that question for use at that time.
2. Honest introspection compels most superintendents to admit that they themselves are governed by the same limitations.
3. That this process of converting what ought to be an investigation of the contents of a child's mind into a preconceived estimate of, or even a *guess* at, them often results in a disaster which takes the form of a general "flunk."

4. The disaster is then repaired in one of two ways: (a) a supplemental examination, based upon a modified standard, or (b) a "toning" up of the ratings.

There we have a statement of an evil known to exist, and reduced to detail. It is a mistake based upon the erroneous point of view that *mere* power of reproduction is, in itself, a test of actual knowledge; and leaves out of the consideration the fact that one does not know a thing until he can reproduce it in the form of an application to some new use. It reduces the examination to a test of what the teacher has taught, or, rather, an inquiry as to how exactly a child remembers the mere form of what he has been taught, which is at most but part of the real question, which includes *how*, as well as *what*, has the child learned.

"Not what the master teaches, but how the pupil learns," is the true test of teaching.

The remedy proposed is a *variable*, in lieu of a fixed, arbitrary standard.

Considered merely with reference to the use of the examination as a means of ascertaining fitness for promotion (the limitation proposed by the paper), the standard suggested, viz., the average of the group, or class, easily appears more natural than the conventional standard, and we are led at once to coincide with the conclusion of the paper. It has the distinct advantage of liberating the teacher and leaving her free to take a "proof" of the whole work actually done. And, inasmuch as a regular promotion means remaining with the group or grade, this is the rational test; for the theory of the graded school is that children of approximately the same degree of mental power and skill should be taught and trained together.

The incidental advantage referred to—that this plan would facilitate the promotion of strong pupils in single subjects, and the reverse—seems of quite equal importance. No two minds are ever, at any stage of growth, quite alike. The rate of growth is not, and cannot be made, uniform. Our method of administration must necessarily recognize this obvious and obtrusive fact. The economy of class instruction depends upon finding as many of the common points of contact as possible, but the variations cannot be lost sight of or neglected. It is not enough—admitting the possibility—to "grade" a school once a year, nor even every half-year, or every "term." It should be kept graded by a continuous process, as gentle and as natural in its operations as growth itself; a process which shall keep in mind, not only the "average" boy, but the bright boy and the "dull" boy as well; a process which includes equal rights for all. To this end the examination, rationally used, may certainly be made to contribute.

If Superintendent Harvey can bring the principals and superintendents of Wisconsin to his point of view, the question whether promotions shall depend upon the record of class work, or the teacher's judgment, or the final examination, need be no longer mooted in that state. For the examination will be remanded to its true place, as an inquiry—useful as a guide to the teacher when occasion requires—as a test of the accuracy of acquired knowledge, as a means of training in correct form, and as an antidote to the slipshod carelessness which makes so many of the graduates of our high schools thorns in the flesh of the long-suffering college professors, and discounts their immediate value for practical purposes when they fall into the hands of the business-man.

But as an agency of educational life and interest and growth the examination must yield to the oral recitation.

And the charge brought against the method of the recitation is the more serious of the allegations contained in the paper under discussion.

Charge: The course of study is overcrowded. The results are not commensurate with the work and worry involved and required.

Specification: This overcrowding is caused by the incorporation of nonessential things, and the process seems to be cumulative.

There is a well-known attorney-at-law in southern Illinois, who once described himself as the ablest lawyer in his section of the state. "How do you prove that?" said a bystander. "Don't have to prove it," he answered; "I confess it."

I take it that, in this company, the charge and specification need only to be stated to be admitted. Indeed, this body has been pleading guilty to both for several years. What are we going to do about it? has been the question recurring over and over again.

The remedy proposed by the paper is:

1. Eliminate the nonessentials.
2. Correlate the essentials (*a*) in order of time, and (*b*) in relation to the capacity of the pupils.

We are concerned only with this proposed remedy. In the elimination of nonessentials a certain blind movement was discernible prior to the advent of the Committee of Fifteen. An up-to-date high-school girl who should chance to meet a simple, a compound, a perfect, and a complementary repetend, coming four abreast down the road on a 1900 wheel, wouldn't know one from the other, and, if told the family name, would probably say that they were people she had never heard of before. The art of decomposing fractions is as dead as the Connecticut rule for partial payments. Single and double position are on the same dusty shelf as barleycorns and ells Flemish. Alligation, continued fractions, and duodecimals are all defunct, and there is talk of transferring longitude and time to the geographies. The maker of a most excellent modern arithmetic stood before a body of teachers the other day, in the capitol building of Illinois, and persuaded them that the old-fashioned complex fraction is a relic of barbarism, by simply

asking whether they ever had occasion to ascertain the cost of a ton of coal @ $\frac{7}{41} \frac{41}{3} \frac{3}{53}$ of a

dollar per cwt. The distinguished county superintendent of this cosmopolitan county is said to have canvassed the business-men of Chicago in vain to find one who had any demand whatever for greatest common divisors in his business, and so he is more than half inclined to put them, too, in the left-hand column, among the nonessentials to be canceled pretty soon.

Hesse Homburg, Hesse Darmstadt, Hesse Cassel, and all the other Hesses and Hessians are as completely eliminated from the geographies; and the time which used to be spent in learning them, and the names of hundreds of black spots on the maps, and the like, is now given to real or imaginary excursions into distant localities.

So with other subjects. In reading, time has somehow been found, so that publishers seem to think it profitable to offer whole pieces of literature — many as good as *The Lady of the Lake*, *Ivanhoe*, *The House of the Seven Gables*, or even *The Essay on Burns*, in lieu of the scraps of the conventional "reader." The language teacher has replaced "Spring," "Happiness," "Perseverance," "Friendship," and the other old familiar themes by the more natural topics suggested by the geography, the history, and the nature study.

While this is both true and commendable, it can hardly be said that the essentials of a school course of study, and the order of procedure, have been found and authoritatively stated — what subjects are best, and the true purpose of each. Moreover, education is a progressive science, and the true statement today might be incomplete tomorrow. The Committee of Fifteen should have been a continuous body.

But with such a statement authoritatively worked out and accepted, with the nonessentials ruthlessly eliminated, we have still before us the main problem of the paper.

The nonessentials being eliminated, and the essentials formulated, and the true purpose of each, it is demanded that they shall be *known*, not only by supervisors of all grades, but by the working teachers as well. The teacher must not only know her purpose in each day's work, but she must know it in its relation to the whole course of study, and know it so well that the purpose of each lesson shall be clearly in her consciousness as she does it — so well that, if occasion required, she could state it in terms, and justify it as the right thing for her to be doing at that particular time, *to the exclusion of all other things*. And the supervisor must not only know it as well as this, but he must be able, by

mere inspection, to recognize a given piece of work while it is in progress, as a necessary and co-ordinated part of the general purpose.

That "every superintendent is able to formulate to his own satisfaction, and on grounds that he can justify, the purposes to be realized in the teaching of any of the subjects in the course of study," is, when confined (as it is by the paper) to those here present, a very genial assumption, but, if made too general, it would become a violent one. As an ideal, however, it may not be too much to require of the supervisor that *he*, at least, should be a skilled workman.

But how about the grade teacher? Under all the circumstances as they are, and are quite likely to remain far into the future, is not the demand so high as to be out of proportion?

Aristotle and Lincoln—the wisest of the ancients and the most "practical" of the moderns—both estimated education as the most difficult of all problems. Lord Bacon admitted that "the art of well delivering the knowledge we possess is among the secrets left to be discovered by future generations." We have not yet found it. Such progress as has been made we owe to the continuous efforts of a long line of philosophical thinkers. The problem is not yet so far solved that we can even agree upon a statement of the things to be taught, and the general method. The paper itself opens with a confession that the separation of essentials from nonessentials, urgently demanded, is a problem too large for any one man.

Does it not, then, ask too much of the working teacher? Can we hope, very long before the distant pre-millennial days at least, to realize on such a demand?

The average life of a teacher is probably about five years. Twenty to 25 per cent. are recruits every year. Probably less than 10 per cent. begin their service with such training as the normal schools—themselves, the best of them, confessedly in a nascent condition, while some are but little better than the average high school—can supply. That the average term of service will be greatly lengthened is not a reasonable expectation, as long as nearly all of the working teachers in the graded schools are women. It ought not to be. Even supposing the ratio of normal-school-trained teachers to increase, until, in time, none shall be allowed to begin service without such training—some study of the things to be taught from the point of view of the teaching process, and some practice under skilled direction and oversight—even then the degree of insight into the problem of education demanded by the paper seems more than a reasonable expectation.

Let any superintendent, over forty-five years of age, who thinks he has it in this degree, test himself in the matter of time. How long did it take? How much sooner could it have been acquired, had the problem of the paper been distinctly stated to him that Friday night, at the end of his first week, when he went home, limp and discouraged, half tempted to turn back, even after he had put his hand to the plow?

Is not the degree and breadth of insight demanded by the paper more than a reasonable expectation of the average teacher? If, continuing in the service, after many years of experience, she attain it, and, at the same time, retain a modicum of the hopeful enthusiasm which she brought from the high school, or the training school, is not that a great deal? During these growing years she is at least living, in obedience to the Froebelian injunction, *with the children*—*growing* with them, as she finds, under the guidance of the broader vision of her supervisor, their powers and interests, and ministers day by day to the need of the hour.

From the teachers' point of view, then, the difficulty is a double-headed one. One head is a condition, inherent in the fact that the great majority of the working teachers must be at all times, under our system, immature, and that they will not remain in the work long enough to reach the point of efficiency demanded by the paper. The other head is a theory—the theory of pedagogical freedom. We must eliminate the nonessentials, and we must agree upon the essentials, says the paper—after declaring that the

problem is too large for any one man, and not forgetting, doubtless, that fifteen good men and true tried it once with but measurable success.

Chicago, it has been alleged, is considering the advisability of putting analysis and parsing in the limbo of the nonessentials of grammar, but permitting those teachers who demur to the classification, and consider those exercises to be, not only good, but "more valuable than any other instruction which could properly be given at the same time, under existing conditions," to continue to use them. But Chicago is *sui generis*. Most superintendents, it is to be feared, would say: "Let us conform to the course of study agreed upon."

A superintendent says to a primary teacher: "These children seem to like noise, bright colors, and striking costumes. The military instinct seems to be exerting itself. Let us drop Hiawatha now, and utilize the story of Darius. Let them study Persian civilization. Temper their self-assertion thru and by the lesson that the power to obey precedes fitness to command. Teach them that truthfulness is the soldier's virtue, and that the soldierly quality of courage can be brought to bear upon their daily tasks—and all that sort of thing." But the teacher says: "I think the next step should be Kablu, or Cleon, or Horatius;" and gives—not being "on compulsion"—some of the reasons which are as plenty as blackberries in August. Who shall decide around which center best to group the instruction which must be "more valuable than *any* other instruction which could properly be given at that time, under existing conditions"—the teacher who is "next to" the children, or the supervisor of primary grades; the one who knows the whole plan and purpose better, or the other who knows better the existing conditions?

In brief, the difficulty of this phase of the problem is but an aspect of the old clergyman's difficulty—it lies entirely in "the application of it."

The paper, then, as I read it, presents an ideal none too high for the supervisor; but which, as a working hypothesis for the grade teacher, is subject to some limitations.

I submit, as a corollary: No man (or woman) should be permitted to undertake the supervision of education who has not had considerable practice in the art, been liberally instructed in its theory, and obtained some insight into its philosophy.

THE TRAIL OF THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT

AARON GOVE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DISTRICT NO. ONE, DENVER, COLO.

To follow the trail of the city superintendent of schools tramping backward is not difficult, but the traces are faint when one reaches the beginning, sixty years ago. A little path had its origin about 1839 at Providence, R. I., upon which traveled Nathan Bishop. Another path that helped to mark the road more plainly started with Professor S. S. Greene, at Springfield, Mass., in 1840. Later, in 1847, the main trail was joined by one from Columbus, O., where Dr. A. D. Lord was made the first city superintendent of schools in that state. The same year Rickoff, at Portsmouth, and Leggett, at Akron, joined the party.

As the school committee—the name of the body elected to take the direct oversight of common schools in New England—was changed in character, because the people seemed to demand business-men as well as

ministers for counsel and direction, the duties of the committee became quite too heavy for active business-men to perform; besides, the fact that amateurs, chronic reformers, and men of leisure lacked efficiency was apparent then as now. Out of this came the demand for expert supervisors.

The duties of the office were evidently dimly defined in the minds of the people of the time, but the main thought obtained, viz., that able men, willing to give counsel and exercise veto power upon proposed measures, would accept such responsibility and serve on directory boards only when the execution could be placed in an office created for that purpose. Once established, the office of the city superintendent became helpful, and very soon necessary.

The trail of the superintendent, formed by the little paths in New England and Ohio flowing into one, as the brooks join to make the main stream, has become broad and solid, but not straight. Windings, curves, crooked places, right-angles, and numerous turnings back upon itself are seen in looking over the road traveled. The embryo germ-thought planted in the heads and hearts of Greene, Philbrick, Wells, Mann, Rickoff, Stephenson, Jones, Hagar, and Newell has led these men thru devious ways, against tremendous obstacles, and over the trail, by the sacrifice of almost infinite trial with vigorous opposition, in contest and in conflict to the end. One and another languished, fell, died, and are buried by the side of the road. Each traveled his own gait, with rations and blanket only, never knowing, altho caring much, where each year's tramping would end.

The deaths of great men in national and political history are commemorated by song, story, and memorial days. Only in secluded family circles, and midst the personal friends, are the works and lives of heroic schoolmasters recorded and remembered.

The trail of the city superintendent has been followed persistently during the sixty years by very few pilgrims; of the hundreds that have struck it most have left it for another prospect. The roll of names is short. Various callings have contributed to the gang on the trail; commercial, mercantile, professional, and industrial vocations each has sent representatives to join the tramping throng.

The causes for striking the trail and the reasons for leaving it are well in sight. Inadequate preparation has been potent in forcing desertion. Neither scholarship nor executive ability alone has been found ample for permanent occupation. The requisite power and wisdom of the city superintendent is identical with that of the competent man in industrial, commercial, or diplomatic life, with that common necessary attribute in each and all—adequate special preparation. A college senior is poor material for an executive of schools as well as for industrial or mercantile establishments.

Men in middle age, of ability to measure themselves, enter with hesitation and lack of confidence upon an undertaking with which they have not in early manhood been familiar. Superintendents of schools are not born, but made—made exactly as are men in other lines of life, by training, discipline, and experience.

Schools of philosophy and pedagogy cannot be seen along the earlier trail. Their establishment and conduct is one of the later improvements upon which we congratulate ourselves. The chairs of pedagogy which the colleges have hastened to endow are occupied by such talent as has never before entered the work of training teachers. The value of the product can scarcely be overrated, and yet we are compelled to recognize that some material is sent to that factory out of which supervisors can never be made. More than experimentation in a pedagogical college is required. One of our eminent philosophers, Professor James, has written: "A knowledge of such psychology as this can no more make a good teacher than a knowledge of the laws of perspective can make a landscape painter of effective skill." It is an added truth to that other one so hesitatingly learned, that graduation from a normal school is no earnest of a teacher.

Among the 625 city superintendents today on the trail, from cities of eight thousand or more people, are men and women of all ages and colors, and of such varied antecedents as to preclude a reference to them as a profession. The practices, expenditures, customs, and environments of the respective cities that they represent compel as varied and various administrations.

But the trail has become broad, even if crooked. Its sidelines are becoming more and more evident. The bureau of education, embarrassed by its limited appropriation and its humble official position as an adjunct of the Department of the Interior, has been, thru its reports, one great factor in unifying the differences in the work of city superintendents. The hindrances imposed upon the bureau have been overcome to almost a superhuman extent by the one and, as I believe, the only man competent for this great work. When the work of Commissioner Harris shall be comprehended in all its fullness, we shall wonder that we lived during his time without a complete realization of the power of this great man.

A second factor, great in another way, has been and is the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association. The annual three-days' meeting, if, according to its traditions, it can be held to business, not picnicking, will accomplish the unifying of the methods and procedure of city superintendents. The trail is to become less and less crooked, the pilgrims are to tramp more regularly, and the forward movement is to be more even. Looking backward, the halts and windings have been many, and while the intense, over-ardent reformers have for a day threatened an upset, this department has contributed largely to prevent serious overthrows.

From the writing school in the forenoon and the reading school of the afternoon in old Boston, with its imported Lancastrian system, has come what we have in this the sixtieth year.

We have fought, bled, and died with the no-recess plan; the formal teaching of moral science in all grades; grammatical diagramming; the monitorial system; departmental instruction (which has lately been lifted from the grave and its ghost rehabilitated); teaching patriotism perfunctorily; self-government (also recently resurrected); concert recitation, and teaching geography by singing (how the latter raged like a roaring whirlwind, while from hundreds of schoolrooms came the doggerel song!); counting in penmanship; individual instruction (which has ever been the chief work of the competent teacher); counting one for a comma, two for a semicolon, three for a colon, four for a period, etc.

In teaching reading, the battle has been on with the Pollard system, the phonetic system, and large editions of books printed for a great city with Leigh's phonetic type; script before print; the word, sentence, leaflet, and analytic method (the latter taking about six weeks for each page of the reading book).

In arithmetic we have passed thru the Grube method; the ratio method by charts (introduced and discarded by Pestalozzi in the last century); the ratio method by scales of weight and yard-sticks; a later ratio method by blocks; the lightning method by Webb, and others.

In music we have had the tonic-sol-fa method, involving a changed system of writing music; and we have lately introduced the "primary trot," being a mechanical running by primary pupils about the school-room; and also object-teaching.

May I indulge in a digression here to call attention to that incomparable report to the National Educational Association read at Harrisburg in 1865? We are fond of our modern committees of five, of ten, of fifteen, because the character of the membership makes their reports so valuable. Let me read the names of that committee of seven, whose report, drawn up by S. S. Greene, together with the remarks of Principal E. A. Sheldon (he who was the apostle of object-teaching), puts into the shadow much of the nature-study and field-work instruction of today. They were: Barnas Sears, S. S. Greene, Josiah L. Pickard, J. D. Philbrick, David N. Camp, Richard Edwards, Calvin S. Pennell.

We have had Mr. Charles F. Adams with his Quincy discovery. Some of us were active in those days. And when that old hero, Daniel B. Hagar, wrote to me that he would go from Salem to Quincy and write me all about it, I waited for the report of his visit. Like all of our correspondence, this was helpful and comforting to an ambitious superintendent. He said: "I found nothing new, but I found new combinations, and a genius for work and enthusiasm in the superintendent that was helpful and inspiring." He urged me to go and see, even if I was two thousand

miles away. This conclusion, given at that time by Mr. Hagar, has been verified in the years that have followed.

From these innovations and out of these proposals we have to some extent accepted the amendments; in some cases we have taken nearly the whole, finding it good; in others, but a little, ever trying and sifting, holding to that which has been practically demonstrated as of value. A large part, as you and I know, has been discarded as the vagaries of over-zealous but misguided and imprudent but persistent innovators. These people are good to have about us, and may be encouraged to spend their energies like the inventor in material things who seeks for perpetual motion. Another class, however, outside of school circles is to be condemned and cast out—the iconoclasts, who never plan a proposal for aught new, or for a substitute, but who thru the press, platform, and pulpit are everlastingly tearing down and demolishing and condemning.

The activity of the present is unprecedented. Experiments are proposed, and that superintendent who hesitates in entering upon them is temporarily lost. One of the most pronounced of these experimental movements is the attempt to construct laws that relieve people and boards of education of not only execution of school laws, but of framing them. In haste to eliminate evils attending school supervision consequent upon interference from incompetent councils, measures are urged placing much power in the office of the superintendent, with few limitations.

In reaching for the desirable, as is the custom of Americans, we are overreaching. It is not likely that any American community will for a long time submit to the administration of any public office with limitations such as are repugnant to their antecedents and training. The personal-liberty idea and the government-by-the-people idea are a part of the unwritten as well as the written constitution of Americans. Even the government by the whole people has never been found expedient and has never been the practice, fortunately for our country the minority of the people have ever, and for safety must ever, govern. A minority of the 75,000,000 make and enforce the laws for the majority.

It is unnecessary to decide whether or not the schools of a city can be most successfully conducted by one man or by a group of men; the former method is impossible, and must continue to be until the sentiments of the people become less democratic. Were an elected board of experts within reach, the outcome would have good promise. But a board of educational experts in America at present, if called together, would sit in discussion seventy-seven years and then adjourn disagreeing.

There *is* no authority for us. Each man is bound to trek upon his own domain. The reports of the bureau do not assume to be authoritative, but to give information only. Hall, Parker, Butler, Soldan, Maxwell, Sabin, and the rest, however much they may deserve it, wear no

judicial ermine. We listen to the theories of the doctors, and are compelled to discard very many of them as impracticable or extravagant. The superintendent who accepts too soon the results of an experiment trifles with the children's greatest interests and wrongs the people whom he serves.

The appearance and active participation of scores of young men — some of them brilliant, some scholars, some callow, but all honest — add to the educational ranks such vigor and forcefulness as were never before known. The list of names now in the pedagogical field comprises a kind of men of power and thought that never before looked toward the school and the training of children. This promises an outcome for the product of the elementary schools far better than the country has hitherto known. Because professors of pedagogy are made in a year, out of all sorts of material, by some institutions, and turned loose to prey upon us and preach inchoate doctrines, is no cause for anxiety. If some of them do become earnest over adolescence, and the bacteria found under pupils' finger-nails, and the curves of the lines of fatigue, and danger from common drinking-cups, and common property in pencils and books, they are sure either to learn as they follow the trail, or, what sometimes is better, fall out. Such conditions are a part of all advance movements.

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Without question the greatest problem today is how best to administer the public-school interests of a city. The same problem in a field but little different confronts the student of municipal government. The method of the constitution and the selection of a school-governing authority appear as the initial proposition. Shall the people elect, and how; at large or by wards? Shall the directory, as in municipal governments, be changed all at one time? Shall the board be appointed by the executive of the city as in New York and Chicago, or by the courts as in Philadelphia, or elected by the people as in Boston and St. Louis? Shall the board be subservient in financial conduct to the municipal government as in Boston, or independent of the city officials as in St. Louis and many smaller western cities?

The history of the last two years or more leaves no doubt of the interest and even anxiety of the American community as to the direction of public schools. From our great metropolis down thru the secondary cities is found an agitation, an unrest, as to the conduct of this quasi-public corporation. Chicago, Detroit, and Indianapolis had their "innings" before their respective legislatures last year, with different results. New York had set the pace the preceding winter, with a result that is believed to be an advance in efficiency. The legislatures at Lansing and at Springfield looked with disfavor upon carefully prepared bills for the schools of their chief cities. The press tells us that divided counsel among the promoters was the chief cause of defeat; and yet we

can scarcely say that defeat was not for the ultimate good. A prominent and, as before mentioned, objectionable feature of this proposed legislation was the increased and quite unlimited power for the superintendent. This latter was too radical a measure to be readily accepted.

The Indianapolis law deserves more than passing notice; first, because it was conceived and prepared by eminent and experienced schoolmen; second, because, led in a way not to arouse opposition by a united body of schoolmaster and superintendent promoters, the legislature passed and the governor signed the most remarkable school bill yet recorded. So quietly has this been done, and so promptly and quietly has the new régime been initiated, that little public notice outside Indiana seems to have been given to it. At present it promises far better school administration than has yet obtained in the country, and yet, as "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," we must wait and see. It is certain that Indianapolis has improved on Cleveland, the pioneer in special school laws for cities. After some study and review of the three bills for Detroit, for Chicago, and for Indianapolis, one is compelled to believe that the bill for Indianapolis is the best, and the outcome, so far, is a verification of that belief.

The whole matter is an evidence of great activity thruout the country in the determination of the people to place the control and government of schools as far as possible beyond the reach of the baneful practices of the municipal governments of America. Earnest men, enthusiastic to right a wrong, usually go too far and ask too much. One feature usually presented—absolute government by one man—*must* be a mistake when carried to its ultimate extent. It is unlikely that any one man is competent to direct, control, and be the complete manager of a city school system. However great his ability, accurate his judgment, quick his apprehension, long his experience, and extensive his general scholarship, he is still one, and only one; the wisdom of the one needs to be supplemented by the counsel of others.

On the other hand, it must be conceded that a material difference lies between the practical administration of the affairs of a public and of a private corporation. In the case of the latter, often immense financial considerations, the manipulation of vast machinery, the necessity of effective and prompt action—sometimes approaching the heroic, as in great labor strikes—demand eminent organizing and executive power; while the accountability of the superintendent, as well as his responsibility, is always to a small, intelligent, and interested directory; one constituted only for the single object of financial gain, totally free from political or social issues. Interference by individual stockholders is not tolerated. The efficiency of the administration depends upon the superintendent himself, under such limitations as his board prescribes. Prompt action is always, not only possible, but obligatory. His forces are

all concentrated upon the matter in hand ; episodes, side issues, the press, the public, and the owners are impotent to dissipate his powers or hamper his plans.

But the school superintendent who, with competent counsel added to his own expert ability, constructs a course of study, condemns the work of a poor teacher, objects to the engagement of inferior talent, frowns upon the purchase of unnecessary apparatus, or, what is even more threatening, recommends the substitution of a better text-book for a poor one, understands full well that, however unanimous may be the support of his board, many taxpayers, as well as mercantile and commercial interests, are sure to take a hand either to forward or prevent the execution of whatever plans he may devise. The inevitable letter to the press, over the anonymous signature of "Taxpayer," is a reminder that the people propose to allow their representatives on the school board to act their will only when it coincides with that of the individual opinion—a condition, of course, over which the superintendent of private corporations has never to worry.

And so one has a right to assume that, in addition to the power and skill of the superintendent of great industries, the superintendent of schools needs another qualification—that of mollifying and educating a great and not always prudent or well-informed constituency.

The title of the office, "superintendent of schools," is no misnomer, but it is submitted that the term "assistant superintendent of schools" does not sufficiently indicate the duties of that office, and is an unfortunate designation. Our Canadian neighbors have a better name, "inspector." An assistant superintendent of schools is not needed in any administration; one superintendent is enough, and all that can perform the proper duties of the place. The office needs assistants who inspect; in fact, that is what assistant superintendents now do, or ought to do.

I know there is not much in a name, but I would establish a superintendent with a corps of inspectors whose reports would be the basis for changes, appointments, and conduct of the entire system—men appointed for expert ability along different lines, who would do their work along that line, whose office would be in dignity second to none, and whose counsel would be the controlling counsel, while the superintendent would do the directing and executing.

The trail of the city superintendent of schools has been narrow and crooked. Today it is wide, and is to be fairly straight, so that the recruits need have little doubt by day or by night as to where the trail lies.

The throng on the trail will stay there, and wild-eyed reformers with their, to them original, discoveries, altho resurrected from the last century, will fail to decoy the prudent superintendent. Sticking to what one

knows, avoiding experiment and the chasing of brightly colored will-o'-wispes, will make those who stick to the trail carry themselves well to the end, and the monument shall be erected in sight of all who pass thereafter.

THE SUPERINTENDENT IN SMALL CITIES

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This topic has been discussed frequently in the meetings of the department and in other educational gatherings. It has been the subject of many articles in magazines and educational reviews. So much has been said and written on it that I dare not hope to present anything original in this paper. Perhaps, however, the importance of the subject may pardon the reiteration of permanently valuable principles, and a review of the requirements, powers, and duties of an office whose dignity and responsibility are growing daily.

The superintendent of schools was practically unknown fifty years ago, and sixty years ago was non-existent. His office has been logically evolved with the quite original system of American public-school education. Now almost every city and a large proportion of the villages have such an officer. The earlier superintendents were often chosen without reference to educational qualification or fitness, being selected for personal or political reasons, and being agents or executive officers of their respective boards or committees. Many of those who eventually became efficient officers succeeded at the expense of the pupils who formed subjects of experiment. The term of office was usually short, and the records of many cities show a list of early superintendents of schools who held office one or two years each.

The mode of election has become settled, so that a superintendent is now chosen by a board of education and very rarely by general election. The term of office has been lengthened. Many of the city and village superintendents now in office have occupied their positions a long term of years. The duties of the office were very indefinite, but have become fairly established by practice, and fixed by formulated rules or by legislation. It appears, furthermore, that most of the present incumbents were professional teachers of large experience before they were elected to the higher position.

This certainly indicates a movement in the right direction, for a superintendent of schools ought to be a teacher primarily, and to have had the experience and knowledge which can only come from actual work in the class-room. I do not know that the statutes of any state prescribe the qualifications which a superintendent of schools must possess. But such

legislation has been proposed and not unlikely will prevail eventually in many states.

If the state demands a minimum of qualifications for its teachers, how can it ask less of those who rank above the teachers, directing and supervising their efforts? The superintendent of any system of schools ought to be broadly educated and to know something of the many branches of instruction. He will have special teachers teaching and supervising, who will know the details of their topics better than it is possible for him to know them; but he should have such a comprehensive view of the whole field that he may give valuable suggestions even to them.

He should know psychology, which in recent years has played an important part with all students of education, and should be conversant with the various methods of instruction in all subjects. He should be conversant, not only with the history of education, but with general history as well. Only the students of history can appreciate the accumulated riches which have become the heritage of the race, and through what struggles the evolution and freedom of mankind have been accomplished.

The history of education enables us to understand the intellectual growth of ages, and how, often spasmodically, but nevertheless with a certain degree of continuity, the youth has been fitted for an ever-widening field of intellectual and physical activity. He who knows the conditions under which they wrought comprehends the results attained by the great teachers and educational reformers, who from the time of Socrates have contributed to the uplifting of humanity, and can properly estimate the bearing of their work on the subsequent ages, and that ultimate product which we call our present civilization.

He should know the history of school organization, how it has developed to its present form, and the changes which are still proceeding. He should have an insight into school administration as relating to the relation of the board of education to the teachers, of the teachers to the pupils, and of the whole system to the community. A knowledge of the principles of school law is a necessary part of his equipment.

All this means that a broad, general education is not enough, and that the superintendent ought to have special preparation for his work. All of us want the occupation of the teacher classed with the learned professions, and recognized as one of them in dignity and respect. All the other professions demand elaborate special preparation for whoever is to become a member of their ranks.

The state of New York prescribes a minimum of requirements for students of law or medicine, and subsequently four years of special training before entering practice. It seems to me that no less should be asked of the chief officer of a school system; that his theoretical education should be obtained prior to his taking office, and not as the result of

years of experiment with teachers and pupils. The latter course may be cheap for him, but it is sadly expensive and unjust to many innocent people.

I believe we shall have the highest quality of supervision and school administration only when the superintendent shall have been educated as a professional expert and is recognized as such. In the largest cities the duties of administration, organization, and supervision have been differentiated so far that all the attainments necessary for a smaller town need not be united in one person. This specialization undoubtedly gives the highest type of service. But, as has been pointed out by Superintendent Gove in the *Educational Review*, the number of large cities with elaborate, classified organization is small compared with those where all departments of the educational system are united under the control of one man, whose duties are necessarily exceedingly diverse.

A somewhat exhaustive inquiry from the cities of many states, made a few years ago, seems to prove conclusively that boards of education are composed, as a rule, of the best men in their respective communities, devoted to the interests of the schools under their control, and free from mercenary motives. If this be accepted as a statement of fact, the conclusion readily follows that a fit and worthy superintendent, elected at the pleasure of the board, will hold his office for a long term.

I do not care to discuss the question of tenure of office here much beyond expressing the purely personal opinion that the superintendent should be elected to serve during the pleasure of the board. I am convinced that teachers who have served a term of trial, and whose services have been approved, should hold office for life, or until removed for physical or mental disability. They ought not to be subject to the worry and distress incident to a periodical election. But the superintendent is the executive officer of the board, and if the board shall be dissatisfied with his administration, it appears reasonable that it shall be within its power to effect an immediate change. This view of continuous employment in one case and not in the other is entirely consistent with the most advanced ideas and practice of civil service in the nation, state, or city.

It is somewhat difficult to define exactly the powers and duties of the superintendent in a small city. Many questions will come to him for decision, and many things must be done outside of what anybody would conceive to be stated obligations. In many places he will be called upon to perform duties that should not be incumbent on him and which might be done better by somebody else. He should not be expected to serve as the secretary or bookkeeper of the board, nor serve as a distributing agent for books and supplies. His work should take a higher range than that of clerk or accountant for a small corporation. He should not be the financial agent of the board, because he would bear a responsibility

that should be borne by the board itself, whose judgment on questions of finance is as a rule better than his own.

The public schools receive more popular criticism on the score of expense than for all other reasons. Many people think of the schools only as the cause of endless taxation, and attack the school appropriations first, tho there may be boundless waste in other departments. Whether their criticisms be right or wrong, let the board, and not the superintendent, bear this burden. He should not be required to examine and license teachers, for reasons which I shall presently endeavor to state.

In the ultimate analysis there remains only one object for which the schools exist; that is the pupil. Everything else has disappeared. Buildings, equipment, boards of education, teachers, are all means directed to raising the pupil to his proper position as a factor of our complex civilization. The teacher is not only the most important of these means, but easily outweighs all the rest. Garfield's oft-quoted aphorism in which he defined the American university gives homely expression to the comparative value of instruction, and the subordination of everything else to the teacher's influence. Fine buildings, elaborate equipment, refined courses of study, are all subsidiary to the teacher. Then what discriminating care should be exercised in determining who the teacher shall be! Who shall decide? Who should possess the judgment, fidelity, and independence to discharge this high trust? The superintendent. He should either have the absolute power of appointment of teachers or should nominate them subject to confirmation by the board. In any event the board should not have the power to appoint without his approval. If he has been selected for his professional attainments and experience, he knows the quality and kind of people he wants, and should be the judge of their special fitness.

A board composed of men engaged in other professions or general business has not the slightest competency to select teachers, and ought not to claim such a prerogative, but should delegate the matter wholly to the superintendent. It is not consistent with any theory of exalted civil service to combine the examining and appointing power in the same individual. This is clearly recognized, and a separation has been marked in the appointment of civil-service examining boards removed as far as possible from all exterior influences and having no power except to pass on qualifications. A few of the larger cities have special examining boards that perhaps meet the case. In most places it would be better if examinations for teachers' certificates were held only by a department of education, and normal-school diplomas and state licenses only were accepted. This should be a minimum which any locality might supplement by special examinations. I take this opportunity to say that it seems to me unfortunate that the certificates and normal-school diplomas of one state are not valid in another state. The state license of Pennsylvania may be

worthless in New York or Ohio, and *vice versa*. The states do not thus discriminate against each other in the other learned professions.

An attorney-at-law practicing in Ohio moves to New York, and is admitted to practice in the courts of the latter state on motion, as a matter of course. The same rule generally prevails in both law and medicine. Why should not the same professional courtesy prevail with teachers? Their studies have often been as arduous and protracted as those of the lawyer and the doctor, and they usually continue to be quite as diligent students thru life.

By common consent the superintendent prepares the course of study, and too often, I fear, he tries to make it original and to incorporate in it some of his own personality. Or he pursues the plan of modern authors in Irving's *Art of Book-Making*, selecting a little here and a little there from various courses of study, and has a whole as incongruous as Horace pictures in *Ars Poetica*. The courses of study of different cities show amusing variety and frequently contradictions. Here again, I believe, the state authority might properly be exercised and a uniform course of study prepared, subject to such additions as localities might demand. I believe that many of the courses of study in cities are too detailed and insist too strenuously on special methods and on what a class must accomplish in a given time. Any teacher works better when allowed reasonable freedom, and secures better results by a method with which he is in full accord and which he is carrying out somewhat in his own way. Too much insistence in a course of study sacrifices the spirit to the letter.

The choice of text-books should be wholly with the superintendent and his teachers. A great number of schoolbooks on almost every subject have been published in recent years. Many of them are excellent, and many of them have no excuse for being except that the publishing house feels that it must come into the market with something novel to compete with some other house. But the number of good books is so large that the difficulty is to determine the best. There is perhaps no other subject with which boards of education are so likely to meddle as this, and there is none in which their interference is more likely to be mischievous. Tho the board be free from mercenary motives, and not too severely pressed by our genial friends, the agents, it has not the slightest competency to determine the best schoolbooks. Even the superintendent cannot wisely select the best books for his schools without calling to his aid the teachers of special subjects, and especially the teachers of primary grades who probably comprehend the powers, limitations, and tastes of the little child much better than he is able to do.

In order of his highest duties, next to the selection of teachers, comes his influence over them. Many of them will be inexperienced, fresh from the training school. Their knowledge is theoretical. They find in the

class-rooms problems of discipline and instruction of which they had never dreamed. Many of their preconceived ideas must be wholly readjusted when confronted by a class of forty or fifty children. They will need his help and instruction in many ways. The smaller the city, the greater and more direct this assistance may be. He may not only reach his principals, but his teachers, and know pretty accurately the strength and weakness of every one. In meetings of principals he may cover all general administrative features, such as organization, supervision, grading, and promotions. In meetings of the whole corps, principals and teachers together, he may give instruction and suggestions as to methods of discipline and teaching; but this work in general meetings must be of a broad character, and cannot go into the details of different grades without incurring danger of becoming wearisome and irksome to many of his auditors.

I conceive that in a meeting where only teachers of a single grade are present his best work is done, and this meeting ought to take the character of a conference, where the utmost freedom of discussion prevails. The superintendent will there bear the character of one who unites with all in the endeavor to arrive at the truth by comparison of views and suggestions from one another. He will seek to secure substantial, not absolute, uniformity, by bringing out the best from each individual, and molding all diverse opinions into a harmonious whole. In these meetings he will come to know his teachers intimately, will secure their confidence, and will impress himself upon them, not as a dictator, but as a counselor and guide. They ought to learn from his intercourse with them that he is their sincere friend and working in full accord with them for a common end. He may promote habits of study and research, and induce them to carry on a regular course of reading and investigation, either in the line of general scholarship or bearing on subjects and methods for their particular work. In meetings, of whatever character, he will make clear his ideals, views, and aspirations, and impart his own enthusiasm to his teachers. Any system of schools cannot rise much above the level of the superintendent, and its progress may be fairly measured by his character, attainments, energy, and skill, and the zeal with which his teachers co-operate with his efforts.

He will devote a large proportion of his time to active inspection and supervision of classes. There he will learn directly what strength and weakness each teacher possesses. His visits will relieve the monotony of the teacher's work, and, if he come in the proper spirit, he will always be welcomed by teachers and pupils alike. His suggestions will almost invariably be well received and helpful. His criticisms ought not to be constantly destructive. They should be constructive and creative as well. He has no right to complain of a method of instruction or of anything else in a class-room without having something better to offer. He ought

not simply to condemn and suggest, but frequently, very frequently, to commend. His teachers care more for his praise than for that of everybody else, and his hearty approval of what he has seen and heard in the class arouses all the cordiality and gratitude of a teacher to whom such words may seldom come except from him, and who is always liable to be under the fire of adverse criticism from patrons of the school. Intellectual effort is dwarfed by the shadow of disfavor, and flourishes in the warm sunshine of genial approval. I venture to hope that the superintendent in a small city will know what is going on in the classes from observation rather than from reports; that he will, therefore, have no occasion to burden his teachers with a marking system, or to occupy their time making out reports when they ought to be teaching or resting, and that he will know the progress of his classes from personal inspection rather than by the results of stated examinations.

He will know many of the children more or less intimately, and may guide the career of many pupils of the high school who will come to him for advice. His suggestions may induce many girls and boys to continue study and to pursue a college course who would otherwise never do so. In the same connection he may influence the conduct of parents, and lead them to make exertions to give their children the benefits of higher education. The smaller the place, the more intimate may be his relations to parents and children, and the more powerful the direct influences which he may exert. He must necessarily be the arbiter of misunderstandings and disputes. Controversies between principals and teachers, teachers and children, the school and the home, will all come to him for settlement. They will often demand all his diplomatic skill, partly because he is not called in until all the premises have been laid, and a very pretty quarrel prepared before he hears anything about it, and therefore he must correct the mistakes of others before he can restore peace and harmonious relations. He can never go far wrong in these cases if he bases his final decisions on his ideas of absolute justice. There is no reversal of a judgment rendered because it is right, and which makes no concession to a temporizing policy.

In a small system of schools the superintendent must of necessity be, to some extent, a man of affairs. He must know intimately all the questions coming before the committee, or board of education, and be prepared to advise concerning them. The theory that he should engage only in duties pertaining to the selection of teachers, instruction, and supervision of schools is very fine as an academic proposition, but it fails in practice. However well-meaning the board may be, it is composed of men whose thoughts are given to other subjects, and who occasionally turn from their regular vocations to discharge their duties as trustees. It is impossible, under the circumstances, for them to carry the school work continuously, without guidance in almost every particular, and the

superintendent is the only man in a position and with the knowledge to direct their councils.

One of his most weighty duties in connection with the board will be properly to direct the construction of new buildings or the repair of old ones. The great advance in schoolhouse architecture and construction in recent years has been due largely to the efforts of the superintendent. The local architect usually knows nothing of the special features of schoolhouse construction. The questions of floor space, air supply, ventilation, lighting, seating, are either not known at all, or are illy understood by him. Hygienic questions of schoolhouse architecture are vital, and the superintendent ought to know them. It is precisely the same with many other subjects. The board is willing and anxious to do these things right when they are plainly indicated. It should be cordially confident of the competency of the superintendent, if it is to rely on his advice and sustain his leadership.

If the superintendent is not known outside of the schoolhouse, much of the influence he should exert in the community is lost. He ought to be a leader, or at least one of the leaders, of thought in his community and a maker of public opinion. His character and attainments should dignify his office and justify confidence in himself. His integrity should be unquestionable. Judicious in his relations with others, he should be fearlessly independent of political, social, and religious influence in all things demanding his decision. His career should entitle him to the respect of all men, and every movement directed toward better conditions for mankind, whether physical, moral, or intellectual, should enlist his sympathy and receive his ardent support.

Humani nihil a me alienum puto.

ALCOHOL PHYSIOLOGY AND SUPERINTENDENCE

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In discussing the topic assigned me on your program, I understand it to be your wish that I consider especially what should be taught in our schools about alcohol in its physiological relations. Allow me a word at the outset regarding the more general scope of instruction in physiology. In planning a course of study in this as in any other subject careful consideration must be given to the several parts in order that the whole may be well considered and well balanced.

One thing I wish to urge is that we should tell our pupils more about the economy of food and nutrition, and since physiology already takes all the space there is for it in the curriculum, I would suggest that

some things now found in a good many of the text-books be omitted to make room for what might be taught about the demands of our bodies for nourishment, and how to supply them to the best advantage of health and purse. This would make a more substantial foundation for the special instruction about alcohol in itself. To make room for this in the already crowded curriculum I would suggest that some minor and more technical parts now taught might be omitted.

In illustration of what might be taught about the laws of nutrition let me call your attention to the leaflets which you will find on the seats you are occupying. These have been furnished by the United States Department of Agriculture, thru the kindness of Hon. James Wilson, secretary of agriculture, and Dr. A. C. True, director of the Office of Experiment Stations. They will give you a hint of the purpose, plans, and some of the actual results of a series of investigations which are being carried on in different parts of the United States under the authority of Congress for the purpose of learning more about the economy of food. Let me also call your attention to these specimens, which are duplicates of those in the food collection of the United States National Museum. They illustrate the chemical composition of the human body and of the foods which nourish it. From the leaflets you may infer that already a large amount of information has been obtained regarding the chemical composition, digestibility, and nutritive values of our food materials, the ways in which they nourish the body, the dietary habits of people of different classes and regions, the more common errors in our food economy, and the ways in which we may select, prepare, and use our foods so as to make our diet less costly, more palatable, and more healthful. The museum specimens suggest one of the ways in which some of these facts may be explained and thus made most useful. The leaflets and specimens indicate some of the many ways in which our government, in response to a public demand, a demand which comes especially from teachers, economists, and philanthropists, is gathering and disseminating knowledge of those things which require the most exact research for their discovery, and which, clearly discerned and rightly taught, take hold on life, form the most useful part of education, and can become sources of the truest inspiration.

When we consider that "half the struggle for life is a struggle for food;" that "half or more than half the earnings of the wage-earner is spent for the nourishment of himself and family;" that not only a man's power to work, but also his health, are largely affected by his food; that some of our most skilled hygienists are telling us that a large part of the disease which embitters life and hastens death is due to avoidable errors in diet; that more harm comes to the health of the community from erroneous habits of eating than from the habitual use of alcoholic drink; that economists, philanthropists, and divines are urging more and more

earnestly the need of attention to such subjects—are we not justified in asking if a little more room cannot be found for it in the school curriculum?

THE PHYSIOLOGICAL ACTION OF ALCOHOL

I now come to the main division of my subject—the physiological action of alcohol, and what is and should be taught regarding it.

The laws of nearly all our states, I believe, require that the curricula of our public schools shall include physiology, with special reference to the action of alcoholic beverages. Such legislation would be impossible without a public sentiment back of it. Whether or not this legislation has assumed the most rational form, or whether the people at large understand exactly its purpose and to what degree the hopes of its promoters are being fulfilled, it is not my desire to discuss. The facts I desire to urge are two: First, it is the law, and, as such, our duty as teachers is to obey it as long as it stays on the statute books; second, there is a wide difference between the teaching of this subject in many schools and in many text-books on the one hand, and the teaching in the colleges, universities, and medical schools, and by the leading physiologists of the world, on the other. It is this most unfortunate disparity which I ask especially to consider. If the one body of doctrine is correct, and the other to a greater or less extent incorrect, as I personally believe it is, you, as teachers, as school superintendents, as the leaders in our education, are interested to know it. Here, as I understand it, is the reason for the title which your secretary has given to my subject, "Alcohol Physiology and Superintendence."

If the alcohol physiology now being taught in our public schools as a branch of science is scientifically correct, then it cannot be pedagogically or ethically wrong, and there is little reason for my discussing the subject today. But if it does not tally with the most reliable conclusions from scientific observation and experiment; if what is taught as truth is half-truth or partial untruth; if doubtful theories are set forth as settled facts; if a rule of conduct is based upon an unsound theory; if the attempt is made to improve the morals of the men of the future by a wrong teaching of the boys of today—that educational policy is pedagogically and ethically wrong and ought to be altered.

OPINIONS OF LEADING AUTHORITIES

The physiological action of alcohol is very complex, and the views of physiologists generally regarding the different details are naturally divergent. Let us take, for instance, the much discussed question as to whether alcohol is food or poison.

First of all we must have a clear understanding of what we are talking about. A given substance taken into the body may act in a variety of ways. Meat, beefsteak for instance, which is universally called a food,

supplies the body with material to build up its tissues, repair its wastes, and furnish it with energy in the form of heat to keep it warm, and muscular power for work. It also has an action upon the nervous system which is not yet fully explained, but may perhaps be called stimulative. Taken in excess it may be injurious; its action is then pathological. Being thus injurious, it might under these circumstances be called poisonous. Arsenic is sometimes taken as a medicine, and as such is believed to be useful, tho we do not know exactly how or why it is so. But arsenic has no value whatever as nutriment, and therefore cannot be called in any sense a food. In more than minute doses it is deleterious or fatal. It is a true poison. There are certain vegetable products which, fed to animals, supply nourishment, but at the same time are injurious, so that they cannot be used for food. Chemists have analyzed some such substances, and found ingredients which are nutritious and others which are injurious. That is to say, some substances are clearly foods, some are clearly poisons, some act in both ways. How, then, shall we class alcohol? What I shall attempt to show you is that the results of the most valuable scientific research and the opinions of the leading physiologists of the world unite in saying that it may be either food or poison, or both, according to circumstances.

Alcohol is not like the meat or the seed, a complex material made up of different ingredients. It is a simple chemical substance. Nevertheless it has very different actions. A chemist can analyze the seed and separate the parts which are nutritious from those which are poisonous. But he cannot do this with alcohol. When the physiologist experiments upon its action he has to take it as a whole. This complicates the experimenting and makes the interpretation of the results difficult.

When we come to consider the dietetic use of alcohol, however, we must take into account, not only its direct value for nutriment, but also its indirect action, as, for instance, its effect upon digestion. So likewise, when we consider its pathological effect, we must take into account its indirect action upon the nervous system. Indeed, if we are going to study the subject at all, thoroly, we must recognize many subdivisions. Since we cannot go into the details here, let me briefly summarize what appear to be the views of leading physiologists of the world.

What do the authorities say in answer to the question: Is alcohol food? Of course, the answer depends first of all upon the definition of "food." But people may properly differ as to the definition, and it is not worth while to quibble about what may be left to the dictionaries. Let us then go back of this and ask: What do the specialists say as to its nutritive effect?

If we study the views held by the physiologists and pharmacologists in this country and in Europe who are regarded by their fellow-specialists

as best qualified to speak with authority, we may perhaps divide them in three groups. At one extreme would be a small group who take grounds, more or less strongly, against any dietetic use or value of alcohol; but even this group would generally admit, I think, the absence of proof that alcohol does not supply the body with nutriment. There is a second group who are inclined to favor the moderate dietetic use of alcohol, tending to class it with non-proteid food materials, like sugar, starch, and fat, but still maintaining that its classification as a food is not clearly established. And where they are inclined to question its value for directly supplying the body with nourishment, they maintain that it may be valuable as an aid to digestion and otherwise, and find in this another reason for using it as part of the diet. A third group, whether they advocate or oppose its use, regard the evidence as sufficient to pronounce alcohol, in moderate quantities, a food in the sense that it may serve for nutriment, and many urge that there are circumstances in which its nutritive value is very important. Whether alcohol is or is not a poison is likewise a question of definition. Here again wise men may disagree; but back of this lies the important question: Is it injurious? That alcohol may be injurious, that in large enough doses it is unquestionably a poison, and that in smaller quantities, taken habitually, it may be extremely harmful, there is no shadow of doubt. On this point there is no disagreement of authorities. But whether, or under what circumstances, it is injurious when taken in moderate quantities is a very different matter; and here opinions disagree.

The opinion of Professor Fick, that alcohol in small amounts should be called poison, has been often quoted, and is, I believe, made the principal basis of the statement in many of our school text-books that alcohol is called a poison by the highest scientific authorities. But Professor Fick defines "poison" in a way which, be it right or wrong, gives to the word a meaning quite different from that in which it is popularly used. He is one of the group of physiologists who practically deny any food value to alcohol. So far as I am aware, however, their number is small.

I have looked into many of the standard treatises upon the subject, and have conversed with many eminent physiologists, pharmacologists, and chemists about it. In so doing I have constantly seen and heard alcohol referred to in small quantities as food and in very large quantities as poison. But I have rarely seen or heard alcohol in small quantities called a poison, in the ordinary sense of the word, by any specialist who is generally regarded as an authority. Indeed, as I write this, I do not recall a single instance, but I should not feel warranted in saying that there are no such instances, because there are things which one might forget, and, furthermore, there may be many which I have not happened to see. I have no doubt but that, if I had been looking especially for

evidence on this side of the question, I might have found a good deal more than what I have just said implies.

If, then, we leave out of account the question of scientific definition of the terms "food" and "poison," and take the words in the meanings in which they are commonly used, I think we may properly say that alcohol is both food and poison. Only, if we speak of it as food, we must be careful to bear in mind that it is not and cannot be a food in the same sense in which bread and meat are foods. Food performs two great functions. One is to build body tissue and keep it in repair; the other is to yield energy in the form of heat to keep the body warm and muscular, or other energy for its work.

To bring this out more clearly, let me remind you that our foods contain different classes of nutritive materials or nutrients. One of these classes includes the nitrogenous substances, protein compounds or proteids, as chemists call them. The myosin which is the basis of lean meat, the albumen or white of egg, the casein which makes the curd of milk, the gluten of wheat, are familiar examples of proteid compounds. They are transformed into blood, muscle, bone, and brain. They are the true tissue-formers of the body, the materials which serve for building the bodily machine and keeping it in repair. They also serve the body for fuel, but their use in this respect is limited. The fats, like fat of meat, the butter fat of milk, and the oil of cotton or of olive, make a second, and the carbohydrates, which include the starches and the sugars, a third class of nutrients of food. The fats and carbohydrates lack the chemical element nitrogen which is characteristic of the protein compounds, but they contain large proportions of carbon and are sometimes called the carbonaceous nutrients. By their oxidation, i. e., burning, in the body they yield its principal supply of energy.

Bread, meat, milk, and the like contain both the nitrogenous and the carbonaceous materials. Meat lacks the carbohydrates; to make a well-rounded diet we use bread, potatoes, and other vegetable materials with the meat. Bread and milk may be called complete foods, as they contain all three of these classes, and with them the other ingredients necessary for nutrition. Such complete foods not only build the bodily machine and keep it in repair, but also supply it with fuel.

While proteids serve for building tissue and have a limited value for fuel, we could not well live on proteids alone. They are not complete foods. Fats, starches, and sugars are not complete foods. They cannot build tissue; nevertheless, they make the larger part of our food, for the reason that our bodies need more material for fuel than they do for building and repair.

Alcohol cannot build tissue; it has no nitrogen. It cannot be stored in the body for future use, as is the case with fats, nor can it be transformed into fat and thus stored in the body, as is the case with the sugars

and starches. But it is oxidized in the body and does yield energy. In this respect it is analogous to the fats, sugars, and starches. Just how it compares in fuel value with the fats, sugars, and starches, or just how these latter compare with one another in fuel value, are questions as yet unanswered.

Alcohol is, then, at best a partial food. To call it food, in the popular sense of the word, and without qualification, may produce a wrong impression. Furthermore, its action upon the nerves and otherwise in the body is such that only very small quantities can be taken without serious derangement. When taken habitually in excess, it is not only injurious to health, but ruinous to character. And while its nutritive action may be very important in some cases, especially with aged people or in certain forms of disease, people generally do not take it for the sake of its nutritive value at all.

Taking the word "poison" in the sense in which it is commonly understood, namely, as applying to substances which are deadly in their effect, alcohol in small quantities cannot in my judgment properly be called a poison. It may be injurious in one case and not in another. Just where to draw the line between the quantity which may serve only as food and that which acts as poison is impossible. The amount that can be taken without injurious effect differs with different people. And even tho there are conditions in which it is not injurious and is even useful, yet there is the danger that it may lead to excess, a danger which, as teachers of youth, we must not, we dare not, forget. This fact, coupled with the demoralization that comes with its habitual and excessive use, constitutes, in my judgment, the chief argument against its use.

But I have started to give you the opinions of leading physiologists, and have indiscreetly gone out of the way to give you my own, and that, too, when I am only a physiological chemist. Let us go back to the authorities.

At the meeting of the International Physiological Congress, held in Cambridge, England, in September, 1898, an effort was made to obtain an expression of opinion which might be taken as a consensus of leading physiologists regarding this especial subject. The occasion had brought together some of the best-known authorities from the different countries of Europe, America, and even Africa and Asia. The congress did not include a great many men, but it did include a number of great men. The following statement was drawn up by Professor Michael Foster, of the University of Cambridge, who was the president of the congress, and was printed and offered for signature :

The physiological effects of alcohol, taken in a diluted form, in small doses, as indicated by the popular phrase "moderate use of alcohol," in spite of the continued study of past years, have not as yet been clearly and completely made out. Very much remains to be done, but, thus far, the results of careful experiments show that alcohol, so taken, is

oxidized within the body, and so supplies energy like common articles of food, and that it is physiologically incorrect to designate it as a poison, that is, a substance which can only do harm and never good to the body. Briefly, none of the exact results hitherto gained can be appealed to as contradicting, from a purely physiological point of view, the conclusions which some persons have drawn from their daily common experience that alcohol so used may be beneficial to their health.

I was present at the meeting and conversed with a number of the gentlemen present regarding the statement. Only a very few, so far as I heard, had any hesitation with regard to it. I learned of two or three who were unwilling to sign it without slight change in the phraseology. I was told of one who said he believed it, but did not like to sign it, because it might be employed by liquor sellers as an encouragement to their trade. There may have been a considerable number who disagreed with the statement in one way or another, but if the number had been at all large, I think I should have known it. Certain it is that a very considerable number of the most celebrated men present expressed their decided approval in personal conversation. I have here a list of sixty-two men who expressed their approval by their signatures. Nearly all are well-known investigators. Among them are professors, teachers, and heads of laboratories of a large number of the most noted universities and medical schools of the world. The list includes many of the most celebrated physiologists of our time.

The following, also by Professor Foster, is interesting, not only as a concise summary of what is definitely known about the physiological action of alcohol, but also as showing how much space should, in the judgment of one of the most reputable of modern physiologists, be devoted to the subject in an elementary text-book. It fills two of the 247 pages of the *Elementary Physiology* of Foster and Shore.

Alcoholic beverages.—Ordinary alcohol is an organic compound of the composition C_2H_6O . It occurs in the following proportions in the following beverages:

Beer	- - - - -	about	5 per cent.
Light wines (claret, hock)	- - - - -	about	10 to 15 per cent.
Strong wines (sherry, port)	- - - - -	about	20 per cent.
Spirits	- - - - -	about	30 to 70 per cent.

When alcohol is taken into the body, most of it is oxidized and gives rise to energy. The amount of energy thus supplied, compared with that of the other parts of the food, is insignificant, and the effect of alcohol depends, not on the energy which it supplies, but on the influence it exerts on the changes going on in the several tissues. The value of the various articles of diet does not depend by any means solely on their ability to supply energy; we have seen, for instance, that salts which supply no energy are nevertheless of use in directing the changes going on in the body. In a somewhat similar way alcohol and other substances may influence and direct these changes. Whether that influence is beneficial or no will depend upon many circumstances, and certainly upon the quantity taken. We have many illustrations that a substance taken into the body in a certain quantity will produce one effect, and in another quantity it may be quite an opposite effect. There is no doubt that a certain quantity of alcohol is injurious and interferes with all the functions, and ultimately brings about various diseases, but it does not follow from this that in a smaller quantity it may not be harmless or even beneficial.

Alcohol produces its most marked effects on the vascular and nervous systems. It leads to a dilatation of the small blood vessels of the skin, and so to a larger flow of blood to the surface of the body; this, while it produces a sensation of warmth, leads to an increased loss of heat by radiation and perspiration. If the amount of alcohol taken is excessive, the loss of heat will lead to a definite fall of temperature. Alcohol is then of no service as a preventive against cold.

Alcohol makes the heart beat more quickly and makes it do more work in a given time. In some cases this may be beneficial, but generally it is a wasteful and useless expenditure of energy. Alcohol diminishes the power of doing prolonged muscular work, and large quantities lead to a great diminution in the force of muscular contractions.

The effect of alcohol on digestion is very complex. When taken with food it leads to a diminution in the rate and completeness of digestion, if it is present in any but very small quantities. If some proteid (white of egg or fibrin) is put in a flask with some gastric juice, it is found that, if a very little alcohol (1 part to 500 of the mixture) be added, the digestion will go on a trifle more rapidly, but if the alcohol added much exceeds this amount, a well-marked retardation is produced. It does not follow that such a small amount of alcohol is useful in ordinary digestion, because when it is taken into the stomach we have to consider the influence it has on the secretion of gastric juice, on the movements of the stomach, and on absorption. A small quantity of alcohol appears, however, to encourage the secretion of gastric juice, but large quantities act injuriously on all the processes of digestion.

A small amount of alcohol may promote the action of the central nervous system, and often appears to quicken the rapidity of thought and to excite the imagination, but more usually, and always when taken in any but small quantities, it diminishes the power of connected thought and judgment. It also diminishes the power of receiving sensory impressions, and, at the same time, blunts all the special senses. Since it reduces the sensibility to cold and fatigue, and allays mental pain and worry, it is often resorted to, and then with great danger.

The limit up to which any beneficial effects are produced by alcohol is soon reached, and beyond that it only does harm. This limit is not the same for all individuals; a quantity good for one may be injurious for another, and a large number of people find that strictly moderate quantities of alcoholic beverages do them no harm, while others find that similar amounts impede them in their daily work.

The effect of alcoholic beverages does not depend solely on the ordinary alcohol in them, for other substances which they contain often have powerful actions in the body. The habitual use of such beverages to excess greatly shortens life by inducing diseases of many organs. In some cases of disease alcohol may be of great service, but in health it cannot be considered a necessity, and is far more potent for evil than for good.

From the evidence at hand regarding the use of alcohol, the following, by Dr. E. A. Parkes, the eminent English hygienist, seems to me a fair and judicious statement of the facts, altho I should be inclined to lay a little more stress upon the principle that, in health at any rate, it is superfluous or worse, and to insist more strongly upon the importance, in this country especially, of general abstinence from its use:

The facts now stated make it difficult to avoid the conclusion that the dietetic value of alcohol has been much overrated. It does not appear to me possible at present to condemn alcohol altogether as an article of diet in health; or to prove that it is invariably hurtful, as some have attempted to do. It produces effects which are often useful in disease, and sometimes desirable in health; but in health it is certainly not a necessity, and many persons are much better without it. As now used by mankind, it is infinitely more powerful for evil than for good; and though it can hardly be imagined that its dietetic

use will cease in our time, yet a clearer view of its effects must surely lead to a lessening of the excessive use which now prevails.

Reference has lately been made in the public prints to some experiments at Wesleyan University which have had for their object the study of the nutritive action of alcohol. One does not like to say a great deal about his own work, and I should rather stop with the references to what other investigators have done and said; but, in view of the misstatements and misunderstandings which have received currency regarding these inquiries and the conclusions we have derived from them, it is perhaps fitting that I should refer to them now, as I have been especially requested to do.

The experiments in question have been undertaken on behalf of the Committee of Fifty for the Investigation of the Liquor Problem. They are, however, carried out in connection with researches upon nutrition which are made under the auspices of the United States Department of Agriculture, and constitute part of the larger inquiry into the economy of food, of which I have already spoken.

The experiments are made by the use of the respiration calorimeter, by means of which it is possible to measure the income and outgo of the body of a man, as expressed in terms of both matter and energy. The apparatus includes a chamber about seven feet long, four feet wide, and six and a half feet high, in which the man stays for a number of days and nights. It is furnished with folding-bed, table, and chair. For some of the experiments—those in which muscular work is to be done—there is provided a stationary bicycle, on which the man may ride the equivalent of a desired number of miles per day. Arrangements are provided for ventilation by a current of carefully purified air. The temperature is kept constantly at a degree which is agreeable to the occupant. In this chamber he reads, writes, works, eats, drinks, and sleeps. So far from being uncomfortable, each of the four gentlemen who have been subjects of the experiments thus far has found himself very little discomforted in any way save for the monotony of confinement in so small a space. The period of each experiment generally varies from four to nine days, tho in one case it reached twelve days. Even after this experience not one of the gentlemen has been in the least unwilling to repeat the trial. So far from finding difficulty in securing subjects, we have numerous volunteers, and are able to select men of special fitness for the purpose, as regards both bodily characteristics and, when desired, scientific training.

The general plan of the experiments consists in giving the man a diet adapted to the purposes of the experiment, and measuring, weighing, and analyzing, not only the food and drink, but also the products, solid, liquid, and gaseous, given off from the body. This involves, with the rest, the measurement of the air the man breathes and its analysis, both

before it enters and after it leaves the chamber, in order to determine the products of respiration. Not only the chemical elements and compounds, but also the energy of the income and outgo, are measured. The body receives energy in the food, in which it is latent, or so-called potential energy. A small part of the energy leaves the body in the unoxidized excretions, in which it is still latent, but the larger quantity is given off in the heat emitted from the body, and in the external muscular work performed. Especial arrangements are provided for measuring this energy, and since that given off from the body is mostly in the form of heat, the apparatus is practically a calorimeter. It is because the apparatus enables us to determine both the respiration products and the heat that we call it a respiration calorimeter.

One of the most interesting results of the experiments of this kind conducted at Wesleyan University is the close agreement of the income and outgo of energy. They thus indicate, what in fact has been generally believed, tho the belief has lacked definite experimental proof, that the human body, like any other machine—a steam-engine or an electrical dynamo, for instance—obeys the law of the conservation of energy.

By giving men under experiment different kinds and amounts of food, and varying their activity from actual rest to light or severe muscular or mental work, it is possible to learn how the body uses its food, what materials are needed for its support, and how different food materials compare in nutritive value.

The special object of the experiments with alcohol was to study its nutritive effect as compared with that of the fuel ingredients, fat, sugar, and starch—carbonaceous compounds, let us call them—of ordinary food. In most of the experiments pure (ethyl) alcohol was used, tho in some the alcohol was given in the form of whisky or brandy. It was administered with water or coffee, and taken with an ordinary diet of meat, bread, butter, milk, sugar, and the like. The amount of alcohol per day has been equal to about two and one-half ounces of absolute alcohol—about as much as would be contained in three average glasses of whisky, or in a bottle of claret or Rhine wine. This is generally divided in six doses, three with meals and three between meals, the object being to avoid any marked influence of the alcohol upon the nerves, and thus to test its action as food under normal bodily conditions. Comparative tests were made by use of rations with and without alcohol. The ration without alcohol consisted in each case of ordinary food materials supplying the nutritive ingredients in amounts more or less nearly sufficient to meet the wants of the body. In the corresponding ration with alcohol, part of the sugar, starch, and fat of the food, the carbonaceous ingredients which supply the body with fuel for warmth and work, was taken out, enough to be equivalent in potential energy to the two and one-half ounces of alcohol, and the latter was used in their place. In the

experiments in which the man did not work this alcohol made about one-fifth of the total fuel material in the diet. In the experiments with hard muscular work, in which more food was used, the alcohol furnished about one-seventh of the fuel supply. Ten experiments in which alcohol was used are now completed and ready for publication. These are compared with a somewhat larger number of experiments similar in the main, except that they were without alcohol. The results may be briefly stated as follows :

First, extremely little of the alcohol was given off from the body unconsumed ; indeed, it was oxidized, i. e., burned as completely as bread, meat, or any other food. Second, in the oxidation all of the potential energy of the alcohol was transformed into heat or muscular power. In other words, the body transformed the energy of the alcohol as it did that of sugar, starch, and other ordinary food materials. Third, taking the experiments together, the body held its own just as well with the rations consisting partly of alcohol as it did with the others. This was the case whether the men were at rest or at work, and whether the rations were or were not adequate to the needs of their bodies for nourishment. In other words, so far as the figures for income and outgo of chemical elements and compounds in these experiments show, the alcohol protected the nitrogen and carbon, the proteids and fats, of the body from consumption as effectively as the carbonaceous nutrients which it replaced. There were, indeed, variations in the figures from day to day and from experiment to experiment, as must be expected in this kind of physiological inquiry. In some cases, judging by the figures as they stand, the alcohol appeared to be less, in others it appeared to be more, efficient than the sugar, starch, and fat, in protecting either the nitrogen or the carbon of the body from consumption. In certain ingredients there were large losses, in others there were gains of either nitrogen or carbon, or both. But these gains were in general about as large and frequent with the rations without alcohol as with the corresponding rations with alcohol. Taking the experiments altogether we should not, in my judgment, be warranted in saying that the results establish any difference between the two kinds of rations in this respect.

I am very far, however, from regarding the results of these experiments as final. Take, for instance, the question of the relative fuel values of the carbonaceous nutrients, fat, sugar, and starch, on the one hand, and alcohol on the other. These experiments, which are more detailed than any others of the sort of which I have been able to find descriptions, imply, as far as they go, that corresponding, or, to use a chemical term, isodynamic, amounts have equal values as fuel. To put it in another way, one ounce of alcohol, when burned with oxygen in an apparatus for the purpose, such as we use in the chemical laboratory, will yield about the same amount of heat as, say, three-fourths of an ounce of fat or an ounce and three-quarters of either sugar or starch. But whether

the body gets the same benefit from the ounce of alcohol as from the three-quarters of an ounce of fat, or the ounce and three-quarters of starch or sugar, is another matter. The body uses the sugar, starch, and fat for a variety of purposes. It may be that the isodynamic amounts of these carbonaceous nutrients have equal values for some of these purposes and unequal values for others, the value depending upon the kind of service. So, likewise, it may be that the value of alcohol as fuel depends upon the kind of work it is to do. For aught we know today there may be forms of service as fuel which it cannot render, or can render only under special conditions. Exact answers to these questions will require a large amount of patient and costly research.

As may be seen, these experiments had to do simply with the nutritive action of alcohol. They have very little bearing upon its indirect action, nor do they indicate what are its effects when taken habitually for months or years.

In certain deliberative bodies—in Congress, for instance—personal explanations are sometimes in order. I hope it may not seem unfitting if I venture to say here that some of the statements which purport to have gone out from Middletown regarding these experiments are entirely wrong. Thus it has been said that we are studying the effects of alcohol as brain-food, and for that purpose have been feeding men upon a diet consisting chiefly of alcohol. These reports are entirely without foundation. No such experiments have ever been made or even planned in our laboratory or under my direction. For that matter, I cannot see how any physiological chemist could think of alcohol as a material especially fitted to supply nourishment for brain work. I can see how it might sometimes stimulate the action of the brain in certain ways. Indeed, workers in that field, I believe, have tried to explain its action in this as in the opposite direction, but that is a subject for the physiological psychologist, and not the chemist, to investigate and pronounce upon.

An account of these experiments was given at the International Physiological Congress in the summer of 1898 referred to, and also at the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Boston the same year. Last June a similar account was given at the meeting of a scientific club in Middletown, Conn., where the experiments were made. Some days in advance of the meeting newspapers in different parts of the country contained announcements purporting to represent what I was going to say. Neither my associates nor myself authorized them or have any knowledge as to how they originated. They contained statements to the effect that the experiments showed that alcohol is a useful food, and that two ounces per day made a desirable part of the diet. Some of these totally unauthorized and unwarranted statements, I regret to say, have been utilized by venders of alcoholic beverages as recommendations of their products,

How far the views of leading physiologists and the results of scientific research, as I have thus tried to epitomize them, differ from the teaching of the so-called "authorized" text-books used in our schools you, who are so familiar with the books and schools, are well able to judge. I will, however, later on give you some illustrations of the teaching to which I object.

WHAT SHOULD AND SHOULD NOT BE TAUGHT ABOUT THIS SUBJECT IN THE SCHOOLS

Meanwhile, permit me to state some of the things which, as it seems to me, ought and ought not to be taught in the public schools. In so doing I do not attempt to cover the whole ground or enter into the physiological details, but simply indicate what, in my personal view, should be said or not said about some of the more important phases of the subject.

WHAT WE SHOULD NOT TEACH ABOUT ALCOHOL

1. We should not teach that it is a food, in the sense in which that word is ordinarily used. If we are going to discuss its physiological action at all, we cannot well ignore its nutritive value, but we should at the same time emphasize its limitations. When we speak of it as food or nutriment, we should explain to what extent and in what ways it can and cannot nourish the body. So, likewise, if we speak of its effect upon digestion, we should not say simply that it is an aid or that it is a hindrance, but that it may be one or the other, or both, according to circumstances.

2. We should not teach that it is a poison, in the sense in which that word is ordinarily used. We may say, and with truth, that alcohol in large quantities is poisonous, that in large enough doses it is fatal, and that smaller quantities taken day after day will ruin body and mind. But it is wrong to teach our boys that alcohol in small quantities, or in dilute forms in which it occurs in such beverages as wine and beer, is a poison in the ordinary sense of the word. In all that we say on this point we must bear in mind that the intelligent boy knows well, and as a man he will know better, that people have always been accustomed to moderate drinking, as it is commonly called, and yet live in excellent health to good old age. If we tell him that alcohol in small quantities is poisonous in the sense in which he understands the word, he will see that we are exaggerating, that we are teaching for effect, and he will instinctively rebel against the teaching.

We may say, and say truthfully, that the moderate use of alcohol is fraught with danger. But the cases where the occasional glass leads to marked excess are the exceptions. If we present them to the thoughtful boy as the rule, he will detect the fallacy and distrust the whole doctrine.

We may be right in saying that alcohol often does harm to health when people do not realize it, that it prepares the system for inroads of disease, that there is a gradation of injury from forms scarcely perceptible to the utter ruin of body and soul. But to present the "horrible examples" as a common result of drinking is illogical in itself, contrary to right temperance doctrine, and hence injurious to the children whom we teach. For that matter I believe that the picturing of the frightful results of vice to young and innocent children is more harmful than useful.

3. We ought not to teach that alcohol in small quantities is harmless. Still more should we avoid saying that it is commonly beneficial. Some of us as individuals may believe that its use in small quantities is generally desirable, but there is nothing in either the facts of common experience or in the results of scientific inquiry to justify the inference as a general principle. Doubtless many people, especially those in advanced age, or suffering under certain forms of disease, are benefited by alcoholic beverages in moderate amounts. Here it may have a decided medicinal value, and my own belief coincides with that of a great body of physiologists in ascribing to it under some such circumstances an extremely important food value, altho the exact ways in which it is useful are not yet demonstrated. But I can see no justification for the claim that moderate drinking is generally useful, and there is no denying the terrible fact that it is often harmful, not only in itself, but because of the excess to which it so often leads.

4. We ought not to teach that alcohol in small quantities is always or necessarily harmful. Some of us as individuals may believe this. Honestly believing that theory we may be justified in arguing for it. But we are not justified in teaching it dogmatically, and in my judgment it is positively wrong to make such a dogma a part of the instruction which is presented to our youth as authoritative, be it in the school, the Sunday school, or the pulpit. It is wrong for two reasons; first, because it presents an unproven theory as an attested fact; and second, because it leads the trusting child to believe what the thoughtful, and at times skeptical, boy or girl, and the intelligent man or woman, may afterward learn to be wrong.

5. Still worse is it to take the theory that the use of alcohol in small quantities is always or necessarily injurious, and set it up as demonstrated by scientific observation and experiment. This is positive untruth. If we tell it to children, they will believe it until they learn better. They may possibly remain in ignorance of the error until they are grown, or indeed all their lives. But sooner or later many of them will find that they were deceived; it may be in the high school, it may be in the college or medical school, it may be from general reading or conversation; but when the deception is found out a reaction comes. The good we tried to

do is undone. The certain injury is far greater than the hoped-for good.

6. To take the theory that alcohol is in no sense a food, but always a poison, that it is never useful, but always harmful, and allege that it is supported by the great bulk of scientific authority, is falsehood. We may look over the literature of the subject and cull out statements which can be used to support it. We may even find writers of more or less repute who attempt to defend it in the light of scientific experiment. In this way we may accumulate statements which the unsuspecting reader may be led to regard as proving that the scientific authority is on this side of the discussion. We may unconsciously go farther and persuade ourselves that there is scientific ground for adopting such theories; so often and so truly is "the wish the father to the thought." In our great anxiety to find every means to work against the evil wrought by alcohol we may gradually come to feel ourselves justified in presenting all the arguments we can against it and in ignoring all we can on the other side. But this does not turn theory into fact or falsehood or misrepresentation into truth.

The following quotations are from so-called "approved" text-books of physiology commonly used in our schools:

Nature apparently makes no effort to appropriate it [alcohol]. It courses everywhere through the circulation, and into the great organs, with all its properties unmodified. Alcohol, then, is not, like bread or beef, taken hold of, broken up by the mysterious process of digestion, and used by the body. "It cannot, therefore, be regarded as an aliment."¹

Alcohol is universally ranked among poisons by physiologists, chemists, physicians, toxicologists, and all who have experimented, studied, and written upon the subject, and who, therefore, best understand it.²

Alcohol is not a food or drink. Medical writers, without exception, class alcohol as a poison.³

It must be remembered that in whatever quantity, or wherever alcohol is found, its nature is the same. It is not only a poison, but a narcotic poison.⁴

These statements are misrepresentations. They belong to a kind of doctrine which pervades many of the "approved" text-books and much of the common temperance instruction. They are none the less false or wrong, either scientifically or morally, because the object is to educate our youth away from evil; the misstatements are none the less reprehensible because they occur in schoolbooks which have the official indorsement of a great temperance organization, whose membership includes thousands and other thousands of the noblest, the most conscientious, the worthiest of the women of the world. Nor does it help the matter that such statements are repeated and such theories are promulgated with the sanction, and are enforced by the authority, of the church, in the teachings of the Sunday school, and from the sacred desk.

¹ STEELE, *Hygienic Physiology*, pp. 178, 179.

³ *Eclectic*, No. 3, p. 57.

² Quoted from YOUNG in *Blaisdell's*, No. 2, p. 232.

⁴ *Authorized Series*, No. 3, p. 58.

Do not misunderstand me. I am not imputing wrong motives, I bring no railing accusation, I charge no one with intended wrong. I only ask that the men and women who do these things—many of them are my acquaintances, some are my warm personal friends, their standing in the community is so high that no arrow of aspersion can reach them, their characters are so pure that no stain can tarnish them, their names are in my memory and their faces in my vision, as I write this—I ask that they consider the facts as I am sure they have not considered them, that they look into the evidence as I am sure they have not looked into it, and that they remember in their attitude toward these questions the principle I have read in their own writings and heard from their own lips—the foundation of morality is the truth.

WHAT WE SHOULD TEACH ABOUT ALCOHOL

1. It is, under some circumstances, a valuable nutriment in the sense that it can yield energy to the body, but not in the sense that it can build tissue. It is, under other circumstances, a poison in the sense that it is injurious to health. When taken in large enough quantities and for long enough time it is destructive to life. It is sometimes very useful and sometimes very harmful, but the harm that comes from drinking, in many communities, vastly exceeds the good.

While we cannot deny to alcohol a nutritive value, that value is very limited. In yielding energy to the body it resembles sugar, starch, and fat, tho just how and to what extent it resembles them experimental inquiry has not yet told us. It differs from them in that it does not require digestion, and is hence believed to be more easily and immediately available to the body. It is not stored in the body for future use like the nutrients of ordinary food materials. The quantity that may be advantageously used is small. If large amounts are taken, its influence upon the nerves and brain are such as to counteract its nutritive effect, and it becomes injurious in various ways. And, finally, there are many people who begin by moderate use and are led to disastrous excess.

Alcohol may be useful to one man and harmful to another. One may take considerable without apparent harm, while another may be injured by very little. One may use it habitually without injury, while another may not. In sickness it may be a priceless boon. But it may likewise be the cause of physical, mental, and moral ruin.

2. The boy or the man, as long as he is in good health and does not need alcohol for medicine, is in general better off without it.

3. While some can drink a little without danger of drinking to great excess, others cannot. The safest way is to keep out of danger.

4. There are business considerations also as well as those of health that strongly favor temperance. The boy who wants to make his way on a railroad or in a large business establishment has a better chance to get

employment and to work up into a profitable position if he is an abstainer than if he is a drinker. Already many such establishments refuse to employ men who drink, and there is reason to expect that more will do so.

5. Temperance is always advisable. This we may emphasize most strongly. But whether or not we shall teach the necessity or even the advisability of abstinence is another matter. About this the best men differ. Two who disagree may be equally honest. Each has the right to express his own convictions and may often feel it his duty to do so. But it is neither just nor wise to teach our youth that the doctrine of total abstinence rests upon undisputed principles of either physiology or morals. It seems to me that the question whether a man should be a total abstainer depends on two considerations. The first is one of policy. Will drinking injure him? If so, he had better abstain; if not, he may drink. But he must be sure of his ground before he begins, and he had better wait until he reaches maturity and understands himself and the subject well, before he takes the risk. The other consideration is an ethical one. Remembering that he does not live for himself alone, what will be the effect of his example and what is his duty? The rule of conduct in this respect is a matter for him to decide. You and I may have the right to advise him, but the decision is between himself and his own conscience.

6. An ambitious and right-minded boy wants to be an influential and useful man. I think he should be taught that it would be better for the community at large if there were less drinking; that the community is influenced by the examples of strong and good men; and that his own personal influence will be better if it is on the side of temperance.

7. Great as is the danger of alcohol to purse and health, the moral injury is incomparably worse. Its most terrible effect is its demoralization of character. However much good men may do in helping others to save their money and promote their health, a still greater service to their fellow-men is that which helps them to a higher plane of moral living. And here is the strongest argument of all in favor of that self-abnegation which leads us to do those things, and those things only, which will best enable us to render that service to our day and generation. In that way we do our noblest duty to our fellow-men and to our God. All this we may, and I believe we should, teach in the schools.

ERRORS IN THE CURRENT TEMPERANCE TEACHING. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The misstatements in the text-books of the type referred to above are of various kinds. Sometimes the error consists in stating doubtful theories as attested facts; in other cases, the principles laid down are partly true and partly false; in still others, the statements are squarely opposed to all of the results of the latest and most accurate scientific research.

The statements are enforced by quotations, of which some are by real authorities, but are too often put in such ways as to misrepresent their actual teachings; while others are from men who do not stand for the best research and the highest scholarship, but are quoted as the most reliable authorities.

I do not mean that the approved text-books are all wrong. A great deal of what they say is entirely true. In the parts not bearing upon the action of alcohol there is often little to criticise and much to commend. The trouble is this admixture of error.

In one respect they are all alike. The impression which they give the pupil is that science teaches that alcohol, even in moderate quantities, is always harmful and never useful. This is untrue.

The object is to oppose an enormous evil, to teach our youth to resist that evil. The purpose is most worthy; the trouble is in the method. The evil being clearly defined, a doctrine is formed to meet it, and evidence is sought to sustain the doctrine. Whatever can be found in its favor is exaggerated. Whatever opposes it is ignored or denied. It gradually ceases to be the propagandism of the few and becomes the creed of the many. It is the old story of human dogma, repeated over and over again in politics, in theology, and in morals. And here, as in many other cases, the worthiness of the cause and the earnestness of the advocates are such as often to "deceive the very elect." Indeed, the very best people often become the most sincere and devoted advocates of the doctrine. In this case the scientific expert is not deceived. But the statements are put in such persuasive ways and sustained by such seeming force of scientific authority that the unsuspecting pupil, and, indeed, the teacher who implicitly trusts the text-books, is led to believe that they represent the real teaching of the best physiological science.

I was once talking about this subject with a teacher, and reminded her of Lincoln's saying: "You can fool all the people some of the time, and some of the people all the time, but you can't fool all the people all the time." She replied: "But can't we fool the boys until their characters are formed?" Now, I think that lady was perfectly sincere; I am equally sure that she was wrong. You cannot build character on falsehood.

A well-known philanthropist in New York city tells this story: "I happened to be in a school down on the east side when a class of boys from tenement families were reciting in physiology. The teacher asked: 'What is beer?' The answer came in chorus: 'Beer is poison.' Now, those little chaps knew that that was a lie. Their fathers and mothers drank beer every day." Such children were not fooled by any such teaching.

But even if they are deceived for a time, it will not last, nor can you get around the difficulty by falling back on definitions. Tell a boy a thing is poison, and he will suppose that you mean by poison what he

means by it, and what people generally mean by it. He has not access to the particular dictionary or scientific treatise which has a definition that may be stretched to fit your meaning. You may persuade him for a time that it is a poison in the popular sense of the word, but when he grows up he will learn that he was mistaught; indeed, he may do so before he is grown up. The scholar in the higher classes shares the present tendency to skepticism; when he finds that he was deceived, he does not mince matters; he reasons with himself: "That teacher and the text-book lied. If they would lie in one case, they would in another, and I am not going to believe anything they told me." Even if he does not go so far as this, even if his faith is not lost, but is only shaken, the harm is done; the effect is to undo much of the good that the teaching is intended to do. Furthermore, and what is still worse, the result must be to impress upon the pupil, and by the most effective agency, that of example—the example of the school, the Sunday school, and even the pulpit—the idea that deception is allowable in a good cause, that the end justifies the means. This is undermining the very foundations of morality.

One of the most honored members of your association remarked to me yesterday in speaking of this subject: "Teach a boy of ten that a lie is the truth, and at twenty he is in danger of believing the truth is a lie."

This evil, so entrenched behind the earnest aspirations of our community, and so fortified by legislation, is the one against which I protest and which I urge you, as leaders in education, to unite in your endeavors to oppose.

Perhaps I ought to speak more considerably of things so dear to thousands of the best, the most earnest, the most devoted people, those to whom temperance means so much, who would shrink with horror from intentional deceit, and in the fiber of whose noblest thought this doctrine is so interwoven.

We meet here a very peculiar difficulty. The object of this teaching is a noble one. When we criticise the method we are in danger of seeming to oppose the purpose, and yet the improvement in method is necessary for the attainment of that purpose. It seems to me that one of the great obstacles in the way of the true temperance reform is found in this very exaggeration which makes so large a part of the means used to promote that reform. It is building on the sand. The place to build is on the rock of attested truth.

You see, then, that I am not trying to set up a dogma in opposition to "scientific temperance instruction." I earnestly approve of the purpose, but object to part of the method. I protest against the dogmatic teaching of scientific theories which still lack demonstrative proof. More than that, I protest against the teaching of what science shows to be positively erroneous. And I also ask that the teaching of science in our schools shall keep pace with the progress of research.

But what are we to do about it? I hesitate to make positive suggestions to those who have much more experience than I, and on whom rests so much of grave responsibility for deciding what instruction our youth shall receive. I venture, however, these considerations:

The success of such instruction depends very largely upon its spirit. If it is based upon the real desire for truth, if disputed principles are referred to as questions rather than demonstrated facts, if no more is claimed than is proven, and if under these restrictions the evils of alcohol are clearly set forth, and especially if the teacher speaks with the power of accurate knowledge and profound conviction, the instruction cannot fail to be incalculably useful.

Still more effective will it be, in my judgment, if less stress is laid upon the material, i. e., the physiological and economic side of the question, and more upon its moral aspects. Our people are keenly alive to ethical ideas. And youth is a time when thought is fresh, the aspiration is for the ideal, and mind and heart are open to the truest ethical impulses.

Let me emphasize most strongly the moral aspects of this question. Temperance reform is moral reform. I cannot see how a thoughtful man, earnestly desirous of rendering his best service to the community, can fail to be interested in that reform.

The harm which alcohol does to health, the economic injury it brings to the individual and to the community, are terrible enough, but it seems to me that the supreme evil which comes from its misuse is its effect upon character, its power of demoralization, the moral ruin which it brings. No exaggeration is needed to paint this picture in the most terrible colors.

As one who has been interested in temperance reform from childhood, I have come to believe that we have been depending too much upon the economic and physiological argument. Statistics of the nation's liquor bill do not appeal very strongly to the ordinary man; still less does the average boy care for them. The men who know most about the physiological effects of alcohol are specialists in physiology and hygiene. I know scores of these men. Total abstainers among them are exceptions; I was about to say, rare exceptions. If they are not persuaded by the facts they know so well in theory and in practice, what can we expect from teaching the average boy or girl a little of the theory?

The supreme object of education is the formation of character. Character is shaped by education, but its basis is morality. Again I say, temperance reform is moral reform. The mind and heart of youth are most strongly influenced by moral thoughts, by ethical ideals. There you can keep within the truth and there make the strongest appeals.

One essential for the success of true temperance reform is that what is taught as science shall be placed upon the basis of demonstrated

fact. This means a change of base on the part of a great body of our most earnest temperance reformers; but that change is necessary.

We wish to help the drunkard to reform; but is it necessary to tell him that no man can touch alcohol without danger? To build up the public sentiment upon which the reform of the future must depend, we wish our children to understand about alcohol and its terrible effects; but when we teach them in the name of science, shall we not teach them the simple facts which science attests, and which they can hereafter believe, rather than exaggerated theories, whose errors, when they learn them, will tend to undo the good we strive to do? In short, is not temperance advisable even in the teaching of temperance doctrine?

In the great effort to make men better, there is one thing that we must always seek, one thing we need never fear—the truth.

DISCUSSION

SAMUEL T. DUTTON, superintendent of schools, Brookline, Mass.—You have listened this afternoon to a gentleman who, in the interest of science and truthfulness, and at very large expense of time and labor, has conducted certain experiments. You have observed how guardedly he has spoken in regard to results of those experiments, and you are able to form your own conclusions as to his honesty, his ability, his candor, and the position which he holds as a temperance man. Should you read shortly in some journal published by the ardent champions of the so-called “scientific temperance instruction” that Professor Atwater has declared that alcohol is a food in the sense that bread and potatoes are food, or that he is working on the side of the rum interest, you will be able to judge of the fairness of the statement.

What he has said about foods and the relation which diet sustains to health, good morals, and successful living will, I am sure, commend itself to all. The careful, painstaking work that he has done in this department entitles him to the everlasting gratitude of the American people. Let us not be too hasty in questioning his statement that “more harm comes to health from erroneous habits of eating than from the habitual use of alcohol.” He is supported by the opinion of many unbiased people. If any of his statements are opposed to the teaching of certain text-books touching the nature and effects of alcohol, it must be apparent that, while, as a scientific man, he is seeking truth for its own sake, he is prompted by high ethical motives and has at heart the welfare of the children of the country.

Without discussing further his address, I wish to call attention to recent attempts to secure more rigid laws touching temperance instruction. What occurred in Massachusetts last year is significant in many ways. It shows what people who have had their way for a long time will venture to undertake, and it points in a suggestive, not to say prophetic, manner at a possible change of sentiment on the part of temperance people toward so-called temperance instruction. The great victory which the “central committee” won in New York in 1895 gave them confidence to believe that the same kind of law might be passed in Massachusetts. The present statute, passed in 1885, which requires temperance teaching to all children in all schools, had been, according to the testimony of school committees and superintendents, well observed, but the proposed law was to be very much more stringent. It provided that all pupils below the second year of the high

school and above the third year of primary school should study this subject from graded text-books in the hands of each pupil, not less than three lessons per week for fourteen or more weeks each year. The amount of space to be devoted to the subject in the text-books was specified; school committees were required to see that the subject was provided for in the course of study; heavy penalties were to be inflicted in case of non-compliance; the state board was required to enter into an elaborate investigation each year, to see if all the provisions of the law were carried out, and to make an annual report to the legislature concerning the same. This proposed law was so contrary to all the traditions and practice of Massachusetts that, at once, there was developed an amount of opposition which surprised the promoters of the bill.

They claimed to have petitions bearing the names of forty thousand persons, but it was soon shown that this claim was spurious. Churches, prayer-meetings, Sunday schools, and Christian Endeavor Societies had been asked to vote in favor of a more stringent temperance law, and, as all good people are quite ready to do anything that promotes that object, there was no difficulty in getting the names; but even at the conference of ministers, where the subject was first broached, and where several persons succeeded in getting themselves appointed as a committee to urge this legislation, the proposed bill was not read, very few knew anything about what its provisions were to be, and very many of the clergymen present came out afterward as opponents of the measure. The Massachusetts Medical Society, under the leadership of Dr. H. P. Bowditch, of Harvard University, and the State Board of Education, were prominent in opposition. The Massachusetts Association of School Superintendents fortunately had a meeting just before the hearings began, and voted unanimously to oppose the measure. Matters were brought before two or three of the ministerial associations of Boston, and, while no action was taken, it was apparent that a large majority of the clergymen of those associations were not in favor of the bill. The legislative committee on education, fortunately, was a most intelligent one.

It is not necessary for me to review at length the pernicious features of that bill. It was a reflection upon the honesty and capability of school committees, a blow at the freedom of the teacher, and was directly contrary to sound pedagogy, especially in respect to the use of text-books. It not only tended to force upon the minds of little children subjects for which they were unprepared, but was a travesty on modern education by assuming that text-book instruction on physiology as to the effects of alcohol can be scientific. Perhaps the coercive features of the bill were more obnoxious to the educational people of Massachusetts than would have been the case in some other states. Whatever success has been attained in the commonwealth, educationally, has been by co-operation and moral suasion, and while it has long seemed that the state board should have more authority in certain directions, no one would wish to crush the spirit of independence and local option which was manifested in this particular issue. The teachers of Massachusetts felt keenly that their intelligence and sincerity had been questioned. They were unwilling to have a law passed compelling them to do what their temperance principles and their regard for the best interests of children would lead them to do cheerfully without compulsion. They believed that wise, discreet, discriminating instruction upon the subject of temperance, given to children at an age when they can understand and appreciate its importance, was better than such devitalized and machine methods as the proposed law contemplated.

It was most gratifying to see the nearly unanimous opposition of the press. Religious papers, which have always stood for temperance, were ready to oppose this extreme measure. Only one clergyman besides the authors of the bill appeared in its favor. The arguments against it were overwhelming both on the side of temperance, sound pedagogy, and good citizenship. The committee on education, in a report of remarkably good sense and clearness, recognized all the objections which were brought forward and gave the petitioners leave to withdraw.

The inference given during the early part of the case was that in many states equally rigid laws have been passed, but it turned out that in only a few had there been legislation similar to that demanded in Massachusetts. One of these states, as many of you know, is New York, where four years ago, in spite of the opposition of teachers, state officers of education, college officials, and prominent clergymen, the legislature passed a law which was denounced at the time in the most unsparing terms by Bishop Potter, President Low of Columbia, the president of Vassar College, and many other men of high standing.

Taking New York as a typical instance, it is apparent to us all that one of two things must happen. If the law is obeyed, there is given an amount of unscientific and unsound instruction which can only work harm to the rising generation. On the other hand, wherever the law is ignored there is before the children and youth an example of law-breaking which can only be injurious. Equally unwholesome is the spectacle of conscientious teachers attempting to do under coercion and by a false method what they could accomplish in a much better way working spontaneously and using rational means. The fact that the legislature of New York showed such a cheerful disposition in passing the law suggests that many of its members thought it would do no harm to the liquor traffic. One senator, being pressed to tell why it was that they yielded to the seductive influence of the "central committee," replied, smilingly: "We did it to please the ladies." I cannot believe that New York will long rest under the incubus of this unrighteous law, and I am sure that those present here today are ready to extend a helping hand to her or to any other state that is suffering under this kind of legislation.

I infer that in most states it has been found possible, as in Massachusetts, to interpret the existing laws in such a way that the instruction can be given to such grades and in such a manner as school committees and superintendents approve. I believe the time has come when an attempt to enact more stringent laws will meet with prompt and signal defeat.

As touching the main question of the validity of so-called scientific temperance instruction, we have to consider the character of the text-books, the nature of the subject-matter which they contain, the manner in which they have been revised and corrected, sometimes to the discomfort of the authors themselves, the methods employed in securing their adoption, and the general influence upon the schools and upon good morals of such teaching.

Time will not permit me to enlarge upon this matter, but we can well appreciate the remark which one of these authors made to Dr. Bowditch. When asked how he could justify such unscientific statements, he responded with warmth: "I have studied physiology, and I do not wish you to suppose that I have fallen so low as to believe all the things I have to put into those books."

From the point of view of temperance, sound education, and good morals, I am sure that this condition of affairs calls for our strong disapproval. We do not teach hygiene by the study of disease, cleanliness by the observation of filth, purity by the contemplation of vice; and to force upon every child one hundred lessons or five hundred lessons on the effects of alcohol is likely to take away his sensitiveness and to make him morbid or indifferent, if it does not bring about a reaction which leads him to say: "I am going to try it." Children who are taught that wine and tobacco are absolute poisons, and who see their fathers, brothers, and friends constantly indulging in these stimulants, can only look with ridicule and contempt upon this effort to deceive and frighten them. It is certain that the teachers who have tried conscientiously to give this instruction have often seriously questioned whether they are not justified in evading the requirements of the law in order to avoid the greater evils which were likely to follow the teaching.

Now, it goes without saying that a great many good people throughout the country have been committed to scientific temperance instruction. The "central committee," in the exercise of a superior generalship in which it is proficient, has not found it difficult to

keep its forces thoroly organized in nearly every state in the union. A few postal cards and a few hours of time at any juncture have been sufficient to set the machinery in motion. I have no desire to impugn the motives of any of these people.

Who, on the other hand, are those who are opposed to these stringent laws and who seriously question the wisdom of treating this subject by statute differently from other subjects of instruction? I can only say, as far as Massachusetts is concerned, that those who were in opposition last year are avowedly temperance people. Some of them are members of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and other temperance organizations. They believe in bringing a strong temperance influence to bear, not only in the school, but thru the pulpit, the press, in the home, and in the community. They are willing to unite and work for any wholesome measure that will facilitate the temperance movement. They are unwilling to be numbered in the rum party. Without doubt the same thing can be said of the educational people in New York who opposed the obnoxious law. It is true everywhere.

As I have before intimated, is it not possible that the time has come for the crystallization of a sentiment thruout the country which will at least hold in check those who have so constantly defied the professional judgment of the educational world? Should there not go out from this meeting, so representative in its character, a sentiment and a purpose which shall give direction and guidance to all those who, disapproving of present methods, are still ready to support the highest ethical standards in our schools, and who are among the sincerest and, as I believe, the truest friends of temperance?

RICHARD G. BOONE, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, O.—I take it that we are all under great obligation to Professor Atwater for his courageous words upon an important question, most courteously spoken. Schoolmen and -women generally are interested in and are in sympathy with the purposes of all serious temperance instruction and the great temperance organizations, and not least with the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. The evils of intemperance are many and difficult to escape. It behooves every one of philanthropic mind and unselfish interest to make his influence touching this question felt in the direction of sound teaching of temperance, moderation, and self-control.

But my acquaintance with schoolmen and -women, both in and out of schools, during the last twenty years, has convinced me that the thoughtful ones among them have, in increasing numbers and with growing conviction, come to feel that the prevailing attempt to teach the nature and conditions and dangers of intemperance is pedagogically wrong and vicious. The method which has taken form in legislation, and has been put into the schoolrooms of almost a score of states, and is embodied in books that are both authorized and pushed, fixes the attention of children upon the thing that all agree should be avoided. When youths, are made good users of English thru attention to inaccurate and distorted speech, when they are taught to spell correctly by insisting upon the correction of misspellings, when men are made polite and refined by living in the presence of boorishness, then, possibly, the youths may be taught temperance by a study of intemperance, disease, and the filth of drunkenness.

Thoughtful teachers do not object to the purposes of the temperance movement, but they should see, as many of them do, the evils of the methods of instruction and indoctrination. In no other subject of the school course does the law attempt to prescribe just what shall be taught. Specific interpretations of history are not insisted upon, nor any particular school of literary criticism, nor any exclusive hypothesis in science, nor any special doctrine of morals. But it has too often happened that text-books and advocates of scientific temperance instruction insist upon the indoctrination of children with an adopted temperance creed, and resent any critical inquiry into the scientific soundness of that creed. The validity of the knowledge-assumptions underlying this creed Professor Atwater has sought to test. Whatever the truth is, we who love our children and are

solicitous for their welfare can rest assured that, when found, this same truth will be our ally.

C. F. CARROLL, superintendent of schools, Worcester, Mass.—It has been intimated by a former speaker that by this date we ought to have some common views with reference to the subject of temperance. What we have seen today suggests that, for the most part, the members of this body stand upon common ground. I believe that we may say the same with reference to the great majority of the best people in the land. Certainly the people of Massachusetts have generally reached an agreement with regard to the fundamental principles involved in temperance education. This has been made apparent in the unprecedented interest shown in this subject in the legislative hearings at Boston last winter.

Mr. Dutton has touched lightly, and, let me say, very considerably, upon this fact. Many of the men of Massachusetts who are present here could give testimony upon this point. They know, as Mr. Dutton knows, and as I know, that we have been saved from humiliation and loss of self-respect by the stand taken by the superintendents and teachers of Massachusetts. This proposed legislation was offensive and awakened the most dignified and positive protest heard in our legislature for years.

I believe that it would be in order for me to speak a little more positively than Mr. Dutton has done, tho I hope that I shall say nothing that is uncharitable or unkind. We honor and respect the members of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Members of my family have worked faithfully for many years in the interests of the cause of temperance. I wish to put myself right at this point and to claim that, with other members of my profession, I am in favor of such temperance instruction as the best teachers can recommend. This little company of leaders has covered the land with a network of legislation. They have done this without consulting the teachers, and practically stated at the hearing at Boston that it did not seem to them advisable to seek the counsel and the co-operation of the teachers in framing such legislation. We protest earnestly against this theory and insist that the intelligent body of men and women engaged in the profession of teaching are the only persons competent to decide either what this legislation should be or how it should be carried into effect.

These reformers have insisted, first, that books should be used in temperance instruction, and, second, that these books should be only such as they themselves have approved. In the first place, we object that there is no reason why they should approve such text-books, and, second, we claim that to force text-books upon children in connection with this subject is equivalent to taking us back in the history of education fifty years. Such text-book instruction as they provide and recommend is strictly against the judgment and practice of every normal school in the country. I have for eleven years been connected with normal-school work, and know whereof I speak when I say that it is the aim and pride of normal schools to do away with instruction from the text-book. Much more is it contrary to all experience and to the settled principles of pedagogy that anyone should prescribe arbitrarily how much instruction should be given in any subject. Except in this connection, no state statute has ever attempted to interfere with such details. There is not a superintendent present who would willingly employ a teacher who, of her own accord, would follow the text-book or such principles prescribed from without.

If it is proper, I should like to say something about the book-makers. There are many of them present here today. They are our friends and the friends of education, and intend to furnish us books that are up to date and that would be approved from a scientific standpoint. It is a little singular that they send us samples of all other kinds of books, but seldom send us any book on temperance. I have not received such a book for years. I am convinced that they are ashamed of these so-called temperance books. If I am not mistaken, let them speak or be forever silent. What one of them would dare to urge such temperance books because they bear on the title-page the inscription,

"Approved by the president of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union"? If they are invited to engage in conversation upon this subject, they smile, look above or below, and as soon as possible pass to some other subject and leave you to draw your own conclusions.

The next clause of the proposed legislation required that all children in our schools should study these text-books. All of our primary teachers would be compelled to violate their consciences under a statute thus imposed. They would be called upon to teach temperance in such amounts and for such a time. If they failed, they were, according to the proposed statute, to pay a fine for their failure to comply with the law. Members of boards of education were liable to be fined if teachers failed to comply with the law. These men are elected to serve without pay. What a spectacle! In Massachusetts we have escaped from the extreme proposed in this law.

I wish to add, Mr. Chairman, that, so far as I am informed, the state board of Massachusetts stands in solid opposition to such unseemly legislation. The clergy are practically unanimous in their denunciation of these measures, not only in Massachusetts, but elsewhere. The *Outlook*, of New York, and the *Congregationalist*, of Boston, are illustrations of papers that speak in no doubtful tone. The legislative committee and the legislature are practically unanimous. Nothing has so stirred many of the people of Massachusetts since the days of the Rebellion as this movement, and I believe I shall be supported in my view by those present from Massachusetts when I say that these people who are apparently well-meaning are absolutely isolated and alone in the extreme position which they have assumed. This is strong language, but the situation appears to me to demand such a statement, and I am perfectly willing to take the consequences.

The only object in bringing this question into this convention is, first, that the truth which has been disguised and concealed should be known abroad, and, second, that, as a consequence, any such measures as were proposed in Massachusetts may be met in advance and defeated whenever they may be attempted in other states. The influence of this body certainly ought to be exerted to regulate this question.

I wish to repeat what I stated above, namely, that the superintendents of New England are a body of earnest men, faithful in the discharge of their duty, anxious to improve the schools morally and otherwise, and that they stand for temperance and are ready to work together for the enforcement of any law which, in their judgment, will meet the conditions and not do violence to their judgment and conscience.

FRANCIS W. PARKER, president of Chicago Institute.—I wish to say a word for the great-hearted and good-hearted women who have brought about this state of things. They have done and are doing an immense deal of good, devoting themselves as they do to the elevation of mankind. Whatever the defects of the text-book plan of teaching physiology may be, they are by no means to blame for them. This plan is bred in our blood and bones, it has been taught us by the schoolmasters thruout the centuries, it has been handed down to us from the universities, it has penetrated and holds the vast majority to reverence the words of the text-book. Learn the page by heart, and there will enter your soul knowledge and goodness. Learn the catechism, and you are religious. Learn the pages of the book, and you are a scholar. The good women of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union are not to blame, I say, for carrying into action that which they have learned from all of us, namely, that knowledge is the end and aim of education. The supposition is that the *words* will in some mysterious way benefit the learner. We have everywhere examinations for quantity of knowledge. I remember that when I was in the army our good friends in the North sent us desiccated potatoes to prevent scurvy. The boys used to call that kind of potato the "desecrated" potato. Just so the text-book is often "desecrated" knowledge. It is dried and condensed so that it may be learned by heart. Now our good friends and the friends of all humanity, the leading women of America, have adopted the same plan in the teaching of physiology to prevent intemperance. And why should they not believe it is right when it has such a powerful

indorsement? These good women, under the teaching of the past, naturally conclude that, if children learn page by page of the evil effects of alcohol, they will be temperate; if they learn the catechism and chapters in the Bible, they will be religious. This is the awful delusion. Some day we shall come to the belief that the school is the place for character-building, for the development of citizenship; a place where temperance is lived, and not merely taught in words. The school is the place where all habits of righteousness should be inculcated. If we bear this in mind, we can decide what books to use, what mind-nutrition to present. We have not yet learned in a full measure the words of Christ: "He that doeth the will shall know of the doctrine." We have repeated them over and over again, but they have not sunk into our souls, they have not been carried into our lives. Let us bear our burdens as best we may. We schoolmasters taught these noble women, and they are now teaching us by the same method.

DR. D. L. KIEHLE, professor of pedagogy, University of Minnesota.—It is with a peculiar satisfaction that I listen to the discussion of this hour. It seems that judgment is getting back to Boston.

It is but twelve years ago that, in the state of Minnesota, we heard our chains clanking from Boston, and we had the most terrific battle on this temperance question that has ever been witnessed in this country. Many of our own friends took to cover, and we hardly heard a lisp thruout the nation in sympathy or support. The temperance law adopted in Minnesota required temperance instruction in every grade in school. The committee, of which I was a member as superintendent of public instruction, with the presidents of the normal schools, was required to select appropriate text-books to carry out the provisions of the law.

As supporters of the temperance movement and of temperance instruction, we thought we ought to give first consideration to the recommendations of the representative temperance and Christian body of America. The only condition we insisted upon was that the book for scientific matter should be indorsed by responsible scientific authority. We soon learned that that qualification would not answer; that there was but one book "approved" and to be considered. It was demanded that we adopt a book that was "indorsed and approved" without reference to scientific authority, and we were informed that the state officer who did not obey the will of these representatives of the Temperance Union could not retain his position. Let me say, then, that we fought the fight out, and we put in books that were both good and scientifically correct, where we put in any. We issued a circular requiring temperance instruction all the way up, in every grade, after a plan reasonably regardful of the elementary principles of pedagogy. We stood for a principle, and that was that, while it is within the province of the public to require results, prescribe subjects to be taught, and see to it that the work is done, it is an unwarrantable intrusion upon the province of the teacher for the Woman's Christian Temperance Union or its national superintendent to dictate details of methods, times, books, and pages. We fought the fight victoriously, making public exposure of the crooked methods practiced in the effort to secure the adoption of the "approved series." We were threatened with a libel suit which has not been brought to date. You can understand why I am glad to see you sharing the responsibility of settling a principle that is of as great importance to the profession as that of temperance.

DR. GEORGE W. WEBSTER, Northwestern University Medical School, Chicago.—I do not wish to discuss this except from the side of the physician. The question is one of definition and of classification as well as one of truth. In the classification of alcohol, or morphine, or arsenic, or strychnine, or anything else, what is the basis of classification? It is its dominating characteristics. We have had a poison defined here, but a food has not been defined. We have been told that a poison is anything that always does harm. Now, that definition of a poison, as understood by those of us who know something about poison, is perfectly absurd. The poisons that are the strongest are

oftentimes those that in therapeutics are the most valuable, and they are not always poisonous. When classifying alcohol as a food or as a poison, we must consider its dominating characteristics. It has been demonstrated that 10 per cent. of the mortality in large cities is caused by alcoholism. This should be sufficient to classify alcohol as a poison. These men who claim that it has some food value claim nothing new. That has been known a long time. But we also know that the heat liberated by the dilatation of the blood vessels by alcohol is greater than that which the alcohol supplies. The sum total is minus instead of plus; therefore its food value is negative.

HON. HENRY SABIN, of Iowa.—There is not very much that I want to say, but I am deeply moved. I am astonished that in all this great audience there is not a man of strength and power who dares stand up here and face you in spite of your applause, and defend that great organization—the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. I have known these women for more than a score of years; I have been in their confidence; I have counseled with them; and for sincerity of purpose, for purity of heart, for keen appreciation of moral questions, they are peerless. I tell you that the young men coming onto the stage of action today owe these dauntless workers in a great cause a debt of gratitude which they cannot pay in the next century. Now I want to ask you a question. Here is one young man who comes to the age of twenty-one years. He has been brought up in the idea that alcohol is a poison, and he finds that he has been mistaken. You say that a terrible thing has happened, and that he is going to distrust the truth ever after. He has lost his faith in everything. Here is another young man who has been brought up in the idea that alcohol is a food; that he may use it occasionally; that it is not so very dangerous after all; and when he comes to the age of twenty-five he finds that a most terrible appetite has fastened its fangs upon him, and what is he going to say about the instruction of his youth? Which of the two young men has the more cause to complain of the instruction of his teacher? I leave the question with you to decide.

"Character," the speaker says, "is everything" I say amen to that. Let the truth be told. We do not fear the truth, only let it be established as such beyond all controversy. Teach the child temperance in the light of *experience* as well as in the light of science. Teach the children in school that alcohol has filled our poorhouses with paupers; that it has filled our insane asylums with the insane; that it has filled our graveyards with the dead. Teach them another thing: that there are fathers and mothers in this land today, gray-haired men, going down to their graves in sorrow for their boys, because of this alcoholic food. There are more parents who are moaning and weeping over their living children than there are who weep and mourn for their dead. Teach the children in the light of experience what alcohol is doing for the race. I know many of you to be good temperance men and women. I beg of you to stand by your guns; do not waver, no matter from whence the attack comes—whether from one man or from a thousand. We will win a victory yet—a victory greater by far than Grant won at Richmond, greater than Sherman won at Atlanta, greater than Dewey won at Manila.

SUPERINTENDENT JOSEPH CARTER, Champaign, Ill.—I want to indorse, as I believe this audience does, the presentation at this meeting of these wonderfully careful experiments by Dr. Atwater. No one doubts the correctness of his statements, nor does anyone question, at this time, his conclusions. We all believe in truth and are not afraid of it, wherever it may come from. But all the truth has not been told in this discussion. No one has told of the woeful ravages of alcohol; and that to check these ravages the temperance books, which Dr. Atwater pronounces incorrect, are used in our schools. It may be that there are statements in these books which are not true in the light of recent experiments. If that is the case, let the books be corrected. Some of you who are so swift to find fault with these books should make a correct one; and when you have made it you will find publishers ready to print it, and we who direct schools will be ready to adopt and use it; for, gentlemen, I do know that if your book tells the whole truth about alcohol, it must still be a temperance manual.

But now, regarding this temperance teaching—I live in a town where we follow the law. Our Illinois law is somewhat in our way. For instance, the ten weeks of physiology teaching the first year of the high school, just after eight years in the grades, and before the pupils have studied chemistry and biology, is a bad arrangement. But in spite of this, and in spite of these books which you pronounce defective, I do believe, and I believe it is the judgment of many superintendents of schools in Illinois, that under this law we are doing a good work, that we are lessening the evils of intemperance, that we are lessening the number of saloons in this state, and that we are teaching the boys of Illinois that alcohol is dangerous—even if it is not a poison—and training them to shun its abiding place, the saloon. It may be that these temperance laws, as they have been written by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, are not quite in accord with some of your ideas of pedagogy, but they certainly are an effort in the right direction, and their effects are beneficial.

I do not know how it is in Massachusetts, but out here in the Mississippi valley we have no fear of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. They are not oppressors, nor opponents of the best interests of our schools, but, on the contrary, they are first and foremost in every good word and work that will help our schools in training citizens for this free republic.

DR. WINFIELD S. HALL, professor of physiology in Northwestern University Medical School, Chicago.—I believe I voice the sentiment of an overwhelming majority of this convention when I say that as teachers—I have been a teacher for about twenty years—we are strongly against intemperance, and that without an exception we are strongly in favor of teaching children temperance principles, founded upon all the truth that we can get. Now, I believe I am on uncontrovertible ground when I say that it is certainly the purpose of all friends of temperance instruction in schools to get at the truth as soon as possible, and to have nothing in the books that does not represent the consensus of the best scientific opinion. It has been made very clear this afternoon, in the splendid address that has appealed to everyone, that these questions regarding food are controversial questions; they are questions upon which there is a great difference of opinion. Now, those who have written these books have tried to mirror in them the consensus of the best scientific opinion. I could quote page after page from men of international reputation on this question of alcohol as a food, showing that many of them say that under particular conditions alcohol may have, or seem to have, food value. Still, in the enumeration of foods not one of these men includes alcohol. I have looked over many of these common-school text-books, and I can say, in the light of many years' experience teaching in all the grades, that there are many changes which ought to be made on pedagogical grounds; the changes which ought to be made on scientific grounds are only technicalities. I testify, as a specialist in physiology, that the physiological teachings of these books are correct in the main.

C. G. PEARSE, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Neb.—Perhaps I ought to put off what little I have to say until tomorrow morning, when this discussion is to be resumed, but I would rather say it tonight, if the chairman will permit me, because in the morning we may not be in the spirit, and something of the connection may be lost.

As I have listened to this discussion and have seen the earnestness put into it by those who have spoken upon the one side or the other, it has seemed to me that the important thing, as we go away from this meeting, is the question of our attitude, and it seems to me most important that we should not misunderstand each other. All of us here who are schoolmasters and have this afternoon discussed this question have the greatest respect for the Woman's Christian Temperance Union as a body. We respect the motives which actuate its members. We feel profound admiration for the great work which this organization has done. We admire, not only the organization, but its members, many of whom thru ties of blood and marriage we have a right to love and do

love. Therefore, when we schoolmasters discuss some phases of this great movement with which they have been identified, even if some criticisms of method are made, it is not to be taken that we do not reverence and respect them and their work. If, in the campaigns that have been carried on, some things have been done that do not square with our ideas of fairness or good public policy; if in some cases unworthy means have been resorted to in the effort to accomplish what seemed to be good ends; if, in manipulations looking toward the preparation or adoption or approval of certain text-books, things have been done which will not well bear investigation, neither this organization nor the noble women forming the great mass of its membership should be held responsible, for none of us for a moment believes that the great, earnest army of women enlisted in this organization sanctions or would countenance any questionable measures or tactics.

On the other hand, neither should our good friends of the union feel, because we sometimes have criticised methods employed by certain persons, or statements made, or personal attacks which have been directed toward some of us who did not agree with all the methods attempted or followed, that we are unfriendly to them, or that we do not indorse that which is good and beautiful, or that we do not sympathize with them in their high aims.

We schoolmasters who here today have discussed this problem are sincere. We are temperate men. Few, if any, of us are wine bibbers. We believe in temperance, both theoretically and practically—temperance in all things, even in teaching about temperance. We believe in the teaching of scientific temperance. We believe in the teaching of truth. We will hold up your hands in all ways that we can to bring about a knowledge of right living, and to promote temperance in eating and in drinking and in indulgence of all kinds. And because some of us, in some cases, have objected to some methods pursued; because in some cases some of us have refused to indorse methods which certain organized agencies just then believed were the only correct methods; because we have retained the right of independent judgment, we do not feel that we should be personally assailed or crucified upon the cross of public scorn.

MRS. MARY H. HUNT, national superintendent of scientific temperance instruction of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union.—The study of hygiene, with physiology enough to make the hygiene intelligible, has been introduced into the public schools of this country. It is difficult to understand why anyone should oppose it. True, this study has been made compulsory for all pupils in all schools, and it includes the nature of alcoholic drinks and other narcotics, but our boys and girls must live in their bodies as long as they stay in this world, and they need to be taught how to take such care of them that these bodies will be strong, beautiful servants of the mind, instead of the mind becoming the servant of weak bodies and debasing appetites. There are no dangers in the ambushed paths of life which the children of this land need more to be warned against than those attending the use of alcoholic drinks and other narcotics. The representatives of seventy-three millions of the American people, in Congress and state legislatures assembled, realizing this, have enacted these temperance physiology laws because they believe that individual and public good demand it, and we should be able to count upon the co-operation of all good men and women as executors of these laws.

We are asked to discuss this morning the paper of Professor Atwater. He would have us teach that alcohol has a food value and is not a poison. If that be true, then we should so teach. At this point let me say that there is no aspersion cast upon those who have been instrumental in securing the study in our schools that is more absolutely unjust than the accusation that for effect we want untruth about alcohol taught. We are not so idiotic. The man who makes this accusation, if he is candid, thereby shows that he does not understand his times. The educated women of today are keeping step with their brothers in knowledge. They have been to college. As students and investigators

they know almost as much as you gentlemen. Almost, I say, lest you should deem it disrespectful if full equality in attainment should be claimed. Professor Atwater quoted a woman as asking: "Wouldn't it be right in teaching a boy against alcohol to deceive him until his character is formed?"

That woman and her question must have emanated from the brain fog of some opposer to scientific temperance education who was trying to find out for himself whether three glasses of whisky or a bottle of Rhine wine is isodynamic with certain amounts of sugar, fat, and starch. She does not belong in our ranks.

The advocates of scientific temperance education in our public schools know that their cause has nothing to fear from the truth. They also know that

"Truth alone is strong
And, albeit she wander outcast now, I see around her throng
Troops of beautiful, tall angels, to enshield her from all wrong."

"The truth shall make you free," is no vain promise. If teaching the children of this country that alcohol has a food value is teaching them truth, then it will eventuate in good to the individual, the home, society, and citizenship. If the crime, misery, poverty, and madness that have heretofore resulted from the use of alcohol as a beverage are only myths, then let them give place to this old new story of alcohol a food. But, Mr. Chairman, we can accept nothing but positive proof at this point; the issue is too great. Assumption and assertion amount to nothing, juggling with definitions to worse than nothing.

"Anything that nourishes the body without injuring it" is what the people understand by a food. It is a good, honest definition, accepted by sincere men, both in and out of scientific ranks. Is alcohol a food and shall we so teach the children? is the question before us.

Professor Atwater, as I understand it, bases his claim of food value in alcohol on his experiments made at Middletown, Conn. The story of these experiments was first given to the public on the thirteenth of last June. The thoughtful people of this country were startled to receive newspaper reports of his claim that he had proved that alcohol, when taken in the amount usually found in three glasses of whisky or one bottle of Rhine wine per day, is as much food as sugar, fat, and starch, and that therefore the pulpit, platform, Sunday school, and public school are in error in teaching that alcohol is a poison and not a food. These and similar declarations, always accompanied with attacks on scientific temperance teaching, appeared and reappeared with variations in the newspapers of the land of well-nigh five months, before a scrap of other evidence was given the public in proof of these remarkable statements which are at variance with some of the best and latest utterances of modern science.

Not until the sixth of last November was Professor Atwater's Bulletin No. 69, containing his first official report of these much-vaunted experiments, given to the public. Accompanying this bulletin his Circular No. 357 was sent to the press of the country for publication. The last sentence of this circular says: "The bulletin is very technical and not for general distribution." With all due respect to the culture of Middletown, happily there are in the United States, outside of that city, some other people able to understand technicalities and therefore to study this bulletin with its tables. Its accompanying Circular No. 357 contains the deductions drawn from the experiments described in the bulletin. These deductions are exactly what I understood Professor Atwater to state from this platform yesterday, viz.:

1. In the case of the man experimented upon the alcohol was almost completely oxidized in the body.
2. The potential energy of the alcohol burned was transformed into heat or muscular energy.
3. The alcohol protected the material of the body from consumption just as effectively as corresponding amounts of sugar, starch, and fats.

In the first place, it is a fact that other well-known and violent poisons, as muscarine, morphia, etc., are also oxidized in the body, liberating heat and energy, but their bad

effects show that such oxidation proves nothing in their favor; neither does it in the case of alcohol. It would be ridiculous to call morphia or muscarine foods because when taken they are oxidized in the body. It is equally so to make a like claim for alcohol. It is the sum total of the effects of a substance that must be considered in deciding whether it is a food or a poison.

To state the fact that alcohol liberates in the body heat and energy, and to say in that connection no more of its heat-and energy-producing power, is to state half-truths. An increased number of heat units are evolved by alcohol, but at the same time it so paralyzes the nerves in the walls of the blood vessels that an unnatural amount of blood rushing to the surface is cooled, and more heat is radiated from the body of the drinker than the alcohol liberates. These easily demonstrated facts leave alcohol no place whatever as a fuel food. The energy that the oxidation of alcohol in the body liberates is of brief duration, and is under such poor nerve control that working ability as a whole is so much impaired by alcohol that business today demands total abstinence of its employes. Therefore both science and experience deny to alcohol any food value as a supporter of energy.

On p. 73 of the bulletin is table No. 7, where are recorded the effects day by day as the man in the calorimeter took alcohol for six successive days. If the material of the body had been protected during that time, as Professor Atwater states in his third deduction, there should have been a plus sign before the column of nitrogen, showing that the man did not lose protein, but we find the contrary, showing that the man lost the most valuable of all body material each day he took the alcohol. Turn to the other table, No. 10, and we find there was a slight gain in protein for one day only, but a decline the other days. These tables were submitted to experts in four of our great medical colleges, quite as well qualified to do original work as our friends at Middletown. I read here from the report of Professor C. A. Herter, who is not simply a chemist, but a physician and professor of pathological chemistry in Bellevue Hospital Medical School, New York city:

One fails to find any support for the view that alcohol protected the material of the body like sugar, fats, or starch, in the report of Professor Atwater, according to his own figures. Those in experiment No. 7, where 417 grams of protein were given in four days, show that there was a loss of nitrogen equivalent to 48.2 grams of protein. In the other alcoholic experiment, No. 10, there is a similar, though somewhat smaller, loss of nitrogen. One is, therefore, compelled to admit that these experiments do not support this third conclusion of Professor Atwater.

Please remember that it is on that third conclusion that Professor Atwater's argument mainly rests that alcohol acts as a food.

This view of Professor Herter is supported by Professor Seneca Egbert, M.D., professor of physiology in one of the great medical colleges in Philadelphia, and also by Professor Frank Woodbury, M.D., a well-known writer on therapeutics, who is connected with another medical college of Philadelphia. This pamphlet which I hold in my hand, entitled "An Appeal to Truth," contains like testimony from Winfield S. Hall, M.D., a professor of physiology in one of the medical colleges in this city, Chicago.

You will recall that the ten experiments described in Bulletin 69 are Professor Atwater's only published data upon which rests his claim of a food value for alcohol. In only two of these experiments was the man given alcohol, and in both of these he lost most valuable body material; therefore, Mr. Chairman and friends, inasmuch as this testimony is not contradicted by the experience of centuries, we cannot conscientiously recommend that the children of this country be taught that alcohol is a food.

Honest opposition to temperance teaching is based on misapprehension. Critics have widely published the false charge that our requirements are ridiculous or unpedagogical. These absurdities are what you are opposed to and not our true position. For instance, it was said on this platform yesterday that we claim that "alcohol in the smallest quantity always does harm." I challenge anyone to find such a statement in any of the

indorsed physiologies. What we do say is that because alcohol is a narcotic a little has the power to create an uncontrollable and destructive appetite for more, and, therefore, a little is always dangerous. No one can deny that statement. It is as undeniable as the law of gravitation, and nobody has ever brought a scrap of proof that controverts it. Two facts—first, that alcohol is a narcotic, and, second, that it has, like other narcotics, a cumulative attraction for itself—are the fundamental scientific reasons for total abstinence. I thank God and take courage for the republic as I remember the millions of children in our land who are being taught these reasons.

And now with regard to that English assertion about alcohol not being a poison, quoted here yesterday, and said to have been signed by certain physiologists. To the best of my recollection it was that “when taken in quantities and ways that cause no injurious effect alcohol cannot be called a poison.”

There is probably not a brain-worker in this presence who has not had strychnine prescribed for him by the doctor. If it acted upon you as it does upon me, you took it “in quantities and ways that cause no injurious effects.” But you would not, therefore, say that strychnine is not a poison. It is special pleading to attempt such a claim in the case of alcohol.

Out of the thirty indorsed text-books on temperance physiology in our list there are three, written some sixteen years ago, that make statements which can be distorted. Please note I say *can be distorted* into meaning that alcohol is not oxidized in the system. Two of those books are being revised, the third is practically out of use. Of the other indorsed books which Professor Atwater attacked it can in all truthfulness be said that they are as accurate in statement and pedagogical in construction as are any other school text-books now in use. They have been again and again submitted to the best scientific authorities with the request that any inaccuracies be pointed out, and every suggestion that truth warrants has been and ever will be incorporated in them.

In closing, please allow me to say you have criticised our methods in securing the legislation that makes this study compulsory. They have been to carry the case to the final tribunal, the source of power under our government, the people. The people have instructed their lawmakers to pass these laws. You think we should have withdrawn our endeavors when we saw that any schoolmen objected. We would gladly have done so if you could have assured us that the temptations our children will meet in life will be so withdrawn as to leave no call for this warning education. You complain of our persistence. There is nothing more persistent than mother-love when the child is in peril. As to the personal allusions, I will only say that I have long since ceased trying to defend my co-workers and myself in this cause. Whoever attempts to advocate an unwelcome truth that rebukes a popular evil will find he is treading the paths martyrs have trod. Such a one will be battle-scarred. I make no apology in this presence for having been somewhat instrumental in placing sixteen million of our school children under temperance education laws. No one could do that without meeting opposition of the kind that will turn and strike back. To this I make no reply, but a nation saved from the thralldom of strong drink thru its schools and school children will be abundant reward.

MRS. JESSIE WILLARD BOLTE, Winnetka, Ill.—Professionally I have no claim to address this body. I stand here simply as a mother, but motherhood is a pretty good profession. As a kinswoman of Frances Willard it would ill become me to depreciate the admirable work of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. What I say now is said from the standpoint of a mother and of a member of the school board. The village where I live has a population of about two thousand, between five and six hundred of whom are children of school age and younger. This clearly indicates the object of our dwelling in the suburbs. We live there to keep our children away from city sights and sounds. To my knowledge my small daughter of ten has only once or

twice seen a drunken man, and I object to having this repulsive and unnecessary knowledge thrust upon her.

We want our children to grow up in communion with the lake and the woods, the flowers and the trees; we want them to live with nature. Educators in crowded districts are so alive to the value of nature study that they take small scraps of the country to the less favored children of the city. We are striving to fulfill Froebel's injunction, so to fill the child's mind with the beautiful that there shall be no room for the unbeautiful. But how shall we find time for nature work when outsiders force studies into our school curriculum under iron-clad rules?

As a mother I object to the time devoted to this study of alcohol-physiology, and also to its object-lessons. As an ex-member of the school board of Winnetka I object to the text-books as inartistic and unscientific. At the times these books were introduced I was on the committee on teachers and text-books, and I conscientiously read every book from cover to cover. I would never do it again. I know better now.

As mother and school trustee both, I insist that no one except an expert shall interfere with our school curriculum. Not one of us but would indignantly resent the interference of any body of persons who should dictate to our physicians what they should prescribe in all cases or any cases.

I do not object to the action of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union any more than I would object to a similar action on the part of a body of ministers, doctors, lawyers, or taxpayers. The investigations into the psychology of the child-mind which are now being prosecuted by Dr. G. Stanley Hall and our own Dr. Colin Scott, besides many others, have already indicated that the child can best assimilate certain classes of facts at certain periods of mental development. What right has any person, or body of persons, to dictate how, when, and where the child shall study any subject without a scientific knowledge of the child's mental status? So I say to all except the school expert: "The school curriculum is not your business; hands off!"

I want temperance taught in our schools from our kindergarten thru our universities. Not only temperance in drink, but temperance in food and temperance in conduct. I want my child taught to stop and enjoy a flower by the wayside and then leave it for the next passer-by to enjoy, rather than to pluck it and throw it aside. I want my child taught to pass by the penny slot machine with his penny tight clasped in his small fist and then drop it into the penny savings bank.

Self-control, the building of character, these are what our schools stand for, and temperance—true temperance—means self-control in all ways. Let us teach temperance, then, not forgetting that where the whisky bottle has slain its thousands the frying-pan has slain its tens of thousands.

PROFESSOR ATWATER (answers questions and closes the discussion):

Question: Is the statement that alcohol is a food in a limited sense a new one, or has it been more or less controverted for many years?

Answer: Not a new one, but an old one. The father of physiological chemistry, Liebig, in classifying food materials distinguished between what he called respiratory foods on the one hand and the plastic on the other, and he put alcohol among the list of respiratory foods. He also assigned to it a definite food value—about the value that the latest research gives it.

Question: Why is it that the statement that alcohol is a partial food, that it has some nutritive value, should be announced as a new discovery, when it is as old as physiological chemistry?

Answer: Because the public have been miseducated on this subject and have not understood the facts.

Let me call your attention once more to what I said yesterday about alcohol as food. If anyone understood me to urge that alcohol is a food in the sense that bread and meat are foods, or that it is in general a desirable food, I certainly failed to make my meaning

clear to him. What I tried to say is that it is wrong to tell a child that alcohol is a poison and stop there. It is not a question of definition in scientific treatises or in dictionaries. It is a question of the impression that you produce on that child's mind, and whether that impression is one that accords with the principles of science and the principles of morality.

This suggests a question which was asked by one of your honored members. I understood it to be something like this: "Shall we teach the boy that alcohol is a poison, so that he will grow up with an aversion to it, even if he does find that he was somewhat mistaken; or shall we teach him that under certain circumstances it is useful, and thus let him come up a drunkard?" Will the gentleman kindly tell me if I understood him rightly?

MR. SABIN, of Iowa.—I asked simply which of the two boys is the victim of the greater mistake, the one who has been taught that alcohol is always poisonous, and finds he has been wrongly taught, but grows up with good, sound, temperance principles, or the other who has been taught that it is a food, and comes to the age of twenty-five with an appetite for drink. Which of these two has the right to make the greater complaint?

PROFESSOR ATWATER.—Both have the right to complain. We have no right to make either mistake. That is exactly what I have been trying to say to you all the while.

Question: Should not text-books in physiology, as well as in geography and grammar, contain what seems to be the consensus of specialists?

Answer: Most emphatically. The point is this, that many of the so called "approved" text-books give opinions of some specialists, but extremely few; the great body of authorities—those who are the most followed—are on the other side.

Question: What is the influence of sugar and the influence of alcohol on bodily temperature?

Answer: Will you excuse me from going into that in detail? I do not know. I tried to tell you so yesterday. We are really at the beginning of our experimental knowledge of this subject. Alcohol sometimes reduces bodily temperature, and sometimes it does not.

Here is a question which is in substance: "How does that theory (that alcohol is a body-warmer) agree with Nansen's, who did not take alcohol at all?" It is not a question of theory, it is experience that tells. Experience tells us whether we want cotton or woolen clothes. Woolen are a great deal better for us in cold weather, but that does not show that cotton does not make clothes.

Question: Has temperance instruction in the public schools advanced the cause of temperance in this country? What can be done to make it more effective?

Answer: You are the men to answer these questions. You are the ones to know whether temperance instruction advances the cause of temperance or not. What is your opinion about it, what is your experience? What do you find to be the result?

Question: Is alcohol a narcotic?

Answer: Yes, under some circumstances.

Question: Is alcohol a poison?

Answer: Yes; under certain circumstances alcohol is unquestionably a poison, a narcotic poison. But the difficulty with this teaching is the failure to distinguish between conditions, and in saying that it is always a poison, when it is only occasionally and not generally so.

Mrs. Hunt has told you that what I have said regarding the food value of alcohol is based upon experiments made under my direction. I regret that anyone should have received such an impression. I tried to make it clear in the address of yesterday that the belief is one that has long obtained among physiologists. All that our experiments at Wesleyan University have done has been to help, and perhaps in only slight degree, to explain how it is that this food value is exerted,

You would hardly excuse me, I fear, if I were to neglect to reply to Mrs. Hunt's statements, and those of the experts whom she has cited, to the effect that the figures of my experiments do not sustain the conclusions. The point is this : In one of the experiments, No. 7, described in the bulletin from which the quotations were made, the amount of nitrogen given off from the body in its excretions was greater than the amount received in the food. In this experiment, therefore, in which alcohol made part of the diet, there was a loss of protein. Mrs. Hunt quoted the figures correctly from the table on the page of the bulletin to which she referred. If, however, the critics had taken the pains to examine the other figures of the experiment, they would have seen that in this case the quantity of nitrogen in the food was smaller than usual. In similar experiments to this, which were not published in this bulletin, but which were made with corresponding quantities of nitrogen in ordinary diet without alcohol, there is a corresponding loss of protein from the body. It would therefore be wrong to assume that the loss of nitrogen in experiment No. 7 was due to the alcohol. The conclusions derived from our experiments were based upon a comparison of the results of ten experiments in which alcohol was used with those of eleven corresponding experiments with ordinary diet. Only two of these alcohol experiments are given in the bulletin. That publication does not discuss the experiments from the standpoint of the action of alcohol at all. Its purpose was foreign to that question. It does not give the whole of the results of even these two alcohol experiments. It omits entirely the figures for preliminary periods which preceded those for which the results are given. When we take all of the experiments together and compare the experiments in which the men had an ordinary diet with those in which the fats, sugar, and starch were replaced by alcohol, we find more or less of variation in individual days and in individual experiments, as would be expected. But taking the results altogether, they do not show any difference in the balance of income and outgo of either nitrogen or carbon which could be taken as showing any difference in the effects of the two kinds of rations. The conclusions are simply a summary of the statistical results. If you take the figures of experiment No. 7 and select from them the particular ones which the critics have quoted, you find in them apparent indication of a loss of protein due to the replacement of the carbonaceous nutrients by alcohol. But if you take all of the figures of that experiment into account, and especially if you take all of the results of all of the experiments, then you will see that there is nothing in them which either favors or is opposed to alcohol as a protector of protein.

There is another thing to be borne in mind in this connection. The protection of protein is only one of the forms of action of the fuel ingredients of the food. Even if either alcohol or sugar or starch should fail to protect protein in a given experiment, or series of experiments, this would by no means show that it has no food value.

I have taken special pains to say that I do not regard these experiments as conclusive. But I do object most seriously to the statement that my figures do not support my conclusions because a *part* of the figures do not support them. I think it is fair to ask that those who make such statements shall tell, not a *part* of the truth, but the *whole* truth, just as I ask that the temperance text-books shall tell, not a part of the truth, but the whole truth.

One word more and I have done. I have been profoundly impressed by the kind words which so many of you have spoken to me since the address of yesterday. I have reason to thank you most sincerely. One of these pleasant things was something like this: "I have been a total abstainer all my life. I can indorse all you say. You have really given us a temperance lecture." That is the spirit in which I hope you will understand me.

It is perhaps not fitting that a man of science should leave his laboratory and his books and come to talk to you as a citizen and as a father whose children are under your care. It is perhaps not fitting that I, a teacher, should come and urge upon you, as teachers, the importance of temperance teaching. And yet I have ventured to do both.

I respect—I reverence—the workers in the temperance cause more than it would be proper for me to say. So far from arguing against the temperance teaching in the schools, I hope it may continue; only let us be careful as to what we teach. I hope that you who teach my children, you who guide the instruction of youth in this our republic, will feel the responsibility that rests upon you for the building up of character, for the inculcating of morality. Not a few of you have expressed to me your deep interest in temperance reform. Let me once more express to you all, as I have to them, my deep conviction of the importance of right teaching of these subjects in our public schools.

OBLIGATIONS AND OPPORTUNITIES OF SCHOLARSHIP

PRESIDENT EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA,
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

I believe I am speaking to you, ladies and gentlemen, at the moment of the broadest national feeling in the life of the later republic, and hence I have hesitated in the choice of my theme, "The Obligations and Opportunities of Scholarship in the Southern States," lest I seem to modify the operation of so beautiful and universal a force as scholarship by any sort of restricted geographical label. The land where his fathers lived, idealized by woe and fortitude, and stern adherence to a theory and an idea, is forever dear to the man of the South, and no less to the boy of the South reaching up into manhood; but the great republic, whose firm foundations his forefathers helped to lay so deep and strong, is very dear to him too. Its flag, wherever it may be carried, is the symbol to him of the best that he can hope or dream, and prophecies of his undivided country's destiny stir his blood and sing in his brain. The very tragedy of the career of the southern portion of our union justifies my theme and gives to that section a certain distinctiveness, which it cannot quickly change if it would, in its tendencies and in its duties and needs. That tragedy is bound up in the one stupendous error of slavery for which all sections of the republic are equally to blame. I shall not retail in any detail this story so often told in assemblies of this nature, but it seems worth while to say this much: By slavery the South was foreordained to spend sixty wonderful years in a period of hurtful stillness and isolation, wherein was developed a rural, patriarchal society with all its virtues and all its defects. It doomed us to a shameful period of chaos and submersion, wherein every atom of our boasted racial strain was put to the test. It hung in the balance the mighty issue whether a section of the English branch of the white race should preserve its standards, its homes, its governmental consciousness, what was good and lovely in its past; or whether, like the less virile races, it should descend to an inferior type. The men of the South born between 1835 and 1850, as they entered upon maturity and manhood, inherited a fearsome legacy of defeat in war, of political and social and industrial anarchy, of poverty, and of the prejudice of the

world. The older men of that group retained, perforce, the habit of mind and the hindering traditions of the patriarchal order. The younger ones lacked education and mental training, save such as could be obtained in the trenches and upon the battlefields, and they lacked, too, the buoyancy of unbeaten youth; and yet there rested upon them the task of maintaining their racial integrity, of establishing new institutions, and of finding such a clue to changed economic systems as would enable them to create wealth enough to educate their own children and the children of their slaves. These men were not fit, nor were the times fit, for calm, philosophic thought, or academic viewpoints. The times were rude and unquiet, and afforded small opportunity for any self-development except development of fitness to survive, to endure, and to perfect. It may be said with truth, therefore, that the last thirty years have been a period of crudity, of sternness, and some violence, in southern life, and of much misunderstanding of southern men by their fellow-countrymen. At the sacrifice of their own highest ideals of growth, southern white men have given themselves up to the doing of two vital things—the assertion of their right, as proud men acquainted with suffering, to control and direct the course of affairs in the life of their localities, and the creation of wealth and material resources. They have done these two things so well that those of us born since 1861 find ourselves living with some peace of mind in a new world of friendly feeling, of waning intolerance, of increasing wealth in urban life, of industrial power and educational desire. It may be doubted whether any generation of Americans, save the men who made the constitution and the pioneers who built the great West, deserve so well of their posterity as these bearers of war's burdens. It is a poor American who is not proud of them, and it is a pale, spiritless southern man who does not render to them the tribute of his gratitude and his love. It is settled, I believe, that this white man, who has shown himself so full of courage and force, shall rule in the South, because he is fittest to rule. There is a race problem, but it is largely a problem of how the white race shall use its power, in justice, in kindness, and constructive good-will to the white man and to the black man alike. It is tolerably certain, too, that the South will grow in wealth. The very frenzy of work and accumulation has gotten into its blood. Its citizens have relearned the hang of industrial success which slavery and its consequences robbed their fathers of when the century was young. They have taken to heart the lesson that civilization can express itself in terms of dollars and cents as well as in terms of theories and enthusiasms. When the idea became clear to them that cotton from the looms was worth three times the value of cotton in the fields, they began the establishment of technical schools, and the building all along their limits, from the banks of Roanoke to southern Alabama, five hundred cotton mills with five million spindles and one million looms. And they have just begun. Sleepy little southern towns

that once dosed under the sun and boiled over in hot talk of states' rights and strict construction of the constitution are now black and busy and happy, sending to the ends of the earth salable things made of iron and steel and cotton and wood. There is some loss of picturesqueness, perhaps, but certain gain of power. It is as if a man had swapped a hobby horse for a steam engine.

But some fundamental things have not been settled. It has not been settled what sort of intellectual and moral civilization shall be the final outcome of all this revolution and new birth. It has not been settled how just our modes of government are to be, whether our highest selves are to be realized in our institutions, or our life properly adjusted to the larger life of the world. It has not been fully settled whether we shall start right or wrong in the modern world. That supreme result is for the men and women who have been born since the Civil War, and for their children, to achieve. After isolation, war, submersion, awakening, the South is really beginning its probation as a member of the modern world in the twentieth century. Its chief problem is the chief problem of every society passing from simpler social forms into the third and highest stage of society, namely, the realization of its highest self in life and law, not by personal courage or raw individualism, not by patient endurance of disaster, but by intelligent activity, by civic unity, by public spirit and community effort. Noble and impressive beginnings have been made in the direction of this self-realization. A system of public schools for black and white has been established in all the states, and is being improved under stupendous difficulties, not the least of which is a periodic demand by overborne, exasperated men that each race shall support its own schools by its own taxation. But this will never be done. Justice is against it. Self-interest is against it. The black, ugly fact that ignorance is a remedy for nothing and a peril to everything quickly crushes out whatever life there is in the idea; for its triumph would mean the existence of a permanent body of death, and improvement is slow and pitiful enough at the best. The principle of local taxation for other purposes than jails and bridges has been written in the statute books. An attempt is being made to co-ordinate justly the secondary, technical, and higher education. A movement for public roads and public libraries is going forward. The revision of constitutions, the creation of wise systems of public taxation, and the improvement and uplifting of rural life are engaging the attention of the thoughtful. These movements as yet are chaotic or atomistic, characterized by lack of harmony and symmetry and oneness of purpose, and needing to be correlated and fused and welded into one effective agent of social amelioration. The traditions and powers of the old life will not bring these things to pass. There is needed a new social spirit, a new type of man, with a new equipment of power to inform and influence and guide this spirit.

Here, then, is a new intellectual and moral world about to be born. There surrounds it the dignity of a sad and historic past, and there stretches before it an unimagined future, thrilling with impulses of growth. Tho hard pressed by new ideas alose in the world flowing out of its urban growth, this land is still a land of conservatism in religion, in culture, and in politics. If one wants to find out what the old stock thought and what they liked, one must still journey southward. Even Senator Hoar found it necessary to flee from Boston to Charleston of all places to get some comfort in his desire to quench our new, fierce thirst for islands. Yet conservatism cannot hush its cry for men to guide it wisely, out of sensitive social self-consciousness, into the broad current of the world's thought, to build its institutions, to remodel its constitutions, to shape its policies, to settle nobly grave questions of suffrage and of race. I do not believe there has been so inspiring a call to youth and strength since Stein and Fichte lifted Germany from under the hoof-prints of Napoleon's army and led her happy and prosperous into the family of nations. The nation has cause to be thankful for one thing. The raw material of citizenship for this upbuilding exists in the South, whether it shall be sought for in the old family stocks, sobered and broadened by poverty and fortitude, or whether it shall issue from the ranks of the plain people, who fought our battles for us, who inherit the English temperament, who may not be able to read, but who are able to remember that their fathers earned liberty as a reward of sacrifice, behind the cotton bales at New Orleans, on the fiery crest of King's Mountain, or in the swift and fateful marches along the valleys of the Dan.

It has been my trade in life, and it still is, to work with the southern boy. I have some right, therefore, to judge him and to weigh him. He would perhaps have slight patience with any effort of mine to set him up as a wholly different type from the vigorous American boy elsewhere, and to hedge him around with any barrier of sectionalism; and I do not wish to do that. He is an American boy. Yet great historic social forces have been at play upon the southern boy, as they were at play upon his fathers, and we are to examine the result. He is frank, sunny, and courageous still, tho hardships and struggles have added to him a certain toughness of temper and fineness of spirit. Life has generally widened out to him thru sacrifice. He has had from his youth the tutelage of self-denial and renunciation. *He* may be at college, tasting the sweet waters and breathing the clearer air, but he knows that far away in the humble home the father and mother are taking counsel in the still hours of the night how they may scrimp here and save there and work a little harder and rest a little less, and so pay out gladly their life and their strength for his sake; and life looks grander to him by reason of it, and duty seems easier to him, and opportunity sweeter and kindlier.

The ethical and the ideal appeal very strongly to the boy of the South. Not because he is any better than his neighbors, but because economic conditions have developed that side of him. He has left off certain vices of his grandfathers, and he is clearly their superior in intellectual curiosity and thoughtfulness about the common good and the needs of the average citizen. Enthusiasms are very likely to possess him, and ideas and principles attract him more potently than machinery or organization. There is a tribal primitive individualism in his blood which is to him both a blessing and a curse. It has been a blessing at times, causing him to take things in his own hands to preserve his own liberty and the dignity of his person at any cost. Sometimes it has been a curse, shading off into lawlessness, tending to paralyze concerted effort and to leave communities disunited and torn by religious and party differences, and thus unable to achieve high public ends. At the bottom the southern young man is a political animal, in Aristotle's good sense of the word—impulsive, upright, and patriotic. No weary cynicism or passion for wealth and sports as yet bounds his horizon. His highest idea of great service and great achievement is service to the state, and molding society in social and political forms.

This fine impulse for public service goes to seed sometimes, and we have the frantic, callow voice shouting panaceas and nostrums, and here and there the malign figure of the demagog creeping about causing simple men to lend an ear to political and economic sophisms. But the average southern boy, like the average American boy, has brains, and honesty and faith and enthusiasm. His trouble is a sort of dazed timidity. He seems to lack what his fathers had excess of, singleness of purpose and grim earnestness. I believe this will come, for it is in his blood, when his ideals harden into certainty, when he feels more at home in American life, when he learns the trick of concerted action, and when the society immediately about him becomes more critical of itself, and tolerant of all shades of thought and opinion.

In the past the South has been charged with setting too much store by wise leaders and neglecting to provide for wise followers. A militant order, with its base resting on slaves, and its summit bright with masterful, lovable men, like the Athenian city-state, had very little trouble about its leadership. Men heard the organ voice of Calhoun and heeded it as the men of the tribe heed the strong man, as the Florentines followed the Medici, or as the Irish rallied about O'Connell or Parnell. Jefferson Davis, Judah P. Benjamin, Alexander Stephens, Robert Toombs, Henry A. Wise, and W. A. Graham spoke, and their states or parties recognized their primacy and massed behind them like men at arms on a field of battle.

But the old type of leader has gone by forever, like a lost type in nature, and the leader-ridden South of the past is leaderless now. I hear

no commanding voice in the political life of the southern states. In the field in which for seventy-five years she was pre-eminent the South is now defective. Her public men are rarely scholars. There are no Madisons and Clays and Calhouns and Lamars. There are some notable names in business, and Lanier and Page and Harris and James Lane Allen and Woodrow Wilson are worthy names in any literature. There are clever men everywhere, but no commanding men. There are reasons for this, and perhaps it is not to be deplored. The coming leader has a harder task than the leader of the olden time, and there must needs be time for him to grow. He can no longer incarnate the dumb, dull aspirations of the people and be a glorified figure to them, as Clay and Jackson were. The age of personal loyalty has been succeeded by an age of personal distrust. The mass has been broken up into common, hard-headed, acute, power-loving men armed with the weapons of democracy. These men are going to rule whether they are fit for it or not, and the problem is to make them fit—or better, perhaps, their children fit, for the grown-up folks are past saving—by putting them into a school of ideals, where they shall get uplift of thought, and where the tastelessness and mediocrity and unthinking activity that beset democracies shall be rooted out. The most pervasive school of ideals to which most of the young men in my land have been going for generations is the school of politics, and it has been a dull and sordid school, having for its curriculum a weary trivium of negro, tariff, and currency, and not the highest phase of any one of them. It is just here that the presence of the negro has worked the saddest harm to us. There is a deep feeling that intelligence, character, and wealth must be the real majority, whatever the sum of votes may add up. Political self-preservation, as they see it, has forced ardent, high-spirited young men, able and eager to understand great questions, to stand at the ballot box and beat back a black tide of ignorance, and thus behold without a blush the sacred conception of suffrage violated, public service cheapened, and, too often, the mere manipulator rewarded. Any force that can change this is a good force. I believe that this school has suspended, and another and better one has been founded in which there is a new motive concerning itself about things near at home, and yet conscious of the unity and majesty of American life, a fresher and more inspiring motive which will make for the end of this reign of dullness and danger to character.

It is a common, pat thing to say to southern young men: "Quit talking about the South; keep out of politics, and go to work." Two-thirds of this advice is very healthy, but the other third is fretful and superficial. To keep out of politics in a republic is to keep out of life, and to keep out of politics in the South is to miss opportunities that come only in splendid creative epochs of national history. For educated men such a course is to demonstrate afresh that mincing, dainty cowardice of

scholarship, in the presence of great, rude, human forces, which makes Erasmus seem small to us beside Luther and sets the towering genius of Goethe below the radiant young poet Körner, singing his defiant songs to the bright face of freedom. Politics exists in my thoughts as a form of applied patriotism, seeking, by pleading with the public conscience and by education of the public mind, to bring about good government, to establish schools, to build roads, to spread culture abroad and to make it dynamic, and to win liberty such as free men are fit to have. And let us define patriotism, for in my thought it needs some redefinition, having become a somewhat slippery and elusive term, high and holy thing tho it be. There is the unthinking, alcoholic patriotism that shouts: "My country, may she always be right! But right or wrong, my country!" There is the ancestral patriotism that worships the *genius loci* and the fathers. Its devotees cannot forget their grandfathers. They have the disease of atavism, and enwrapped in the grave-clothes of their forebears they sit deathly still in the busy world and fancy that virtue issues from their garments to the afflicted passers-by. There is the thrifty patriotism that shouts for party and party leaders and votes the ticket. There is the noble rage that inspired southern boys to climb the slopes of Gettysburg, and that inspired northern boys to turn their breasts into a stonewall to meet the onset, and that inspired the sons of both, with reunited love and common purpose, to charge together thru the hot grass and under the brazen sun about Santiago. And finally there is the patriotism of common-sense, which is the very religion of citizenship. This patriotism is a compound of scholarship, of social sympathy, of right reason, trying to teach democracy, "that glorious optimism," how to use its rude devices so that it may justify its right to exist as the ultimate form of government. There are many very unlovely manifestations of this patriotism in the shape of heated, willful men in primaries and at the ballot box, but the thing itself is an academy, a battleground of ideas which should strive to emancipate tens of thousands of white men in the South and in the North and West from petty local views, from selfishness, from the tyranny of hard creeds, from the philosophy of carelessness and wasteful *laissez-faire*, from false individualism, and teach them largeness of view and the necessity of community effort for community good. Much has been said from a thousand platforms in this country about the scholar in politics, and he has for some decades been the stock figure for academic eloquence. And perhaps not enough has been said about the power of culture and the passion for knowing, to regenerate the individual man by lighting up his mind and disciplining his willfulness, by giving him the fine true sense for beauty and manners and order and reason, and by endowing him, to use Mr. Lowell's noble phrase, "with that good taste which is the conscience of the mind and that conscience which is the good taste of the soul." But the impulse to cry out for scholars and

seers to enter into the hurly-burly of life is a just one. The individual is so microscopic and self-government so begirt with the perils of unintelligent strength and vulgar force that there must needs be great movements flowing about guided by the scholar's purpose to be of service to great masses. The theme may be trite enough, but instinct and reason call for the reality. And the reality is the man who sees things as they are, and hates violence; who has no fear of oppression because he is strong; who cannot be deceived because he has been trained and knows truth from mania, and the fates of nations and the experiences of cities and men; who cannot be terrorized because he is not afraid; who cannot be starved because his hands have skill and his brains have cunning. This real sort of scholar is needed to aid in the transformation of unthinking, careless white men, without tastes or wants or desires, into men with ideals; men who can see the relation of law to society, and what it means to defy law even to protect innocence; men who can see the beauty and interest of life; men who have some civic sympathy, love their towns, villages, front yards, highways, parks, schools, and libraries, and, thus proceeding upward, grow into a grander conception of the perils and privileges of the heritage left them by the Lord God, now grown so swiftly into an empire, vaster than the empire of Trajan or Justinian. Men of philanthropic impulses are easily moved to helpfulness by the spectacle of the black race striving to fit itself for republican citizenship unwisely thrust upon it. They are not so easily moved by the spectacle of the white race striving to fit itself for the noble discharge of an unparalleled sociological duty. And yet that is the pivot of the whole question. The education of one untaught white man to the point where it is clear to him that knowledge and not prejudice must guide his conduct, and that for the honor of his name and country, and his posterity, he must deal with these people in justice and kindness and Christian forethought, is worth more to the black man himself than the education of ten of his own race. I believe that any southern university is doing more to lift up the colored race thru the broad-minded men it is training and sending into life than nine-tenths of the schools for higher education of the negro, and if these universities had the means to set in operation academic forces to study and investigate and digest the great problem, instead of threshing out old straw, their power would be increased tenfold. It is wise and just to help the black man, but it would be equally wise and just to recognize that the white man is the dominant force, and that he will act in the light of his knowledge and training. The white man has shown himself to possess courage and fidelity and self-respect and pride. He needs help in the right way, tho he is too proud generally to say so. Save among the most ignorant there is no truculence, no passion, but a high desire to do right. Impotency, the frightful difficulties of the situation, and the sheeplike solidarity

of the negro himself sometimes beget exasperation. It is substantial, brotherly help that we need, my brethren; not the altruism of the remote, nor the scorn of the doctrinaire, nor the cock-sure criticism of the unaffected. I believe that it should be a high and precious privilege for all Americans to help their southern countryman work out his problem of orderly, law-abiding social life, and to help him as brothers in loyal affection.

In speaking thus strongly I do not forget that a black man, Booker Washington, has seized the essentials of the negro question more perfectly perhaps than any southern man of either race, and has pressed his views before the country with a mingling of diplomacy, sympathy, and patriotic scholarship altogether admirable. What I mean is that even Booker Washington, with his undoubted gifts and with the wealth that is coming to him, will become simply a racial phenomenon, without lasting effect upon the great question, if he have not the intelligent sympathy and co-operation of the white men about him.

It is a singular and startling thing that no southern college attempts the study of social phenomena in any adequate or organized way. Departments of social science in the modern sense of the word do not exist among them. They have widened out from the traditional circle of the liberal arts into the study of agriculture, mechanics, textiles, but they have not approached the confused, unrelated human forces about them in a scientific fashion. Their students approach these subjects in the spirit of the empiric, the dilettante, or the politician. They do not bring to the consideration of such questions the trained habit of mind, the trained orderliness of thought, that is needed for their mastery. This is largely due to poverty of equipment.

I have sometimes thought that the national government which once thought it wise to help its citizens to a better understanding of their industrial life thru the land-grant colleges might find it equally wise to help them in the same way to an understanding of social problems, whose righteous adjustment means so much to the peace, honor, and prosperity of our whole people.

What is to be the general type of man, may I ask, who is to come out of southern life able to lead the new forces resolutely and to find the key to the broader life? First of all he should be an educated man. We have done with the sneer at book-learning and the apotheosis of the self-made man. The old leaders were learned men and masterful men, persuasive in speech and swift in action. Their distinguishing traits were strength of will and serenity and confidence of mind and spirit, and perfect equipment for their peculiar work. Their times demanded fire and strength. They supplied the demand and to spare. The special demand for this era is knowledge and sound basis of action. We as yet have it not. We need to know about things before we settle them, instead of settling them

first and learning about them afterward. There must come into the thought of the humblest man among us that instinctive Scottish feeling of loyalty and reverence for knowledge as the power alone fit to deal with questions of public welfare that marks off so sharply the man whose mind is set upon the building up of his institutions in righteousness and wisdom, whose strength is upon the power of conduct, from the man who is desirous of working his own will and obtaining the reward of his own smartness. Evidences that this attitude is coming about come often to my knowledge. Mature men come up to college spending all their little store to sit with boys to get some little learning. Three-fourths of a whole body of five hundred students are in college as a result of money earned or borrowed. One-fourth are earning their way thru college by every form of daily labor from cutting wood to cutting hair; sensitiveness, sentiment, pride, gentle breeding, everything swallowed up in the overmastering desire for the blessed light! The universities and colleges in the South which hear this cry of need and must minister to it are not strong in equipment or endowment. It is a struggle for them to exist. The sum of all their endowments does not equal the endowment of any one of a half-dozen northern and eastern institutions, and too often as a stunting inheritance from the grinding days of want the people have gotten used to their poverty in matters relating to higher education. What strength they have is internal, the strength of disinterestedness, of moral energy, of faith in the belief that they are the symbols of the benign force that shall work out the good life of their land. What strength they need to accomplish this end is the strength of endowment, of apparatus, of ample and even magnificent surroundings, that they may arise so sharply and clearly out of low levels that they may set new standards and establish new conceptions of college life.

I once stood upon the deck of a great ship whose prow was slipping gently thru the waters of the Bosphorus to the Black Sea. As we passed the spot where Robert College stands upon its rocky hill, the boys waved flags and sheets and handkerchiefs in salute to the starry flag floating at the mast-head. The brave pioneer college moved the imagination strongly, standing there stout and strong upon its hill, while all around it soared the minarets and towers of a stubborn and unyielding faith, and all about it heaved the tides of the yellow people of the unchanging East. The place seemed to my fancy at once a fortress and a dynamo, holding tight and fast to the things that are good, but sending out to the dim, toiling thousands in the shadows at its base the vital currents of light and life. The curving shores of Constantinople faded from my view, and I saw my home land, teeming, too, with tumultuous, untrained youth, but of a different breed and duty, and every college a Robert College charged with power and desire to fit them to guide their people into the larger circle of American life and American hope and American destiny.

The mere industrial man, masterful and creative as he is, cannot do this supreme service for us. He dazzles us now because he represents the great thought that civilization cannot reach its true development in poverty, but he is too much in the grasp of the theory that it is a higher and holier duty for the prosperous man to grow ever more prosperous than it is for him to pester himself about broader and purer social conditions. The mere orator will not do with his silver tongue. There was a time when every little village had its silver-tongued orator who wielded his scepter from the hustings, or the courthouse, but his voice will not carry far into the metallic clink and roar of the times. The breezy, aggressive, accumulative imitator will not stand the test. There may be something parochial, but there is also something fine and impressive in the almost Hebraic feeling of the people of the southern states that their section has something high and precious and distinctive in manhood and leadership to contribute to American civilization. It cannot be mere boasting, so runs their dream, that it is the logical right of their land to bring forth out of her travail and agony something fair and good of her own likeness and pattern, the old refined gold which disaster and defeat could not tarnish, beaten by fiercer, freer, civic forces into finer and subtler form. The spirit of his fathers, brave and steadfast men who held firm and did not compromise, ought to be in him, and shall be in him. Sordidness and commercialism will not wholly submerge him, and wear away his fineness. He will love honor more than life and loyalty more than gold. A worldly, modern, clear-eyed man breathing the breath of freedom, he will reach men's hearts and he will control men's wills, not by machinery, but by the strength of integrity and sincerity and thru faith in his words. And so when the age of moral warfare shall succeed to the age of passionate gain-getting; when blind social forces have wrought some tangle of inequality and injustice, of hatred and suspicion; when calculation and combination can only weave the web more fiercely; when the whole people in some hour of national peril shall seek for the man of heart and faith, who will not palter nor fail, in the sweet justice of God, they shall turn hither for succor as they once turned to a simple Virginia planter to free them from a stupid king and a stubborn Parliament across the seas.

HOW CAN THE SUPERINTENDENT IMPROVE THE EFFICIENCY OF THE TEACHERS UNDER HIS CHARGE?

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I. It may seem somewhat presumptuous for one who is not a superintendent to appear in the rôle of an adviser of the members of this honorable body. I therefore hasten to assure you that the responsibility

must attach to the gentleman who by virtue of your free suffrages was chosen to preside over your deliberations. There may be some small advantage in being untrammelled by the sobering lessons of experience. It is possible that the views of a teacher of teachers may have some pertinency, but it is not probable that I shall offer any suggestions that have not already claimed your attention.

Altho somewhat aside from the main topic of discussion, I may be indulged in the remark that the best place to improve the teaching force of a community is the gateway thru which those are to pass who are to be the instructors of its young. At that critical point the superintendent should always be found, engaged in the exacting and discriminating duties of a sentinel. This is a poor position for a civilian. He may meet all of the requirements of a paymaster or even of a sutler, but is in danger of forgetting the proper password. And the superintendent should have equal authority in mustering out those recruits whose proper place is with the awkward squad, and whose presence in the ranks renders a successful campaign impossible. To drop the figure, it is my sincere conviction that if the superintendent is to have no voice in the selection of his teachers, the chances are greatly against his accomplishing much in the way of their improvement. Their first allegiance otherwise is due to another. Since their appointment may be based upon other considerations than that of fitness, there is at least a possibility that their retention may be similarly conditioned. Why, indeed, should a board of education care to burden itself with such a troublesome duty? Because of a consciousness of its superior fitness? Upon what basis, then, was the superintendent selected? The logic of the situation suggests some ugly implications which urge me to drop the analysis at this point. I lay it down as a fundamental proposition that the superintendent should have the determining voice in the selection of his assistants and that their tenure should rest upon his judgment. I expect all fair-minded and properly disinterested persons to agree with these propositions. The spoils politician is a bad lot. If such an ill fortune should happen as to find him in command of the West Point of an educational situation, a well-known historical incident will probably be repeated. I ought perhaps to apologize to the shade of the bogey man of the American Revolution, for he was never even charged with a diversion of supplies from the soldier to the camp-follower. The whole matter is so obvious that there is no room for argument on grounds of common honesty. Everybody who knows anything about the matter—and everybody may know who will give it two or three minutes of candid thought—understands perfectly that to select teachers upon any other principle than that of fitness is to use public funds for private purposes and to betray the interests of those who are too young to realize the wrong they are suffering, and too weak to defend themselves if they knew.

II. Since the course of study is the educative material which the assistant teachers are to employ in the educative process, it seems to me of prime importance that it should be so clearly outlined and so fully elaborated as to be quite easily understood by those who are to use it. To its mastery they must devote a good part of their effort. May we not hope that the old contention which held, that it is not of so much consequence what a child studies as how he studies it, is at last silenced? The doctrine of formal discipline received a mortal wound some years since from the sharp lance of the relentless Dr. Hinsdale, and has been in a dying condition ever since, if, indeed, it has not entirely succumbed. I am not saying that we have solved the vexed question of the course of study. It certainly is true that the schoolroom door has been opened to the modern world, and that new subjects have come trooping in in a multitudinous fashion. The pansophic scheme of the good Moravian bishop seems, in a way, to be on trial. He would be a brave man who should ask for more, and I am not prepared to say that there should be less. But I am of the opinion that there are few instances in which it is not in sorry need of improvement.

Have we really abandoned the correlation problem of which we heard so much a few short years ago, or have we solved it? With the zeal of early converts we then tried to correlate everything. History was suspected of at least an occasional opportunity to exercise the number faculty, if in nothing more than counting the slain. Object-lessons were subordinated to elementary language study, and many another subject was bent out of line to induce it to manifest an affinity for some remote topic with which no especial kinship had ever before been discovered. But the intrinsic individuality of many of the courses obstinately refused to surrender itself, and no end of embarrassment resulted as an inevitable consequence.

Now that time has been given for reflection, is it not wise to return to the old problem with renewed vigor and calmer temper? There is real danger that our work will lose much of that intensive quality which had a chance to manifest itself under the narrower curriculum. We must not, of course, go back to the arid places made waste by juggling with symbols. Neither can a wholesale correlation be effected in the present stage of pedagogical development. Our problem, as it appears to me, is rather to find the smallest number of really germinal ideas, and to organize the course of study about them. Several of the apparently independent lines of work may thus be made to sink into incidental and enriching relations to the main movements. Such an organization of the educative material would reduce the number of subjects that seem to require distinct and isolated recognition, and would make instruction in them substantially incidental, until they were so far developed as to have reached a plane where separate organization is the

truest correlation. The "incidental" has a ground for his contention, and it should be recognized and allowed.

Now, it is my idea that this organization of the courses should not be left to the haphazard treatment of the teachers, but that it should be done in as thorough a fashion as possible in the manual that is to be placed in their hands. I am trying to make a plea for the expansion and elaboration of the teachers' guides. They should be monographs upon the courses, or, rather, bundles of monographs, and should be worked out with a considerable degree of fullness. They should be available to applicants, and examinations to determine fitness should be based in large part upon what they offer. They would disclose a pedagogy that would be practical in the highest sense of the term, and would furnish to the teachers a course of study bearing directly upon the work of the school-room.

I realize the difficulty of their preparation. It would test the professional strength of the superintendent in a very critical fashion. I am not unaware of the fact that there is a strong tendency to run into formalism, but if we wait until there is no lion in the way we shall fall short of the highest success.

III. Assuming that the preparatory stages are successfully passed, the superintendent is at last face to face with those who are to attempt to carry out his plans. And now I believe that it is of great importance to all concerned that he should get into the right attitude toward his teachers at the earliest possible moment. And that attitude, I need not say in this presence, is one of thoroughly sympathetic helpfulness. Here is no place for the task-master. Co-operation is the key to success. No good teacher is the "servant" of the superintendent or of the board of education. All of the parties involved in the administration of a school system are but the different forces which are to unite in a common purpose, the education of the children. Everyone gets whatever of significance he may possess when estimated from this standpoint and from this alone. And no self-respecting teacher or superintendent will permit any body of men which happens, for the time, by the grace of an admiring constituency, to be his or her immediate employer, to establish such a servile relation. The true attitude is unique, and is not to be compared with that of a mill operative or "the hired hand." Boards of education, superintendents, and teachers are co-ordinate and indispensable factors in the solution of a problem which society, as an organized unity, is attempting to solve. This doctrine may be unpalatable to some people not a thousand miles distant, but I do not see that it is thereby falsified. Obligations are mutual. Those of boards of education to their so-called subordinates are as urgent as their converse, altho different in character, and no one who is really fit to fill that difficult and often thankless position will take any other view. And I wish, at this point, to digress

sufficiently to express my earnest and sincere thanks to many men who are bearing the distracting burdens of business life, and who have self-sacrifice enough to add the worry of public cares to an already wearing load. It should never be forgotten that self-respect is an indispensable prerequisite for a good teacher, and she should never submit to a system of terrorizing even from the children. Where a high-minded and wholesome personality is of such vast importance, everything within proper limits should be done to promote it. The superintendent stands between the board of education and the teachers, and whatever he may demand for himself in the way of respectful consideration from the former he should extend to the latter. That the teacher is usually inferior to the superintendent in breadth of experience and intellectual power goes without saying, if things are as they should be. If these conditions should happen to be reversed, it indicates a maladministration of forces for which somebody is to be blamed. That the teacher is often the superior of the superintendent in the immediate management of the children is a remark that is equally pertinent. Each should be better in his own place, and because the latter is properly the teacher of the former it by no means follows that there should be a relation in which servility should ever enter. Indeed, such a relation is unfortunate from any point of view. The situation is what it ought to be if to the proper professional respect each should show the other there may be added mutual regard and genuine friendship.

And I believe, further, that there should be a strenuous effort on the part of the superintendent to reduce to the absolute minimum the amount of mechanical work which assistants are often called upon to do out of school hours. I am more and more impressed with the drain which the ordinary duties of the schoolroom make upon the vitality of the teacher. It is to me little less than a marvel how they endure it as well as they do. There should be large space for recuperation if the atmosphere of the school is to be bracing and inspiring. I fear that the fevered lips and irritable manner so often seen may be accounted for, at least in part, by an added hour over absurd statistics. Other things being anything like equal, the happiest teacher is the best teacher, and good health and abundant vitality contribute immensely to such a result.

IV. The superintendent can improve the teachers under his charge by according to them the largest possible degree of freedom. Genuine personalities have their own methods of expressing themselves and cannot work in the strait-jackets cut from a standard pattern and furnished ready-made by the superintendent. I am aware that I am walking on holy ground with my unhallowed sandals on when I enter the realm of discipline. To formulate iron-clad rules which are to obtain without limitation in all matters relating to the correction of children's faults is to place the harassed teacher between the deep sea of the superintendent's

displeasure and the "other fellow" as represented by the board of education. I must, of course, make exception in the interests of communities where teachers are chosen upon some other basis than that of fitness. If the bars are taken down in one place, they must be put up in another, or we shall be done for. In this discussion I am assuming that the teachers are of the superintendent's own selection. What he wants is persons, not automatons. Wherever his mind stimulates theirs it is to secure a richer and more effective personality. They are not to be his good right hand. They are to be their own brain and heart and hand, working out his larger purpose under the impulsion of his wider thought.

But I would not be misunderstood. Very much is said about regarding the individuality of the teacher with which I cannot agree. Whether an individuality should be respected depends upon its quality. What many people need to do is to effect a radical change in their individualities, if by the term we refer to the fundamental ideas which seem to determine them. They need to transfer themselves to new ground, to be inspired by new ideals, to find new and better ways of touching the world. That such a change is possible, and that it may be radical in its character, everyone who has taught to any purpose well knows. Indeed, one of the main duties of the superintendent, if not the main one, is to bring about changes in the characters of his teachers that are often quite fundamental.

Happy, indeed, is the community that has been so fortunate as to have placed at the head of its school system a person possessing the rare gift of stimulating others so that they shall achieve large and gracious personalities. The young are so imitative that to live under the influence of a fine example is in itself a blessing. The life of the school is ordinarily so conventional that a wholesome individuality is peculiarly invigorating. The diversity of temperaments is so great among forty children gathered from the homes of even a single community that a teacher who is above all methods prescribed for the many, and who is capable of furnishing, out of the depths of her own originality, unfettered by burdensome and limiting restrictions, the method for the particular child, is a treasure that is above price.

V. But it is not enough to be a charming personality, desirable as such a consummation is. It is our insistent claim that there is at least a rudimentary science of education under the guidance of which educational practice may be greatly improved beyond what is possible without it. It is our misfortune that the large majority of those who are at present employed in the management of public schools are informed neither by its fundamental doctrine nor its applications to the teaching art. Practice, at the present stage of educational development, is substantially empirical. Comparatively few of the rank and file are able to give a scientific defense of their method of procedure. In this particular the

teaching art shows to a marked disadvantage when compared with the practice of the law or of medicine. In these cases there is at least a body of respectable precedent to which the practitioner may appeal in defense of his method, even tho he may be obliged to confess his ignorance when asked to show a scientific ground upon which to stand. Most teachers are ignorant of the characteristic features of the methods of those of their own guild who have won distinction. The literature of teaching, in both its philosophic and practical aspects, seems to be quite equally unknown. In other words, the education of the average teacher along professional lines must take place after rather than before her employment, and while she is engaged in the actual work of the school. That this is a matter of grave criticism does not change the fact. We must do the best we can under the circumstances. Until public sentiment shall experience a material change respecting the professional preparation of teachers, and shall see to it that the number of training schools shall be greatly multiplied, the conditions here referred to will continue.

It thus becomes a pressing necessity for the average superintendent to add to the general duties of supervision the further duty of professional instruction. This function will be discharged in the main in the teachers' meeting, which, in consequence, gives to that instrumentality a dignity to which it does not always attain. This consideration carries us back to the superintendent, the center of the situation.

To make an application of the oft-quoted remark of the genial *Autocrat of the Breakfast Table*, in a somewhat different field, it may be said that the reformation of the assistant must begin with the head of the system of which she is a part. He should be an educational expert. I do not mean that he should be a skillful manager merely, important as such ability is. He should be strong enough and wise enough to resist the enticements that come to every general manager to spend his time and energy in the manipulation of mechanical details. He should have a genuine fondness for the central problems, and should have time to deal with them leisurely and reflectively. He should be that rarest of combinations, a philosopher and a man of affairs. Thought should be forever will as well. When there is so much to do that is little and easy, it takes a man of large mold resolutely to put it aside for that which is large and difficult. The fundamental doctrine and its manifold applications must engross the lion's share of his time, if he is to reach his teachers in any transforming way. Neither will do without the other. The pedagogical prophets are often poor teachers, and great mechanical dexterity will frequently go far afield. Psychology and educational philosophy often go thru the world unwed to practice. If either of two indispensable things is more important than the other, I should say that the greater need at present is the doctrine. If I were obliged to choose between a Simon-pure philosopher of the kind that asserts that philosophy bakes no

bread and the Simon-pure mechanician that sneers at philosophy, I should take the former. For only ideas are germinal, and if your experience is like mine, you have had a hard time finding seed-corn that will grow. It is far more economical to furnish a general principle that will dispose of a class of instances than to deal with them one at a time in an isolated way.

Now, is it not the better way to have the doctrine and its concrete application as close together as possible? We find this to be true to our experience in the normal school, and every superintendent is foredoomed to maintain a sort of a normal school. The most efficient instrumentality that I have thus far observed for accomplishing this desired end is thru a combination of carefully prepared lesson outlines which state the general principle, the aim, and the movement, and illustrative lessons with children by an expert teacher. Would that every superintendent, who knows how to use him, had a printer as a part of his office force. This being quite out of the question in the large majority of cases, the modern neostyle is a cheap and handy substitute. With this valuable implement he can have a press bureau of his own, and can prepare the elaborated guides of which I have already spoken in the earlier part of this paper. He can thus supply the best books on the theory and art of teaching.

The other feature of the plan removes one of the greatest limitations to the teacher's growth—her isolation. Who will not pity the preacher, or his congregation, who never hears a brother of the cloth? The solitary physician is foredoomed to narrowness. We must see others doing what we attempt to do, or we shall fall by the wayside. But the illustrative lesson should have a thoro overhauling. Observers must learn what to look for and how to test it by the canons of the art. A thirty-minute exercise may merit a three-hour discussion. We may learn something of what is meant by skill by an occasional visit to a baseball game when a crack team is occupying "the diamond." Every delivery of the pitcher is either "a ball" or "a strike." So every movement of a thoroly admirable teacher should meet the highest requirement of the recitation from the standpoint of the theory and its practical embodiment. It is by such a rigorous discipline as this that genuine masters are produced. And I remember such a one. I often went to her room to "set my watch" by observatory time. The memory of what I saw there has ever since been at once an inspiration and a reproach. I have long had an undying grudge against the man who induced her to abandon the normal school for the home, for she was an ideal embodiment of an intelligent woman, thoroly grounded in a profound educational philosophy, gifted with the artist's creative power, and a master of a marvelous technic acquired by the severest criticism of her work from the standpoint of fundamental pedagogical ideas.

And a poor recitation is often as fruitful as a good one. Let the superintendent try it himself once in a while, and give his assistants a chance to criticise something easy. Lest this remark may be misunderstood, I hasten to add that there are superintendents who are able to illustrate the highest form of instruction in any grade.

I am not unmindful of the criticism made upon attempts to teach after a formula. I have simply to remark in passing that in all arts there are formal stages thru which one must go to achieve the highest skill. That they are looked at askance by many, and regarded as devices for which normal schools have a peculiar fondness, also goes without saying. I have only to say that I am not here alluding to the foolish tricks of the method-worshippers. Teaching is an art. As such it consists of many details, as do all arts. The general movement in the knowledge process is capable of statement, however, if there be a science of mind, and its formulation should be attempted by every intelligent teacher. It may be a master for a while, but in time it becomes one of the most helpful of servants. I doubt the possibility of any fine technic without its aid. It furnishes a canon of self-criticism, and until one is equipped with a disposition to self-examination and some intelligent basis upon which to make it, he will either work by the "rule of thumb" or in the most haphazard of methods. I was greatly impressed quite recently by the remark of a teacher of considerable experience as a university instructor, yet whose conduct of the recitation was in many respects seriously faulty. He said, in substance: "This is the first time in my life that my management of a class was ever thoroly criticised from the standpoint of educational doctrine." How few recitations are really entitled to the designation of genuinely artistic presentations! Is it not true that the large majority are not dominated by any clearly defined aim which pushes with resistless energy thru the exercise from start to finish? So much of worthless matter is allowed to consume precious time, so many distracting and trivial excursions are permitted, there is such prodigal waste, the motive is so obscure, the tension is so slack, that you may go almost anywhere rather than to a class-room to find such an exhibition of high-class art as may be discovered in almost any good shop. The pruning-knife of kindly criticism, the free interchange of suggestion, the setting of the doctrine over against the act, and especially the superior exercise, analyzed to the core, are, as it seems to me, indispensable instrumentalities in the improvement of a teaching force. There should be no hurry, no insincere glossing of defects, but a genuine estimate of value from the most competent and kindly of critics.

VI. At the meeting of this section one year ago the wisdom of transferring pupils from one school to another, where especial difficulties are encountered in the management of particular children, was discussed and approved by high authority. Several instances were cited in which

apparent incorrigibles were found to need only a change of teachers. Will not the same policy be found to be equally valuable in its application to those in charge of rooms? The misfits are familiar thorns in the pathway of the superintendent. Applicants for positions are not always the best judges of the grades for which nature and preparation have fitted them. Local conditions sometimes render success an impossibility when a change might insure a superior quality of work. We have all known instances where a transfer to another grade was all that was necessary to discover unusual fitness for a position that was relatively more difficult. Of course, such a readjustment of forces is out of the question unless the superintendent is unfettered. I am making no plea for incompetents. But every right-minded person will insist upon a fair chance for his assistants. He is, indeed, a seer who can cast the horoscope of a teacher with unerring accuracy. Of course, there are instances where incapacity demonstrates its presence in a few hours. The quicker such cases are disposed of the better, whether it be in the actual work of the school or in the teachers' academy. When reflecting upon this matter, however, I am reminded of a young woman who by the unanimous vote of a normal-school faculty was convinced that her "health" demanded a prompt return to her home, because she seemed to lack that unpurchasable commodity known as capacity, but who encountered a more kindly disposition in her local superintendent. The same institution has often had occasion to "point with pride" to the same young woman because of the notable success which she won in one of the largest of our western cities that shall be nameless. Evidently she needed a change. And a similar process of reassortment has put more than one seeming failure on safe ground. Of course, to move one is to move two, but he is a lucky superintendent who has only two that need moving. There are practical difficulties in the way of any remedy, and they may be peculiar to this suggestion, but with that indispensable condition, a free hand at the helm, the difficulties are not insurmountable.

VII. In the earlier part of this paper I have spoken of the sympathetic relations that should subsist between the head and the subordinates of a school system. If this happy condition really obtains, the private interview will be found to be one of the most efficacious means of correction and inspiration. It is a singular phenomenon that those who are not really successful seem often to be the very ones who have not discovered the fact; at least such is frequently the case. We are so much in danger of overlooking our darling faults. That these may be pointed out to us in such a manner as to convince us of our error some good friend has probably demonstrated to our satisfaction. But to reveal our shortcomings, is one thing, and to show us how to surpass them is quite another. A hint may be sufficient, but radical treatment is usually better. Happily there are many good books that one may take into the solitude

of his retirement, and in which he may find his errors reflected as in a mirror. Who has not emerged from the rebuking interview with such a delightfully impersonal mentor to find a new world awaiting his coming? Will not the well-equipped superintendent be richly supplied with a goodly stock of such closet advisers from which he may select the particular one that fits the occasion? Often in our experience with pupils who are trying to find themselves in the trying duties of the practice school such a prescription has proven of inestimable value. Of what avail is the making of many books if they are not to help us in the times of storm and stress? Nothing is truer than that there are treasure-houses for our assistants of whose existence they have no knowledge. We are not working the good book up to a tithe of its possibilities. Indeed, there appears to be a disposition in many of us to look with slight favor upon anything that has not emanated from our own inner consciousness in the management of our schools. Is this one of the results of the perhaps too prevalent tendency toward oral instruction, or is it due to the undeveloped state of pedagogical doctrine and practice? And there is an ascending hierarchy from Page's *Theory and Practice* to *Psychologic Foundations*. If I mistake not, Colonel Parker ascribed his educational new-birth to Tate, and I could name a man, whom you all know but to honor, the editor of a School (and Home) Journal, both in capitals, whose effigy adorns the altar in the professional holy of holies of a host of schoolmasters whom no man can number, and before which they burn their highest-priced incense. And I would include, under the term "book," current magazine literature as well. What a boon a really discriminating clerk would be who with the shears and paste-pot could rescue from the waste-basket of oblivion the wealth of valuable material that receives but a passing glance from overworked superintendents, and do it up in proper packages for convenient distribution! I am not answered by the remark that only good teachers should be employed. As our commercial and manufacturing establishments must in large part educate their workers, so the superintendent must in no small degree do the same thing, and for the best of reasons too. One of the best superintendents that I have ever known said to me in a recent conversation: "Long experience has convinced me that I must give up the employment of teachers from other schools, as a general practice, and employ graduates of professional schools, for they can be changed by the material that I put before them to study."

VIII. And, finally, what many teachers need is a "hobby," something over which they may have their first enthusiasm. In the days of my early childhood I was the proud possessor of a Sunday-school banner which bore the mystical inscription: "Thought engenders thought." I sometimes wondered what it meant. But there is another tri-syllabic motto that I should be glad to substitute for the illuminated "God bless our

home," that with its variegated worsted hangs over the washstand of many a teacher's narrow quarters, for I have learned something of its truth: "Enthusiasm engenders enthusiasm." If one has felt the intellectual and emotional quickening that comes from falling in love with any worthy pursuit, the spirit will spread to other fields and will suffuse, like a gladsome tonic, the dull routine of daily life with an exhilarating energy.

He who for many years once guided the educational destiny of this great city revealed the secret of much of his notable success, perhaps, when he wrote: "When all else fails, and 'this whole round world seems flat, stale, and unprofitable,' as a sure and safe resource there is nothing for health, strength, and recreation like a good, reliable hobby. Though it be nothing rarer or more costly than moth-hunting, the jingle or jangle of rhymes, or even reformed spelling, they are, some of them, as I well know, of boundless possibilities."

"But at your daily mount of your hobby-horse, take not your way down the crowded street and through the thronging mart, nor over the choice flower-beds and fragrant exotics of your friends, but rather turn aside into the quiet lane, or the unfrequented country road, or, still better, off for a free stretch over the wide, open prairie, where, with open arms and expanding chest, you can shout forth your happiness, till with loud-answering echo the solitary places shall be made glad with your presence."

THE SUPERINTENDENT AS AN ORGANIZER AND AN EXECUTIVE

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We assume that the superintendency, like similar positions, grew out of a desire to secure results economically—to systematize work, or centralize effort, thus recognizing the need of the services of one who had given thought and study to this particular branch of human activity, understanding the objects sought and familiar with the means employed. The growth of communities into larger units also emphasized this need by enlarging the responsibilities, and so increasing the perplexities gathering about the trust that men, often occupied with private cares, were compelled to transfer to other hands the more engrossing tasks.

The pressure for expert management may not have made itself seriously felt under the district system, with its limited number of schools, its accentuation of the famous triplet, and its scarcity of equipment. Nevertheless, such management was fully as much needed then as now. The old-time boards, composed of members with sufficient time at their disposal, considered themselves competent to manage the educational as

well as the business end. The state prescribed the studies, and the community did not feel moved to reach beyond these requirements. When inventions multiplied and labor-saving devices came into collision with manual labor, business possibilities made specialization a necessity. People turned to the curricula of the schools for assistance. These were expected to change somewhat the character of their instruction and so to adjust the curricula as most effectually to meet the new order of things. Different localities presented phases of change expressed by the differences existing in the community life of the several centers.

Apparently the system shapes itself to meet public demands; therefore the call for expert knowledge is so persistent that boards of education admit that relief can only come thru the employment of a competent person, hedged about by reasonable rules and regulations. The state, even, has enacted laws that make it incumbent upon boards to secure such expert guidance. In some independent districts this functionary is made *ex officio* a member of the board, and given membership upon committees, and thus accorded power that could not be conferred upon a mere appointee.

Agitation is going on for a more clear-cut division of labor, for both the legislative and the executive.

The duties of the superintendent fall into a threefold classification: those belonging to the organizer, the executive, and the supervisor. Investigation reveals many perplexities that render a satisfactory and efficient performance difficult at times. If a superintendent were privileged to deal only with the educational, and could feel that whatever is proposed in good faith would be accepted in the same spirit, the annoyances would be minimized. Today, in a majority of the cities, he must constantly bear in mind that members of boards are human beings, with the failings that attach themselves to such beings; consequently, the superintendent is forced to devote a portion of time to making his views and recommendations acceptable to the governing body. He must resort to diplomacy that will insure success, and is subject to the charge—justly, perhaps—of being a politician, or one versed in the science of governing men and knowing how to bring about the adoption of the measures that he proposes. The term may not be an invidious one and ought not, *per se*, to give offense.

Now, what do we understand by an organizer? The term, as defined, refers to one who systematizes the parts in their special functions or relations—brings about a harmonious order. This definition carries with it the idea that the superintendent in his official capacity should have a voice—and a very strong one—in those matters that pertain to shaping a school system. This view suggests the inquiry: How far shall the superintendent be permitted to go—how much shall he be permitted in the way of organizing the work? Shall he as the servant of the board adhere

to what the board has prescribed so far as the course of study is concerned, and when in doubt refer the matter back to the board; or shall he investigate all lines of study that materially aid in the mental, moral, and physical development, with the understanding that the results of his investigation shall be for review by the board, and then incorporated into the course of study? This conception of his power would practically give him the initiative, and that makes that body a board of review.

Again, as localities differ in their demands, it seems reasonable to insist upon the right to investigate all demands made upon the schools, and no superintendent should be called upon to make a hasty decision for the purpose of modifying the curriculum. Only when that official has marshaled his arguments by well-ordered investigation and study is he in position to show the wisdom of acceding to or rejecting the claims advanced. We know too well that the public schools cannot accept everything that is thrust upon them from all sides. Therefore, someone must stand ready to weigh the claims, with courage, insight, and firmness adequate to the separation of the wheat from the chaff, permitting only such to gain recognition as clear scholarship, sound judgment, and good sense warrant.

Our schools today are suffering from an overcrowding of the course of study. Too much has crept in and lumbered it up by reason of immature deductions. We are now confronted with the necessity of discarding what enthusiasts have forced upon us, because they would make of the schools a vehicle for the promulgation of their peculiar views.

The richness of a course of study consists in the variety and increased number of associations, in the number of relations traceable—the multiplying of sense-impressions; in the initiation of new and right responses, and in accentuating habituation, compelling the child to realize that he is only a unit in the social aggregation—but not in the increased number of separate studies.

There are those who would eliminate from the lower grades much that has been and is considered essential on the ground that it calls into play the smaller nerve centers, too greatly intensifying nerve action; but instead would provide a kind of work that will give greater scope to eye, ear, and speech, with their accompanying larger physical movements.

The newer sections of cities generously permit the practice of profiting by the experiences and mistakes of the older. This gives some authority for the statement made here that the West is pre-eminently the place of progress; at least, in sympathy for the new it far surpasses the East; therefore, the one-man power does not become a “bone of contention.” The superintendent gets all the authority he needs, if he is equal to the occasion—if the office is not larger than the man. You cannot separate the office from the individual holding it. Where there are

"misfits" no amount of legislation will increase a superintendent's ability satisfactorily to discharge the functions of his office.

If the duty of the superintendent as an organizer lies permanently in the direction of planning a satisfactory course of study, it is nevertheless incumbent upon him to prepare outlines that are definite, clear, and concise, but not so minute as to destroy the individuality and circumscribe the freedom of those who are governed by them.

Again, he is especially charged with the subject of classification and grading. The individualism advocated by some is satisfactory in so far as it is under the control of sound sense and a competent instructor. Experience informs us that some provision must be made for dealing with class instruction, and some attention accorded the recitation and study periods. No classification is entirely satisfactory that totally disregards these. The accepted classification into several grades of half-year periods is sufficiently broad and elastic to take care of individual cases. This is not a criticism upon the individualism presented to this body, nor do I wish to imply that individual cases are always properly treated in the accepted classification.

Reports and such secondary matters as enable pupils, parents, and the community in general to become acquainted with the progress and standing of individual pupils, and thus with the school, need little treatment. Some attention, however, must be given to the smoothness with which such parts of the general machinery run. Touching this phase the educational pendulum has swung from one extreme to the other. All that we can expect is to approach to the golden mean.

As organizer the superintendent's attention is again directed to the question of text-books, apparatus, and supplies. Some may feel that this duty properly belongs to the supervisor, yet my interpretation of the office leads to the belief that it is also part of the business of the organizer. All schools and every child in the school should be provided with the proper working tools, and should have them in as great abundance as the nature of the work and the child's relation thereto require. We all know that the market is flooded with all manner of devices, methods, helps, and short-cuts, and the superintendent must see that useless appliances do not creep in. If the selection of material be left in the hands of that official, less money would ordinarily be expended than if the board acted without his indorsement or recommendation. A board having confidence in the judgment of the superintendent will generally refrain from acting until it knows his wish in the matter. I have, however, known members of boards who were specially sensitive to the representations made to them as to the merit of certain pieces of apparatus, to become so enthusiastic upon the subject that they championed vigorously and successfully their purchase at a time when the superintendent was absent. Several dollars, to my knowledge, have been expended in purchasing "helps" that in themselves

were not worth the price of the material of which they were made. An honest and clear-headed superintendent will act very cautiously in selecting material. It is possible to provide the teacher with too much and so circumscribe the teacher's inventive power.

The advantages of the free text-book system are beyond question. Where a state has not granted such a right, it is manifestly the duty of the superintendent thoroly to inform himself upon its advantages, and devise some plan looking to its gradual introduction. He has not performed his whole duty unless he is possessed of clear and accurate information upon the matter, and has secured the hearty co-operation of the board for its adoption. The law creating boards and defining their power might be construed broadly enough for the exercise of this right, altho not directly referred to, if the board could be made to so consider it. I would not, however, go so far as to insist that the superintendent should familiarize himself with the advantages of the publishing business, or advocate the board's entering into competition with publishing houses. A live, energetic, broad-gauged superintendent can do much, and his suggestions will be respected.

The law requiring the adoption of text-books for a definite period may work against the best possible selection. I am of the opinion that the so-called "open list" is preferable. It makes it possible to go into the market to make choice of the kind of books that give the greatest variety and the most and the best for the money. Where children are compelled to purchase books it may be out of the question to get many texts upon the same subject, altho the practice, now quite general, termed "extending the supplementary list," is practically a confession of the merits of the free text-book system. I see no reason for turning over the selection of text-books to a committee of the board, or to the board as a whole, since its members are not so vitally interested in, or so closely in touch with, the educational needs. A tactful superintendent will not arrogate to himself exclusive power, but will consult in some way those upon whom he depends for a proper discharge of the work. It might be well to place this matter in the hands of a committee of principals and teachers, with the superintendent as chairman, and then have their recommendations passed upon by the board of education. All admit that no one text-book contains all the good or can claim for itself exclusive merit in the treatment of a subject. Someone's judgment must be brought into play, and it properly belongs to the person held responsible for the results, and such person should decide upon the method that will bring him the greatest information. It is true that in smaller systems, employing from 200 to 500 teachers, very excellent results have been secured by placing the selection in the hands of the superintendent.

If there is any duty more responsible, more exacting, or more crucial than any other which the superintendent is called upon to perform, it is

the one connected with the selection of teachers. If he has not the right to say what kind of teachers shall serve under him, or what sort of a corps he shall bring together to carry out his system, the results are doubtful. It would therefore seem just and eminently fitting to put into his hands the power to make the selection of teachers satisfactory. I cannot see how any motives could actuate other than those directly conducive to a good working school system upon the basis of success and harmony. He is the most interested person and should be the most desirous of placing a premium upon scholarship, character, and efficiency. If the matter were left to members who are sometimes closely related to or intimately acquainted with some of the applicants, there might unintentionally creep in a degree of favoritism that would in the end be ruinous. If this were not the case, it might at least work against loyalty and create such a state of affairs as would jeopardize the harmony. Very satisfactory results have been secured where the superintendent is *ex officio* a member of the committee on teachers, and practically decides the selection.

The superintendent should also be familiar with matters pertaining to school accommodation, and should be prepared from time to time to recommend such plans as will secure the greatest convenience for both teachers and taught. He should not, however, subject himself to the charge of extravagance. His knowledge need not be that of an expert draftsman or builder, but his information should enable him to recommend the most scientific accommodations that the limitations of the community afford. His views upon these matters should be clear and well defined. The district may not be able to provide ideal structures with all the latest improvements—these are not absolutely necessary—but his knowledge of what can and may be provided should lead to the erection of buildings suited to the community's financial limitations—serviceable, convenient, and reasonably satisfactory. One such building erected will give tone to the whole and will make it impossible afterward to erect anything of an inferior character.

Having thus minutely mentioned some of the duties connected with the organizing phase of the office, we may add that the plan should provide for some way of reaching the teachers for help and instruction, and should not be so exacting or rigid in its regulations as to smother by over-supervision, but give ample latitude for individual effort.

Having defined a policy and inaugurated a system acceptable to the board, he faces the responsibilities that attach to putting it into practice. As previously stated, it is difficult to differentiate the work of the supervisor from that of the executive; they so frequently overlap. His may be a grand model, but not on an easy-working basis. He may, indeed, be totally incapable of directing it, either thru too great aggressiveness or because influenced too largely by theory or not fully aware of his limitations. In this direction his mistakes are many. It is easy for one to feel

that the deductions and conclusions reached are the only ones attainable, and the danger presses upon him of passing the yielding point, and so becoming arbitrary and losing the opportunity—he may fail to “strike while the iron is hot.”

The weaknesses of the executive are along the line of diplomacy, and in the method of approach. It is not always what is required, but the way in which it is acquired, that invites defeat. He finds it necessary to placate all the elements—the board, the teachers, the parents, the child, the community—in an attitude of co-operation, and must carefully weigh and distinguish between the rights and privileges belonging to each of these elements. Members of boards feel that they are at least partially responsible for the success of a system, and it is easy to give offense by claiming for one's self all the responsibility, while concession in non-essentials would avoid friction.

Boards should be taken into a superintendent's confidence, and *vice versa*, not in any cringing or obsequious manner. He is no servant or slave in the worst sense of these terms, but a man whose bearing and action, as well as his intelligence, should make him respected, and they will be if he is acquainted with his own limitations and has a good working knowledge of human nature. The public admires courage and firmness, and will grant support when they see it deserved. No element must get the upper hand of him, for he is the guide and director and must be obeyed. Senseless coercion and arbitrary decisions are uncalled for. All may claim, and reasonably, a listening ear, no matter what the complaint, and he must be discreet enough to reserve judgment until he fully comprehends the situation. He need not preach, but should think and act upon mature deliberation. Parents and children can be met in a way that will make distasteful and disagreeable things less so. Whatever the superintendent does, he must approach it with his eyes open to the consequences, and must realize that only those things should be done that are reasonable and consistent. Rumblings and discontent will be heard; indeed, the system may be out of harmony so far as individuals are concerned; some may claim that too much, others that too little is being done; dissatisfaction may arise between parents and teachers—in fact, does arise—and transfers are asked on insufficient ground. To bring harmony out of such chaotic conditions is needful, and it is his business to see that all the wheels in this vast machinery run smoothly, if he maintains his reputation as an executive.

There are two extremes to be avoided: the negative, which is always of the Micawber type, and the sledge-hammer tyro, intent only upon gaining the point seemingly so essential, unwilling to consider both sides. If he come close to the community in his capacity as a private citizen, he may readily inform himself upon the thoughts that are taking

root, and should strive to be an important factor in shaping these thoughts to the most helpful solution of existing questions.

It is not necessary to enumerate the many ways in which a superintendent may feel the public pulse. The man who is intent upon discharging his full duty will find a sufficient number of avenues along which he may act, if he only cares to search for them. It is impossible to give seriatim the long catalog of particulars in which, as executive, he may be called upon to act. It is only necessary to say that whatever pertains to the execution of his plans; whatever he can do to secure co-operation; whatever will bring the public schools nearer to the public; whatever will enable him to exercise nice discrimination and keen judgment, becomes part of his duty in the carrying out of the system.

This presentation may be ideal—perhaps overdrawn and imaginary; still, the best results educationally cannot be obtained until the greatest freedom possible within reasonable limitations, a more permanent tenure of office, power commensurate with exactions and responsibilities, and hearty support by the public in all things laudable are accorded this functionary by public consent. Then may be claimed for it what an eastern superintendent has said:

“Whatever there is of tone, support, progress, or efficiency, it all concentrates upon and radiates from the system and character of the superintendency.”

DISCUSSION

E. H. MARK, superintendent of city schools, Louisville, Ky.—The organization and government of any system, commercial, industrial, or social, must depend upon the object to be attained and the nature of the work to be done. In the commercial world, when any new enterprise is to be launched, one or more persons familiar with the details of the enterprise are called in to take charge of its organization and management, and businessmen are very careful not to invest capital in the undertaking until assured that it will receive such expert service in both its organization and management. There is certainly no enterprise in which the entire community is so much interested, and which bears so directly on the prosperity of everyone in that community, as the public-school system. I, therefore, take it for granted that as much care will be exercised in the control and management of this system as in that of a commercial enterprise.

If expert service is required and demanded in the ordinary affairs of life, how much more will the control of a school system, which deals with the destiny of the child, demand intelligent and studious supervision!

There can be no difference of opinion in regard to the place the child occupies in our educational system. The sole purpose of the public-school system is the greatest good to the child, and all legislation, organization, and management is directed to this end.

School boards, supervisors, principals, teachers, courses of study, school buildings are only means to the end to be attained. Who shall direct the affairs toward this end has been fully answered in saying that this supervising work should be intelligently done.

With the organization of school boards the superintendent has nothing to do. These are made by legislation. They are the bodies in which all organization originates, and

they are, in most cases, the creators of the office of superintendent, and as creators hold control of the office and its duties. Therefore, "the superintendent as an organizer and an executive" will do just what the school board determines. This is the real, *not* the ideal condition. As to what he ought to do there can scarcely be any difference of opinion, but what he will do depends upon the character of the board and his own personality. If the board happens to be composed of good, sensible business-men, and not of politicians, the superintendent will very probably, if he is careful and thoughtful, have almost complete control of the appointment of supervisors, principals, and teachers, and he will determine the course of study to be pursued. His judgment and experience will be sought in determining the character of all school buildings.

This is as it should be. Expert work is now being recognized in every department of the commercial world as essential to the intelligent management of business enterprises. So, in the educational world, where the work should be as intelligently managed as in the commercial world, the organization and management should be placed in the hands of one who is familiar with the work to be done and the purpose to be accomplished by the work. To take a child and by means of a course of study, teachers, school building, books, and apparatus to bring him into right relations to nature, the state, and society; to fit him to be a factor in the world in which he lives; to prepare him for the community life in which he must take a part; to give him a proper conception of his rights and the rights of others, is not the work of a tyro, and cannot be intrusted to unskilled hands. Only one who fully understands all these relations and the means of adapting the child to them can be safely intrusted with the work of organizing and directing.

The mere adaptation of the child to any particular work cannot determine a course of study, for no school has the right to determine what the life-work of any child shall be, and any course of study for a public-school system which panders to a popular clamor for a preparation for special life-work is as false as the one which says that only those things shall be taught from the text-books which a child will have use for in life. School must prepare a child for any position in life, and the course of study must be selected for the purposes of mental discipline, development, and power. Having the accomplishment of all these things in mind, it seems that there can be little doubt as to the duties of a superintendent as an organizer and an executive. There are great doubts as to the fitness of school boards for determining the policy of a school system and for answering many of the questions which present themselves in the organization and management of it. Not because the members of these boards are not thoroly reliable business-men, fully competent to pass judgment upon matters connected with the financial affairs of the system, but because the majority of the questions to be decided are such as require a knowledge of principles not found in the world in which the members of the board are actively engaged and to which they have not the time to give the necessary study and investigation. It is true that many persons seek election or appointment on school boards in order to secure the adoption into the course of study of a particular hobby or fad, which they believe to be the cure-all for all educational diseases and the one thing necessary to the proper education of the children; or it may be, on the other hand, that this election or appointment is sought in order that the course of study may be stripped of all those things which are not "practical." In either case great harm is done to the system.

But the faults just enumerated are not to be found wholly in the enthusiastic reformers on the school boards, but if the charges recently made in articles in some of the magazines and in some of the papers read before this body be true, some of these sins lie at our own doors.

Then, from all the facts in the case, it seems that in the organization of a school system there should be two factors—the school board and the superintendent. The duties of the two should be correlative in nearly all the work. The superintendent should, as the expert, submit plans, and the board should legislate so as to make these plans effective. In financial matters the board should have entire control. In the appointment of

principals, teachers, and supervisors, and in suggesting everything that pertains to the educational side of the system, the superintendent should have the power of nomination at least. There should be no question as to his authority in directing the affairs of the system as to transfer of teachers, preparation of a course of study, and the carrying out of the same.

In the erection of school buildings, the board and the superintendent should consult in regard to plans and specifications, but the board alone should have to do with contracting and building. The duties of the superintendent should be so clearly defined and understood, by law if possible, that it would be impossible for any member of the board to interfere with him in the performance of his duties. Nor should any superintendent attempt to perform the duties clearly incumbent on the board.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

CONSTITUTION

PREAMBLE

The National Council of Education shall have for its object the consideration and discussion of educational questions of general interest and public importance, and the presentation, thru printed reports, of the substance of the discussions, and the conclusions formulated. It shall be its object to reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions; and, for this purpose, it shall be the aim of the Council, in conducting its discussions, to define and state with accuracy the different views and theories on the subject under consideration, and, secondly, to discover and represent fairly the grounds and reasons for each theory or view, so far as to show, as completely as possible, the genesis of opinion on the subject. It shall be the duty of the Council, in pursuance of this object, to encourage from all its members the most careful statement of differences in opinion, together with the completest statement of grounds for the same. It shall further require the careful preservation and presentation of the individual differences of opinion, whenever grounds have been furnished for the same by members of the Council. It shall invite the freest discussion and embody the new suggestions developed by such discussions. Any member making such suggestion or objection may put in writing his view, and the grounds therefor, and furnish the same to the secretary for the records of the Council. It shall prepare, thru its president, an annual report to the National Educational Association, setting forth the questions considered by the Council during the previous year, and placing before the association, in succinct form, the work accomplished. It shall embody in this report a survey of those educational topics which seem to call for any action on the part of the association. The Council shall appoint, out of its own number, committees representing the several departments of education, and thereby facilitate the exchange of opinion among its members on such special topics as demand the attention of the profession or of the public.

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

1. The National Council of Education shall consist of sixty members, selected from the membership of the National Educational Association. Any member of the association identified with educational work is eligible to membership in the Council, and after the first election such membership shall continue for six years, except as hereinafter provided.

2. In the year 1885 the Board of Directors shall elect eight members—four members for six years, two for four years, and two for two years; and the Council shall elect eight members—five members for six years, two for four years, and one for two years; and annually thereafter the Board of Directors shall elect five members and the Council five members, each member, with the exception hereinafter provided for (section 5), to serve six years, or until his successor is elected.

3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held in connection with the annual meetings of the association. If the Board of Directors shall fail, for any

reason, to fill its quota of members annually, the vacancy or vacancies shall be filled by the Council.

4. The term of service of the several members of the Council chosen at the first election shall be arranged by the Executive Committee of the Council.

5. The absence of a member from two consecutive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to resignation of membership, and the Council shall fill vacancies caused by absence from the Council as herein defined, as well as vacancies caused by death or resignation, for the unexpired term. All persons who have belonged to the Council shall, on the expiration of their membership, become honorary members, with the privilege of attending its regular sessions, and participating in its discussions. No state shall be represented in the Council by more than eight members.

ARTICLE II—QUALIFICATION FOR MEMBERSHIP

All members of the Council shall be either life or active members of the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE III—MEETINGS

There shall be a regular annual meeting of the Council held at the same place as the meeting of the National Educational Association, and at least two days previous to this meeting. There may be special meetings of the Council, subject to the call of the Executive Committee, but the attendance at those meetings shall be entirely voluntary. A majority of the Council shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting, whether regular or called; but any less number, exceeding eight members, may constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at the regular annual meeting, as defined in this article.

ARTICLE IV—THE WORK OF THE COUNCIL

The Council shall, from time to time, undertake to initiate, conduct, and guide the thoro investigation of important educational questions originating in the Council; also to conduct like investigations originating in the National Educational Association, or any of its departments, and requiring the expenditure of funds.

ARTICLE V—THE APPOINTMENT OF SPECIAL COMMITTEES AND EXPERTS

In the appointments of special committees, and in the selection of writers and speakers, it shall be the privilege of the Council to appoint such experts, whether members of the Council or not, as are deemed best qualified to conduct investigations.

ARTICLE VI—THE PROGRAM

It shall be the duty of the president of the Council to prepare, with the assistance and approval of the Executive Committee, such a program for the annual meeting as shall realize as fully as practicable the purposes for which the Council was organized and exists.

ARTICLE VII—STANDING COMMITTEES

1. There shall be three standing committees: an Executive Committee, a Committee on Membership, and a Committee on Educational Progress.

2. The Executive Committee shall be composed of the president of the Council and of three other members, whose terms of office shall be so arranged that one new member may be chosen each year, beginning with the year 1899.

3. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to provide an annual program by selecting, whenever feasible, subjects for investigation, and appointing committees to

conduct such investigations. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to carry out the provisions contained in this constitution referring to volunteer and invited papers. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to provide a place on the program for the report on any investigation which may be ordered by the National Educational Association or its departments.

4. The Committee on Membership shall be composed of the president of the Council and six other members, whose terms of office shall be so arranged that two vacancies may be filled every year, beginning with 1899.

5. There shall be appointed annually a committee of one to submit, at the next meeting, a report on "Educational Progress during the Past Year," in which a survey of the important movements and events in education during the preceding year is given. This committee need not be selected from the members of the Council.

ARTICLE VIII—THE DUTIES OF THE COUNCIL

1. It shall be the duty of the Council to further the objects of the National Educational Association, and to use its best efforts to promote the cause of education in general.

2. The meetings of the Council shall be, for the most part, of a "round table" character.

ARTICLE IX—AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting of the Council, by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and any provision may be waived at any regular meeting by unanimous consent.

By-laws not in violation of this constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

OFFICERS, STANDING COMMITTEES, MEMBERS

OFFICERS FOR 1899-1900

F. LOUIS SOLDAN	St. Louis, Mo.....	<i>President</i>
ELMER E. BROWN.....	Berkeley, Cal.....	<i>Vice-President</i>
Miss BETTIE A. DUTTON	Cleveland, O.....	<i>Secretary</i>

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The President, *ex officio*

Nicholas Murray Butler, New York, N. Y.....	Term expires in 1902
Elmer E. Brown, Berkeley, Cal.....	Term expires in 1901
Miss Lucia Stickney, Cincinnati, O.....	Term expires in 1900

OFFICERS FOR 1900-1901

CHARLES M. JORDAN	Minneapolis, Minn.....	<i>President</i>
Miss BETTIE A. DUTTON	Cleveland, O.....	<i>Vice-President</i>
J. H. PHILLIPS	Birmingham, Ala.....	<i>Secretary</i>

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The President, *ex officio*

Elmer E. Brown, Berkeley, Cal.....	Term expires in 1901
Nicholas Murray Butler, New York, N. Y.....	Term expires in 1902
Joseph Swain, Bloomington, Ind.....	Term expires in 1903

OFFICERS FOR 1900-1901—*continued*

COMMITTEE ON MEMBERSHIP

C. H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn.....	Term expires in 1901
E. C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.....	Term expires in 1901
J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.....	Term expires in 1903
J. H. Van Sickle, Baltimore, Md.....	Term expires in 1903
W. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.	Term expires in 1905
E. E. White, Columbus, O.....	Term expires in 1905

MEMBERS

NOTE: The letter "A" following a name denotes that the member is of the class elected by the association; the letter "C," by the Council.

<i>Term expires</i>		<i>Term expires</i>	
*James M. Green, Trenton, N. J.....	A 1901	*Richard G. Boone, Cincinnati, O. ...	A 1904
*Augustus S. Downing, New York, N. Y..	A 1901	F. Louis Soldan, St. Louis, Mo.....	A 1904
A. R. Taylor, Emporia, Kan.	A 1901	*L. D. Harvey, Madison, Wis.....	A 1904
*Charles D. McIver, Greensboro, N. C....	A 1901	Frank Rigler, Portland, Ore.....	A 1904
R. B. Fulton, University, Miss.....	A 1901	*Carroll G. Pearse, Omaha, Neb.....	A 1904
George P. Brown, Bloomington, Ill.	C 1901	*Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.....	C 1904
*Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.....	C 1901	*Mrs. Josephine Heermans, Kans. City, Mo.	C 1904
*Charles H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn.....	C 1901	*James H. Van Sickle, Denver, Colo.....	C 1904
*William B. Powell, Washington, D. C....	C 1901	*B. A. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor, Mich.....	C 1904
William F. King, Mt. Vernon, Ia.....	C 1901	N. C. Dougherty, Peoria, Ill.....	C 1904
*Charles F. Thwing, Cleveland, O.....	A 1902	*W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville, Ky.....	A 1905
*Albert G. Lane, Chicago, Ill.....	A 1902	*Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Boston, Mass.....	A 1905
*Edwin A. Alderman, New Orleans, La. ...	A 1902	*I. C. McNeill, West Superior, Wis.....	A 1905
*Charles M. Jordan, Minneapolis, Minn. ...	A 1902	*E. Oram Lyte, Millersville, Pa.....	A 1905
*J. F. Millspaugh, Winona, Minn.....	A 1902	*J. M. Greenwood, Kansas City, Mo.....	A 1905
*W. M. Davidson, Topeka, Kan.....	C 1902	*Reuben S. Bingham, Tacoma, Wash.....	C 1905
*E. W. Coy, Cincinnati, O.	C 1902	*Joseph Swain, Bloomington, Ind.....	C 1905
*O. T. Corson, Columbus, O.	C 1902	*Nathan C. Schaeffer, Harrisburg, Pa. ...	C 1905
*James E. Russell, New York, N. Y.....	C 1902	*Lewis C. Greenlee, Denver, Colo.....	C 1905
*Oliver S. Westcott, Chicago, Ill.....	C 1902	Edward T. Pierce, Los Angeles, Cal.....	C 1905
*W. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.....	A 1903	*James A. Foshay, Los Angeles, Cal.....	A 1906
*C. B. Gilbert, Newark, N. J.....	A 1903	*J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.....	A 1906
*William R. Harper, Chicago, Ill.	A 1903	*Emerson E. White, Columbus, O.....	A 1906
*George J. Ramsey, Richmond, Va.....	A 1903	*James H. Baker, Boulder, Colo.....	A 1906
*Charles R. Skinner, Albany, N. Y.....	A 1903	*Oscar H. Cooper, Waco, Tex.....	A 1906
Charles C. Rounds, Me.	C 1903	Lucia Stickney, Cleveland, O.....	C 1906
L. H. Jones, Cleveland, O.....	C 1903	*Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.	C 1906
Elmer E. Brown, Berkeley, Cal.....	C 1903	*Aaron Gove, Denver, Colo.....	C 1906
*W. H. Black, Marshall, Mo.....	C 1903	*J. W. Carr, Anderson, Ind.....	C 1906
*Nicholas Murray Butler, New York, N. Y.	C 1903	*Frank A. Hill, Boston, Mass. ...	C 1906

HONORARY MEMBERS

Earl Barnes, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 William N. Barringer, Newark, N. J.
 Newton Bateman, Galesburg, Ill.
 D. Bemiss, Spokane Wash.
 Thomas W. Bicknell, Providence, R. I.
 Albert G. Boyden, Bridgewater, Mass.
 Anna C. Brackett, New York, N. Y.
 John E. Bradley, Jacksonville, Ill.

Edward Brooks, Philadelphia, Pa.
 William L. Bryan, Bloomington, Ind.
 John T. Buchanan, New York, N. Y.
 Matthew H. Buckham, Burlington, Vt.
 David N. Camp, New Britain, Conn.
 James H. Canfield, New York, N. Y.
 Clara Conway, Memphis, Tenn.
 John W. Cook, De Kalb, Ill.

* Present at the meeting of the Council in Charleston, 1900.

HONORARY MEMBERS — *continued*

William J. Corthell, Gorham, Me.	Thomas J. Morgan, New York, N. Y.
J. L. M. Curry, Washington, D. C.	Lemuel Moss, Minneapolis, Minn.
Charles De Garmo, Ithaca, N. Y.	William A. Mowry, Hyde Park, Mass.
John Dewey, Chicago, Ill.	Mary E. Nicholson, Indianapolis, Ind.
V. C. Dibble, Charleston, S. C.	John M. Ordway, New Orleans, La.
John W. Dickinson, Newtonville, Mass.	Warren D. Parker, Madison, Wis.
Andrew S. Draper, Champaign, Ill.	W. H. Payne, Nashville, Tenn.
John Eaton, Washington, D. C.	Selim H. Peabody, Chicago, Ill.
Charles W. Eliot, Cambridge, Mass.	John B. Peaslee, Cincinnati, O.
George T. Fairchild, Berea, Ky.	William F. Phelps, Duluth, Minn.
William W. Folwell, Minneapolis, Minn.	Josiah L. Pickard, Iowa City, Ia.
W. R. Garrett, Nashville, Tenn.	J. R. Preston, Jackson, Miss.
Daniel C. Gilman, Baltimore, Md.	John T. Prince, Boston, Mass.
James C. Greenough, Westfield, Mass.	William H. Ruffner, Lexington, Va.
W. N. Hailmann, Dayton, O.	Ellen C. Sabin, Milwaukee, Wis.
G. Stanley Hall, Worcester, Mass.	Henry Sabin, Des Moines, Ia.
Paul H. Hanus, Cambridge, Mass.	J. G. Schurman, Ithaca, N. Y.
Walter L. Hervey, New York, N. Y.	H. H. Seerley, Cedar Falls, Ia.
Edwin C. Hewett, Normal, Ill.	Edward R. Shaw, New York, N. Y.
J. George Hodgins, Toronto, Canada.	H. E. Shepard, New York, N. Y.
Ira G. Hoitt, Sacramento, Cal.	Edgar A. Singer, Philadelphia, Pa.
James H. Hoose, Pasadena, Cal.	Euler B. Smith, Athens, Ga.
George W. Howison, San Francisco, Cal.	Homer B. Sprague, New Britain, Conn.
James L. Hughes, Toronto, Canada.	J. W. Stearns, Madison, Wis.
Thomas Hunter, New York, N. Y.	Thomas B. Stockwell, Providence, R. I.
Ellen Hyde, Framingham, Mass.	Grace Bibb Sudborough, Omaha, Neb.
John S. Irwin, Lafayette, Ind.	John Swett, Martinez, Cal.
E. J. James, Chicago, Ill.	H. S. Tarbell, Providence, R. I.
Henry N. James, Portland, Ore.	W. R. Thigpen, Savannah, Ga.
E. S. Joynes, Columbia, S. C.	H. S. Thompson, Columbia, Ga.
David L. Kiehle, Minneapolis, Minn.	L. S. Thompson, Jersey City, N. J.
Thomas Kirkland, Toronto, Canada.	Arnold Tompkins, Chicago, Ill.
Henry M. Leipziger, New York, N. Y.	Julia S. Tutwiler, Livingstone, Ala.
James MacAlister, Philadelphia, Pa.	Delia L. Williams, Delaware, O.
Albert P. Marble, New York, N. Y.	J. Ormond Wilson, Washington, D. C.
Francis A. March, Easton, Pa.	Lightner Witmer, Philadelphia, Pa.
Lillie J. Martin, San Francisco, Cal.	H. K. Wolfe, South Omaha, Neb.
William H. Maxwell, New York, N. Y.	C. M. Woodward, St. Louis, Mo.
Charles A. McMurtry, De Kalb, Ill.	

DECEASED MEMBERS

Robert Allyn.....	1894	James McCosh.....	1894
Israel W. Andrews.....	1888	M. A. Newell.....	1893
Joseph Baldwin.....	1899	Birdseye G. Northrop.....	1898
Henry Barnard.....	1900	Edward Olney.....	1886
Norman A. Calkins.....	1895	Gustavus J. Orr.....	1888
Aaron L. Chapin.....	1892	S. S. Parr.....	1900
N. R. H. Dawson.....	1895	John D. Philbrick.....	1885
Larkin Dunton.....	1899	Matilda S. Cooper Poucher.....	1900
Samuel S. Greene.....	1883	Zalmon Richards.....	1899
John M. Gregory.....	1898	Andrew J. Rickoff.....	1899
Daniel B. Hagar.....	1896	James A. Smart.....	1900
John Hancock.....	1891	R. W. Stevenson.....	1893
William D. Henkle.....	1882	Eli T. Tappan.....	1888
Elnathan E. Higbee.....	1889	Charles O. Thompson.....	1885
George Howland.....	1892	James P. Wickersham.....	1891
H. S. Jones.....	1900	S. G. Williams.....	1900
Merrick Lyon.....	1888		

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST DAY

FIRST SESSION.—MONDAY, JULY 9, 1900, 10 A. M.

In the absence of President F. Louis Soldan, the Council was called to order in the council chamber of the city hall of Charleston by Nicholas Murray Butler, of the Executive Committee. On motion, Charles M. Jordan, of Minnesota, was appointed to the chair.

The absence of President Soldan was explained by Mr. Butler. Letters of regret for enforced absence from the Council were read by the secretary from Elmer E. Brown, of California; H. H. Seerley, of Iowa; L. H. Jones, of Ohio; and Miss Lucia Stickney, of Ohio.

Aaron Gove, of Colorado, presented a paper entitled "Education in the Colonies." Discussion was opened by W. T. Harris, who was followed by Emerson E. White, B. A. Hinsdale, Nicholas Murray Butler, James M. Green, I. C. McNeill, Charles B. Gilbert, N. C. Schaeffer, and Francis W. Parker. Mr. Gove closed the discussion.

Council adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—MONDAY, JULY 9, 2:30 P. M.

The Council convened in the council chamber of the city hall, and adjourned to Hibernian Hall.

Dr. W. T. Harris addressed the Council on "Small Intervals in Grading and Classification in Elementary Schools."

Francis W. Parker was called upon to open the discussion, after which the subject was further discussed by Messrs. Gove, Keyes, and Bartholomew, and closed by Dr. Harris.

Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut, mentioned the recent death of Dr. Henry Barnard, and offered the following resolution:

WHEREAS, Hon. Henry Barnard, LL.D., long a member of this body, distinguished thru rich service to the cause of education, in the commonwealths of Rhode Island, Connecticut, Wisconsin, and Maryland, and in the honorable office of United States Commissioner of Education, died at his home in Hartford, Conn., July 5, 1900;

Resolved, That the National Council of Education do, and hereby does, place upon record its appreciation of his devoted and fruitful service thruout a career without a parallel in the history of American education, and that the profound sympathy of this body be conveyed to the daughters who have cheered the declining years of him whose history is an inspiration to teachers thruout the land.

Resolved, That copies of this resolution and minutes of its disposition be transmitted to his daughters at Hartford and to the public press of that city.

Dr. Harris seconded the resolution, and remarks were made by Messrs. White, Hinsdale, and Keyes.

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

Mr. Parker moved the appointment of a committee to present a suitable memorial to the work of Dr. Barnard at the next annual meeting of the Council. This was seconded by Mr. Hinsdale, and the subject was referred to the Executive Committee for such action as should be, in its judgment, fitting.

The second paper of the afternoon was presented by James M. Greenwood, of Missouri; subject, "Report on High-School Statistics." The paper was discussed by Messrs. Coy, White, Hinsdale, Gilbert, Schaeffer, Gove, Harvey, and Van Sickle.

The Committee on Nominations was then appointed as follows:

J. M. Greenwood, Missouri.

Joseph Swain, Indiana.

A. S. Downing, New York.

Adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.—MONDAY, JULY 9, 8:30 P. M.

The evening program consisted of an address by Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, of the University of Michigan, and was a report entitled "Progress of Education within the Year." The report was listened to with marked interest, and at its close, on motion of E. E. White, of Ohio, the thanks of the Council were extended to Dr. Hinsdale for his very valuable paper.

The Council adjourned to 10 A. M. Tuesday.

SECOND DAY

FOURTH SESSION.—TUESDAY, JULY 10, 10 A. M.

The Council convened in Hibernian Hall, J. H. Van Sickle in the chair.

President W. R. Harper of the University of Chicago presented a personal report as chairman of the Committee on a National University.

Nicholas Murray Butler, by request of Mr. Harper, followed.

Further remarks were made by Messrs. Baker, Hinsdale, Schaeffer, and by President Swain of Indiana State University.

Mr. Swain offered the following resolution, which was seconded by Mr. Gilbert:

Resolved, That the personal report of the chairman of the Committee of this Council on the National University be received and the committee continued, and that the Council defer for the present any expression of opinion concerning the establishment of a university at Washington.

Richard G. Boone, of Ohio, presented a paper on "General Culture as an Element in Professional Training."

On motion of I. C. McNeill, the discussion of this paper was deferred, and at 12 M. the Council went into executive session.

EXECUTIVE SESSION

Charles R. Skinner moved that the memorial to Dr. W. E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, prepared by Emerson E. White, of Ohio, be presented in printed form in the annual volume of proceedings. Carried.

Emerson E. White offered the following amendments to the constitution:

1. Strike out in Art. IV the words that follow the word "Council" in line 2.
2. Omit all of Art. VI and substitute therefor the following provision, to wit: "It shall be the duty of the president of the Council to prepare, with the assistance and approval of the Executive Committee, such a program for the annual meeting as shall realize as fully as practicable the purposes for which the Council was organized and exists."

Mr. Swain moved the postponement of the first amendment relating to Art. IV to the next annual meeting. This was carried, and Mr. White's second amendment, after full discussion, was unanimously adopted.

Mr. Skinner moved that the Council request the Board of Directors to make provision for furnishing one hundred copies of each paper read before the Council to the author of such paper. Carried.

Mr. Baker moved that the officers of the Council be requested to invite members of the executive council of the National Committee on University of the United States to contribute to the discussion on a national university. Referred to the Executive Committee with power to act.

Mr. Keyes moved that a committee of seven be appointed by the chair, to be called a Committee on Investigations and Appropriations. Carried.

The committee appointed at the meeting of the Council at Los Angeles, Cal., to confer with the committee appointed by the Department of Art Education of the association with reference to its request for an appropriation of \$600, to assist said committee in making a report on "The Basis for a Course of Study in Elementary Art Education," reported as follows:

After conferring with the chairman of the committee appointed by the Art Department, and after careful consideration of the whole matter, we report adversely to the request.

(Signed) AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING.
JOHN H. PHILLIPS.
E. E. WHITE dissenting.

On motion, the report was adopted.

The Committee on Nomination of Officers submitted the following report :

For *President*—Charles M. Jordan, Minneapolis, Minn.

For *Vice-President*—Bettie A. Dutton, Cleveland, O.

For *Secretary*—J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.

To succeed Miss Lucia Stickney, member of the Executive Committee, whose term expires in 1900, Joseph Swain, Bloomington, Ind.

The report was adopted, and the persons named were declared unanimously elected for the ensuing year.

The Committee on Membership reported the following nominations for membership :

William B. Powell, Washington, D. C., to succeed Lightner Witmer, Pennsylvania, for term ending 1901.

J. E. Russell, New York city, to succeed Edward R. Shaw, New York, for term ending in 1902.

O. S. Westcott, Chicago, Ill., to succeed John W. Cook, Illinois, for term ending in 1902.

C. C. Rounds, Maine, to succeed Charles De Garmo, New York, for term ending in 1903.

Francis W. Parker, Illinois, to succeed A. S. Draper, Illinois, for term ending in 1904.

Mrs. Josephine Heermans, Kansas City, Mo., to succeed William H. Maxwell, New York, for term ending in 1904.

R. H. Bingham, Tacoma, Wash., to succeed Paul H. Hanus, Massachusetts, for term ending in 1905.

Lewis C. Greenlee, Denver, Colo., to succeed David L. Kiehle, Minnesota, for term ending in 1905.

J. W. Carr, Anderson, Ind., to succeed H. H. Seerley, Iowa, for term ending in 1906.

Frank A. Hill, Massachusetts, to succeed William E. Sheldon, Massachusetts, for term ending in 1906.

Miss Lucia Stickney, Ohio, to succeed herself, for term ending in 1906.

Irwin Shepard, Minnesota, to succeed himself, for term ending in 1906.

Aaron Gove, Colorado, to succeed himself, for term ending in 1906.

CHARLES H. KEYES,
J. H. VAN SICKLE,
E. E. WHITE,
J. M. GREENWOOD,
Committee.

The report was approved, and the persons named declared members of the Council for the respective terms indicated.

The Committee on Investigations and Appropriations was appointed as follows :

B. A. Hinsdale, of Michigan, *chairman*.

N. C. Dougherty, of Illinois.

Nicholas Murray Butler, of New York,

L. D. Harvey, of Wisconsin.

Edwin A. Alderman, of Louisiana.

A. S. Downing, of New York.

F. A. Fitzpatrick, of Massachusetts.

It was moved by Mr. Hinsdale, and seconded by Mr. Coy, that this committee be clothed with authority to report to the Executive Committee of the Council such plans as may seem desirable, it being the understanding that this action be limited to the present question of the proposed amendment to the constitution.

Carried.

Council adjourned.

BETTIE A. DUTTON,
Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

EDUCATION IN THE COLONIES

AARON GOVE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DISTRICT NO. 1, DENVER, COLO.

The successful accomplishment of an enterprise depends, first, upon the plan; second, upon the execution.

Public education in the United States has arrived at its present condition in the face of a diversity of plans, and with a still greater diversity in execution. In truth, we have no system of education in the United States. The constitutional prescriptions of our national government, whereby state sovereignty is one of the chief limitations, has caused to grow up during our national life as many units of public educational administration as we have states in the union. While in the minds of statesmen this doctrine of state sovereignty is a necessary plank in the foundation of our national government, it is a bar to the greatest progress in some directions, among which may be counted that of the education of the common people. So jealous is each state of its rights that violence has followed attempts to wield centralized power by the Congress and by the executive. In extreme cases, where human life has been endangered, like a scourge of yellow fever, the lines have been relaxed and the government permitted to participate in helping to save the people from disease or death, notwithstanding the objection to national interference.

Educationally this interference has never been permitted; and so Massachusetts, New York, Texas, and California, with all the sister-states, have each from the beginning insisted upon non-interference, and are now trying to execute educational plans, each adjusted according to the notions of the respective locality and the people who have settled therein. Out of this has come a conglomeration of public schools so far inferior in administration to what has been accomplished in other countries, with a more direct and authoritative government, that one is almost led to regret, at any rate in educational lines, the lack of power of the nation. That more power can be delegated without weakening republican government is demonstrated by the educational administration in the republic of France.

State after state, having been admitted to the union, has proceeded to erect, under what appeared to them wise state constitutional limitations, a public-school system. It is true that the excellencies and effectiveness of one state have often been imitated and appropriated by another, but the weaknesses and errors arising from lack of comparative knowledge have also been injected into our separate school systems;

each state profiting not enough by the experience of the older states, introducing new, untried, unripe, and novel measures in conduct of schools; instance, California legislation on text-books.

One cannot refrain from contemplating how different would have been the result had there been a strong and authoritative power under the direct control of the nation. Often the errors and mistakes have caused harm, when, if a powerful, central group of experts, sitting as a commission at the capital of the country, could have had the privilege and duty of devising such methods of administration as would have been obligatory thruout the country, the weak places would have been strengthened.

These limitations obtain in other directions as well as in education, but with the exception of one department, that of agriculture, not to so great an extent. It is conceded that the Post-Office Department of the nation has arrived at a stage where the functions and acknowledged power of the officials and employes have made that department of our government admirable, enjoying the confidence of the people and the approbation of all. Now in the frontier town, no matter how few the people, the postal authorities are supreme, to such an extent that the authoritative uniform, or the insignia on the wagon or other vehicle, meets with a willing and immediate respect and obedience of every citizen.

Had the Post-Office Department of our country been subject to the limitations of the state-sovereignty clause of our constitution, how different today would have been that service!

The same is true of the administration of the War Department, except where embarrassments and conflicts occur on account of the same state-rights condition, as demonstrated in the great Chicago, Montana, and other labor strikes.

The Department of State, whose duties are chiefly with foreign powers rather than with internal problems, is farther removed from the people, and its supreme authority is exercised usually without cavil.

Since the erection of the Bureau of Education as an attachment to the Department of the Interior we have had an institution which in any other country would be but a clerical statistical adjunct, the efficiency of which has been attained and maintained solely because of the singular good fortune of having the present incumbent for the Commissioner of Education. Without him who dare say what would be the condition of the bureau? In any other country it would scarcely be permitted to exist.

The Department of the Interior, from the nature of its foundation and powers, has ever been beset with quarrels and bickerings. It is a department that offers opportunities for intrigue in appointments, for illegitimate financial gain to employes, and includes within its scope many delicate, difficult, and annoying problems.

Perhaps the Bureau of Education at its inception could have been placed within the lines of no other one of the national departments. It

has its place in the Department of the Interior, and we point to it as an instrument theoretically for the assistance of the public education of the country; it has no lawful authority; it is permitted to advise, and has allotted to it a pittance for the work.

We can hope for no positive general advance, assisted by the nation, along public-school lines, unless the central organizing bureau shall be given power to execute. It is agreeable and helpful to go to a friend for advice, and so the country is permitted to ask the Bureau of Education for advice, but only advice; and there must ever be a large number of people who, either from ignorance or intent, refrain from asking for advice. And so the bureau stands as a disseminator of such educational knowledge as it has means and opportunity to give; scattering with good effect its reports, lectures, and counsel. But this effect is far from what it would be, were that authority behind it which compels compliance.

The squandering of millions of dollars of money in unhealthful and poorly constructed schoolhouses, and in the conduct of execrable schools, because the community in which they are neither cares nor knows what would be better, would be prevented could national law reach them.

To some of us it was a sad commentary on the intelligence and patriotism of our nation when the Congress, after resisting repeated attempts to establish a national department of education, whereby the people could be elevated more effectively to the plane of intelligent citizenship, did erect a Department of Agriculture, because money and the greater increase of material value, appealing to the commercial side of the legislators, persuaded them that property and the increased product of our country were of more value to the nation than increased brain-power and greater directive ability of the people.

Today we hear whispers of the erection of another department, for which the same reasons are urged— increase in the value of the output of the people. I refer to the Department of Mining. Without question the erection of a department of mining, as that of agriculture, is to be of advantage, great advantage, to the nation; altho it cannot be hoped that even a department of mining can overstep the constitutional limitations in regard to the details of the construction of a mine, since only the state government has that right.

From these statements I conclude that education in our colonies offers, for the first time in the history of the country, an opportunity to demonstrate to ourselves and to the world what a national system of education may be under national control. We have all the experience, all the intelligence, and all the expert educational brains of the world at our service. In these United States are schoolmasters, superintendents, and administrators of educational affairs who are the peers, if not the superiors, of any in the educational world. So far each has worked independently, cultivating his own narrow domain within his respective state.

And now the time is upon us when from this mass of disciplined, competent, and efficient material can be selected a commission in which may exist a powerful, educational, directive force. To concentrate, unify, and co-ordinate the knowledge and experience of such a body insures a product of the combined technical expert ability of the nation.

I am of the opinion that the Department of the Interior is not the best source of power for the execution of a plan for education in the colonies, because of its lack of cohesiveness, and its varied and large field of action.

The War Department, from the nature of its duties, from the fiber of its organization, and on account of the acknowledged military necessity of prompt obedience to orders, and on account of its clean record—and I say this notwithstanding the few lapses that have been made by army officers in financial conduct—would seem to be the most appropriate department under which to place the execution of any plan for education in the colonies.

I propose: first, a commission, erected by competent authority, whose tenure of office may be unlimited; a commission selected from eminent men who have distinguished themselves in the separate lines of public education, including elementary schools, high schools, colleges, schools both on public and private foundations; not a commission made of theorists; not a commission made of men who can write and speak well only; not men distinguished as jurists, generals, diplomats, divines, or financiers; but of men born, bred, and trained on the public educational platform; said commission to be organized with the present Commissioner of Education, Hon. William T. Harris, as president.

I would have such a commission so constituted as to include all educational specialties; I would have the commission at the outset make plans, map out, as definitely as does the general before the battle, all possible and probable movements in the campaign; because upon the first five years of this work, upon these plans and propositions, depend the educational lives of the colonists. By such plans, mistakes and blunders, and the dissipation of funds, will largely be avoided, and the prosperity and success of the generation which shall succeed the present will be assured.

This commission should have for its executive the War Department; a department made up of men born, bred, and trained to act without question; men who never hesitate to do as they are told to do, never thinking to turn and ask "Why?" men who move promptly at command, and who execute according to written orders; men disciplined in execution; men who lose no time in bickering when something is to be done; who proceed immediately to the work in hand; who have no political debts; whose official lives are assured; who have little temptation to swerve from duty.

To come down to the common, plain statement of one notion with regard to education in the colonies upon which so much depends, and about which the action of the United States for five years will determine the prosperity of a century of these people, I would have competent national authority erect and make provision for maintaining an educational commission with ample power and ample means for the task.

Secondly, I would establish such relations between that commission and the War Department as shall bring the latter to the former as its official executive.

Thirdly, all details with regard to administration and appointments in the colonies and means for carrying on the work, providing for independent financial expenses there after the first few years, should rest within the province of the commission.

Such an educational commission for the colonies, unhampered by office-seekers, unembarrassed by financial manipulators, responsible only to the power that appointed them, with assurance of permanency of tenure, in five years would enable the United States to erect a truly national system of public education, which would stand before the world different from any other—a combination of the excellencies of all the states of the union, and an enterprise of which civilization can show no counterpart, because the conditions of our country, the government and constitution of our country, the inter-citizenship relations of our country, are new, unprecedented, and peculiar.

I have assumed in this paper—as I have a right to—that but one opinion exists thruout the United States with regard to the desirability and necessity of educating the people of the colonies. I assume that no man lives who would not give to every person in the colonies an education equivalent to that which is obtained in the common schools of our states. I was asked to present my notion; I appreciate that it is the notion of one who has had no opportunity for consultation or comparison of views, and who, so far, has been unable to read in the public print anything of special value along the line of an organization of governmental or directory force that promises a unified and effective plan.

The danger appears to me to be that in common with so many of our national enterprises, namely, the danger of swapping or changing. How much misfortune, and even disaster, has come upon the most important issues in our country on account of a disposition, and, unfortunately, the power, to swap horses when crossing a stream! Generals about to be victorious have been removed on the very morn of action. In the great affairs of the Department of the Interior, not only concerning the Indians and Alaska, but in other directions, a successful culmination of plans has been thwarted because, sometimes thru intrigue and sometimes thru honesty—and ignorant honesty is quite as bad in results as intrigue—

executors of the work have been removed and others put in their place who have been compelled to institute proceedings *de novo*.

The law temporarily to provide a civil government for Porto Rico, recently enacted by Congress and now in force, refers to a commissioner of education to be appointed by the president of the United States, confirmed by the Senate, who shall superintend public instruction thruout Porto Rico. A provision is contained whereby reports from that commissioner, such as are required by the Commissioner of Education of the United States, shall be annually transmitted thru the Commissioner of Education of the United States to Congress, without assigning to the commissioner one jot of authority or power.

Furthermore, in sec. 40 it is provided that "a commission to consist of three members, one of whom shall be a native citizen of Porto Rico, is established by the president of the United States." Among the duties of said commission, which includes a compilation and revision of the laws of Porto Rico, is an incidental clause to the effect that said commission is to inaugurate a general system of education and public instruction, and provide buildings and funds therefor. It would seem that the educational interests of the colony under this law are given remote and unpromising attention. A commission made up, as is this commission, of three, to make, compile, and revise laws of Porto Rico, by the nature of its constitution can scarcely be equal to the inauguration of a general system of education.

The history of the last Congress and a notable investigation of the schools of the District of Columbia by a special committee of the United States Senate, the pamphlet of which, making up 350 pages, has been placed before us, present a remarkable instance of eminent senators undertaking to deal in detail with special school interests with which the examining authority is not familiar. Emphasis must be placed upon the ability of experts, and when an eminent senator, like the senator from Nevada, places before the country such an extraordinary report as that to which reference is made, the reason for skilled investigation is made more evident.

That part of the law referring to the educational interests of Porto Rico, while perhaps quite as satisfactory as has been possible to devise in the short time that the problem has been before the country, is the beginning of what, it is trusted, may result in what a national system of education unhampered by state rights can be.

DISCUSSION

[REPORTED BY I. C. MCNEILL]

DR. WILLIAM T. HARRIS was not in full accord with Superintendent Gove on the matter of a national system of education. He placed stress upon individual initiative, but acknowledged the benefit of smaller units of centralized power. He agreed in the

main with the essayist on the advisability of placing colonial education under the enforcing hand of the War Department, yet he placed a high value on independent commissions to manage the affairs of our newly acquired possessions. Education in letters should precede industrial education. Dr. Harris explained his acts in the matter of starting public education in Porto Rico and Manila. Local self-activity under intelligent guidance is safe in our colonies.

EMERSON E. WHITE, of Ohio, explained that the Bureau of Education as first created was an independent department. He would not be in accord with any notion which would bring state or district systems under the authority of the Bureau of Education. Ideals, not legislation, measure educational progress in the United States. The American idea of training the individual for his own good was contrasted with the fundamental idea in France and in Germany, where the individual is trained for the good of the government. The cause of education in our colonies will be solved by elevating the masses to a comprehension of the idea of independent self-help. The English language should be taught wherever our flag floats.

B. A. HINSDALE, of the University of Michigan, said that the paper that had been read and the remarks that had been made upon it showed very clearly that the subject was a large one, taking hold of our characteristic national ideas, traditions, and institutions. All questions in relation to educational system and organization must be considered, if considered wisely, in connection with all congruous facts. Above all, such questions must take into account our political institutions and political spirit. This is a republican country, and our people are democratic in ideas and temper, and it would be idle to attempt to set up a highly centralized educational organization, such as is found in the German states and in France. As had been said, we emphasize local political institutions. Still it must be remembered that general ideas and general control are necessary to unity and to high efficiency. There are two extremes, both of which are to be avoided. While it would be unwise to attempt to set up a highly centralized educational system and administration in the United States, it may well be that more power than at present could be given to our central educational authorities with much advantage. Mr. Gove was in error when he said that the acquisition of our recent political or colonial dependencies afforded the first opportunity for setting up a national educational system and administration. The establishment of the land-grant educational policy by Congress at the close of the last century and the beginning of this one afforded an opportunity for that body to take such action. The question was raised at the time, but not very fully discussed—the question, viz., how the educational lands should be handled and the avails or proceeds applied to their destined object. Congress, after considering the subject, determined, when it enacted the law authorizing the people of Ohio to frame a state constitution and government, to vest the educational lands that fell to that state in the state legislature, and the precedent has been followed in every succeeding instance. At that time Congress could have established what is now called a “national system,” but does anybody dream that it would have been wiser for Congress to have taken such action than to do what it did do? Probably nobody is ready to answer that question in the affirmative. At the same time, it may well be, as already remarked, that the time has come for strengthening our central educational administrations.

Mr. Hinsdale then spoke of General Garfield's relation to the National Bureau of Education. It was well known that the enacting of the law creating the department of 1867, now the bureau, was due to General Garfield far more than to any other man, at least in Congress. The fact was he carried it thru the House of Representatives very largely by his own strength. This was generally understood. It was not, however, as generally understood that it was his vigilant defense of what had been done that saved the bureau in after-years. Garfield believed in the bureau thoroly, and he was the better able to defend it, and to save it when it might have been lost, for the reason that

he was, for a number of years, chairman of the committee on appropriations of the House of Representatives.

MR. GREEN, of New Jersey, asked Mr. Gove to explain his position relative to the commission proposed and its relations to the War Department, suggesting the idea that the proper function of the War Department was to fight, not to attempt the education of the people.

DR. HARRIS explained the legal status of education in Cuba in pointing out the fact that the military governor is necessarily the power over the schools of that island.

MR. GREEN indicated, in answer to a question by Mr. Hinsdale, that emergencies, and not a national policy, properly put the direction of education in the colonies where it now rests.

MR. SCHAEFFER, of Pennsylvania.—The military period of school administration has ended in Porto Rico, and probably in some of the other colonial possessions. The president of the United States has appointed as commissioner of the schools of Porto Rico one of the wisest educators of this age, Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh, of the University of Pennsylvania, who will shape the policy of the schools in that island for several years to come.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS DURING THE YEAR 1899-1900

B. A. HINSDALE, PROFESSOR OF THE SCIENCE AND THE ART OF TEACHING
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

It is perhaps hardly necessary to observe that to present a general view of the educational work done in the interval between two annual meetings of this body—a view that shall be at once effective and true—is no slight task. First comes the selection from the whole mass of material of such facts as typify or represent the work of the year—showing at least the lines along which things have moved—and then the combination of these facts into a conspectus or picture. In the present case the selection of such facts has not been found easy, while the discovery of centers of unity about which they might be grouped has been positively difficult or even impossible. Everything considered, it has seemed best to give over the search for unifying principles and simply to group the facts that have been chosen under the most fitting heads. Moreover, these heads may as well be announced in the beginning.

1. Remarks on three or four phases of public-school history as a whole.
2. Secondary schools, especially in connection with colleges and universities.
3. Higher education.
4. Some educational developments in England and Germany.
5. Educational literature.

And, finally, a glance backward from the close of the century to its beginning.

The friends of educational reform in Boston renewed the last winter their former unsuccessful attempts to effect changes in the school organization of that city. They urged upon the general court the passage of

two bills, one to reorganize the school committee and the other to constitute a schoolhouse department for the city. The effort appears to have been unique in this, that the conduct of the schools and the provision of the schoolhouses were to be intrusted to authorities wholly distinct and separate. The first of the two bills recognized the ideas upon which so much insistence has been placed by reformers in recent years, viz., the separation of the legislative and executive powers, the separation of the educational and business functions, the centralization of power and responsibility, the intrusting of executive duties to men having expert knowledge of the duties to be performed, and the strengthening of the hands of the superintendent of schools. The most original feature of the plan was the creation of a school faculty, consisting of the superintendent, the assistant superintendent, and thirty masters or teachers, or such larger number as the school committee might from time to time provide, elected from and by the teachers of the public schools of the city, care being taken to secure the representation of every grade of instruction and of every school that might fall outside of the regular grades; such faculty to serve without extra compensation and to consider educational subjects, including such as are disciplinary and sanitary, and to make such reports and recommendations to the school committee as it should deem proper. The superintendent, in addition to appointing and removing teachers with the consent of the committee, should have the determination of the course of study, and, by and with the advice and consent of a committee of five appointed by him annually from the school faculty, the selection of text-books and the apparatus to be used in teaching.

These bills were referred by the committee on education to the next general court. Chief among the reasons that have been assigned for their failure are the opposition of the present school committee, the hostility of the Republican and Democratic party machines, and the want of suitable organization on the part of the reformers. It is evident, also, that the people of the city have not yet been brought up to the point of calling for the enactment of such measures. The reformers, however, propose to continue the agitation, concentrating their efforts, for the present, upon the schoolhouse commission bill; and one of them, in a personal letter, avows a strong belief in their complete ultimate success. However that may be, the proposition to assign to the teaching body, thru its representatives in a school faculty, a new importance in carrying on the schools of a city is deserving of more consideration than it has yet received.

At the same session the general court did, however, pass a law requiring the supervision of schools by stated superintendents for every town and city in the state. The smaller towns are authorized to form unions or districts for this purpose, each union or district to employ a

superintendent at a minimum salary at \$1,500, of which the state is pledged to pay one-half. The law is permissive only until July 1, 1902, but after that it is mandatory for three years. This act is in line with other forward steps that have been recently taken by the Bay State. Every town, irrespective of population, is now required to furnish a free public high school; the normal schools have all been placed above the high schools, the requirement for admission including a four-year high-school course or its equivalent, and an examination in the branches included; while the consolidation of feeble schools into stronger schools has become the policy of the smaller towns.

The new charter for the city of Baltimore, which took effect the first day of last March, wholly remodeled the school system of the city. It abolished ward representation and set up a board of education consisting of nine members, appointed from the city at large by the mayor for a term of six years, two going out each year. The city council appropriates money for the schools, basing the amount appropriated on the board's estimates, but the board spends it without dictation. The superintendent of instruction nominates teachers from graded lists based on examinations; he also names the members of the examining board and is chairman of the same. The board of education may reject any nomination so made, in which case the superintendent presents another name, the board being denied the power to substitute one name for another. Each school shall have one or more school visitors, selected from among those living or doing business within half a mile of the school. The duties of these visitors are advisory to the board and superintendent, and are in no sense clothed with authority.

The new school organization for the city of Indianapolis provided for by the act of March, 1899, has been put in motion and seems to be working satisfactorily.

The medical examination of pupils in public schools in this country was first heard of in Boston and Brookline, Mass., in 1894. Such examinations had already become somewhat common in European cities, and they had previously been introduced into the workingmen's schools in the city of New York. Newton, Mass., fell into line in 1895, Chicago in 1897, and St. Louis in 1898. Several cities have come to expend annually large sums of money to protect the schools from the ravages of the contagious diseases to which they are exposed, especially scarlet fever and diphtheria. Continued progress along this line of development may be reported. In the course of the last year the Chicago board of education has not only taken measures to make the medical examinations of the schools and pupils more thoro, but has created the new department described in the following resolution:

That there be, and is hereby, established in the school system of Chicago a department of child study and pedagogical investigation, consisting of a director and such

assistants as may from time to time be appointed to make such psycho-physical and allied investigations, having a pedagogical bearing, as may be suggested by the director and approved by the superintendent of schools and the committee in charge of the work, and also to give such instruction to the principals and teachers in the schools as may be directed by the superintendent of the schools and the committee.

This resolution was adopted in September last, and the new department was duly organized. In April it was charged with the duty of testing the sight and hearing of the pupils in all the public schools, and preliminary measures have been taken for making these tests. The extension of medical inspection to the public schools of the country and their pupils, where circumstances admit of it, seems to be assured, and the establishment of child-study departments like that of Chicago is not at all improbable. Such departments, wherever they may appear, as well as the medical inspection of schools, are due in great measure to the general child-study movement in the country.

The educational affairs of the great state of New York have long been administered by two co-ordinate authorities. The regents of the university, dating from 1787, were organized to supervise higher education, while the department of public instruction, created at a much later day, was established to carry on popular education thruout the state. This dual system of administration tended to competition and internal antagonism, since the two spheres of action necessarily overlap and interpenetrate. The regents declared in 1898: "At present there is more or less duplication of work, in inspection, examination, supervision of teachers, buildings, reports, and appointments;" while the superintendent of public instruction said a little later: "The department of public instruction and the regents of the university are each doing all of this work [that is, the duplicated work] in utter ignorance of what the other is doing."

One result of such a system was mutual encroachments, or at least charges of such encroachments, on the two spheres of administration. Very naturally, therefore, a movement looking to unification declared itself, and continued to gain strength until the subject came before the public authorities. To quote from the report of the superintendent of public instruction transmitted to the legislature in March, 1899:

The public-school system maintained by public taxation, no matter where it is situated, ought to be under the supervision and control of a single department of the state government. To maintain two departments to perform the work which could better be done by one with greater economy to the state and more efficiency, is so plainly unwise and against all principles of government that it is surprising, not only that the state ever entered upon the present system in 1853, but that it has continued so long, and that, too, when there is so plainly a line of demarkation between the work to be done by these two departments.

Responding to an invitation extended to him by the regents, Governor Roosevelt appointed a special commission to prepare a plan of unification, and on the first day of January last this commission submitted its report.

Happily, the commission agreed upon every material feature of the plan that it recommended save one. Unhappily, the feature upon which they disagreed was the one that carried most of the politics and personal motive involved in the measure. Over the unified system a chancellor should preside—this was unanimously agreed to; but who should appoint the chancellor? The majority recommended that the first chancellor should be appointed by the governor of the state, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, and his successors by the regents of the university; the minority held, on the other hand, that all the chancellors, the first one included, should be appointed by the regents. The state department of public instruction supported the view of the majority, the regents the view of the minority; and the result was that, after a protracted controversy—which was unfortunately marked by much bitterness—the plan failed to become a law. And so it will be necessary, if the present cumbrous and absurd system is ever to give place to a simple and rational system of administration, for the friends of reform to begin again at the beginning.

In no great city in the country has public education been carried on under greater difficulties than in New York. The most serious of these difficulties have been the lack of funds with which to do the necessary school work, and the constant intrusion of politics into school affairs. It is for many reasons a matter of more than local congratulation that the legislature, at its late session, took action on this subject, which, while not all that the ardent friends of reform desired, still promises to mark the beginning of a new era in the schools of that city. For one thing, the legislature provided ample school funds, present and prospective, and, for another thing, excluded the political powers from interference with the appropriations, thru either ignorance or malign purpose. The four-mill tax imposed upon the property of Greater New York will produce this year \$14,500,000 for the payment of the salaries of teachers, principals, and superintendents, and still larger sums each succeeding year, as the wealth of the city increases. It seems reasonable, therefore, to expect that the school teachers in the boroughs of Queens and Richmond will not again be compelled to wait for months for their salaries, and then to receive them only thru the special interposition of the state legislature. Such are the few, but by no means unimportant, facts to be reported from this field.

In the field of secondary education very unusual progress has been made during the year. The Committee on College-Entrance Requirements, appointed in pursuance of action taken in Denver in 1895, finished its labors and published its report in time for presentation and discussion at the Los Angeles meeting one year ago. The main object of this report, it will be remembered, was, not to fix or to recommend requirements for admission to the colleges and universities, but rather to make

up a list of studies deemed suitable for this purpose, and to establish a series of units or measures, and to urge the adoption of this list upon the secondary and higher schools. To repeat a figure that was used in the discussions at Chicago, the aim of the committee was to create a uniform educational coinage with which students going to college could discharge their entrance indebtedness, the amount of which the various institutions would fix for themselves. Four periods a week for a school year were made the unit of value—the dollar of this new coin of the realm; and the colleges were strongly urged not to break up these dollars into change, save perhaps in a single instance that is more apparent than real. To carry out this central idea much more college-entrance work was approved or “stamped” than any institution could require, or than most secondary schools could furnish, thus preparing the way for a liberal list of electives in the secondary schools and of entrance alternatives at the colleges. Still, the committee strove to hold both electives and alternatives in check, by insisting upon certain constant studies, viz., four units in foreign languages, two units in mathematics, two in English, one in history, and one in science. Beyond these constants it was assumed that the schools would do the work that they were best fitted to do.

Important discussions and legislation have followed this report, conforming in general to the lines that the committee had marked out. In fact, no one of the numerous reports that the National Educational Association has published in the last few years has been followed by happier immediate results.

The board of education of the city of Chicago has adopted a program of studies that is, in many respects, in accord with the recommendations of the committee; while a committee is now at work arranging for an approximate uniformity of college-entrance requirements in the state of Illinois.

In May last the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland adopted a plan of organization for a college-entrance examinations board that should do the work of examining for all the institutions directly interested. This movement had its immediate rise in an address upon the subject delivered before the association in December, 1899, by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler. The new board, which is the central feature of the plan of organization, consists of the president, or his authorized representative, of every college or university in the middle states and Maryland that has a freshman class of not fewer than fifty students, counting both the course in arts and in sciences; and of five representatives of secondary schools, to be chosen annually by the association that adopted the plan, or in such manner as it may direct. The machinery and methods of this board are topics that lie aside from our present path. It suffices to say that the object of the board, as expressed in the resolutions adopted at Trenton in December,

is "to bring about, as rapidly as possible, agreement upon a uniform statement as to each subject required by two or more colleges for admission," and to "hold or cause to be held, at convenient points, in June of each year, a series of college-admission examinations, with uniform tests in each subject, and issue certificates based upon the results of such examinations;" the several colleges in the middle states and Maryland to accept the certificates so issued, "so far as they go, in lieu of their own separate examinations." This scheme will go into operation the coming autumn, and the first examinations will be held in June of next year. The subjects that have been chosen are English, history, Latin, Greek, French, German, mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, and zoölogy. The institutions represented are Barnard, Bryn Mawr, Rutgers, Swarthmore, Union, Vassar, and Woman's Colleges, and Colgate, Columbia, Cornell, Princeton, New York, and Pennsylvania Universities; or all of the institutions within the geographical limits described that have freshman classes of fifty or more students. These names are at once a pledge that the new plan will be thoroly tried, and that, if successful, it will exert a far-reaching influence. The board of examinations does not propose to interfere directly with college-entrance requirements in respect either to the studies or to the amount of work and study that shall be demanded for admission; but only to establish and carry on a mint for the coining of money that shall have a uniform value, with which students can pay their college-entrance charges. However, results that are not formally provided for are quite certain to follow. The plan will save much labor and expense; cause the necessary work to be better done; bring about a healthful degree of uniformity in studies; save students, preparatory teachers, and professors, deans especially, much unnecessary work and perplexity; cultivate good relations among institutions, and between institutions and the public; and tend to abolish what Dr. Butler has called "our educational atomism." Perhaps it is too much to expect eastern colleges and universities to adopt at present the western plan of receiving freshmen on the leaving-certificates of approved preparatory schools; but while they are moving slowly toward that goal, the middle states and Maryland may well be congratulated on the long step that they have taken in establishing this board of examinations. Henceforth chaos ought not to sit as umpire over the colleges and universities of that region, and, by deciding, more to embroil the fray.

Much the most important action taken by any single college or university during the year in respect to entrance is the new requirements for admission to Columbia College. Elementary French and German have long been college studies, and within the last few years some institutions have put elementary Greek on the same list. Columbia has now taken the unprecedented step of adding elementary Latin. The immediate result will be that a student who has taken a non-Latin course in the

secondary school may enter Columbia College and proceed to the degree of A.B. without prejudice arising from that fact. The total requirement for admission is fixed at fifteen points, of which three must be English and three elementary mathematics, while the remaining nine may be selected, in measures ranging from one point to four points, from a total of twenty-six points to be made in the following subjects, viz., Latin, Greek, history, French, German, mathematics, physics, Spanish, chemistry, botany, physiography, and zoölogy.

At the University of Michigan, also, the entrance requirements have been revised in the interest of simplicity and elasticity.

At the Washington meeting of the National Educational Association two years ago the author of this address presented a paper in the Department of Higher Education on the possibility and desirability of forming a federation of colleges and universities in the United States similar to the Association of American Medical Colleges. After discussion, a committee of five was appointed to report at the next annual meeting of the department a practical plan of effecting such a federation, and to offer recommendations with reference to the same; but this committee was not heard from at Los Angeles. However, another movement, somewhat similar to this one, but wholly separate from it in origin and original purpose, has eventuated in an organization known as the Association of American Universities. A circular letter, signed by the presidents of Harvard, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, Chicago, and California Universities, was sent to certain selected institutions inviting them to a conference to be held in Chicago at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February, to consider primarily the relations of American schools and students to the German universities. In the course of the discussions, when the conference was held, this subject was quietly dropped, and an association bearing the name already given was organized. The object of this organization is the consideration of matters of common interest relating to graduate study, and its membership is naturally limited to institutions that are actually engaged in giving advanced or graduate instruction. The initial membership consists of California, Chicago, Clark, Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Princeton, Stanford, Wisconsin, and Yale Universities, and the Catholic University of America, and provision is made for lengthening the list by the admission of other institutions at the annual conference, on the invitation of the executive committee, indorsed by a three-fourths vote of the members. It is expected by the founders of this association that it will do something of value for fixing the standard for the Ph.D. degree and for its proper administration. It may prove to be, what one writer has already declared that it is, "a long step toward complete university co-operation."

To explain in full the present status of the proposition to found a

national institution of learning in the national capital is not altogether an easy matter. It appears, however, to present three distinct forms.

The first is the plan that has Washington for its author, to establish at the capital of the nation a statutory university. This plan is now pending before the Senate in the form of "A Bill to Establish the University of the United States," introduced by Mr. Depew. The second is the plan to organize for the purposes of instruction the various scientific facilities, resources, and materials belonging to the government at Washington, such as libraries and museums, collections and laboratories, under the supervision and oversight of the regents of the Smithsonian Institution, which forms the center of the new scheme. The instruction to be furnished, it is proposed, shall be limited to students who are graduates of properly accredited institutions, or those who are otherwise properly qualified. It is understood that the Smithsonian Institution shall confer no degrees in connection with such instruction. The third plan is to make the Bureau of Education, rather than the Smithsonian Institution, the administrative center of the Bureau of Research, as the new organization is sometimes called.

Such, in brief, are the three plans now pending before the public. The first one is pressed more or less vigorously by a national committee of some four hundred members, having Dr. John W. Hoyt as its chairman. The second is urged with much persistence by the American Association of Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations. The third does not appear to have any organized support.

The Committee of Fifteen appointed by the president of the National Council of Education in July, 1898, to investigate the entire subject of the establishment of a national university, has pronounced decidedly against the plan of a statutory institution, and has virtually, if not formally, declared in favor of some alternative plan. The attitude of this committee is well shown by two of the propositions that it has adopted:

The government is not called upon to maintain at the capital a university in the ordinary sense of that term.

That a subcommittee be requested to prepare for consideration by the full committee a detailed plan by which students who have taken a baccalaureate degree, or who have had an equivalent training, may have full and systematic advantage of the opportunities for advanced instruction and research which may now or may hereafter be afforded by the government; such a plan to include the co-operation with the Smithsonian Institution of the universities willing to accept a share of the responsibilities incident thereto.

For some reason the full committee did not at its February meeting adopt the report of the subcommittee, but, after discussion, referred it back to the subcommittee without action. It is expected that the subject will come up for consideration at the present meeting of the National Educational Association.

So the matter stands at present. Unless Congress shall sooner cut the Gordian knot, which is hardly to be expected, the next step, if any, will

no doubt be taken by the regents of the Smithsonian Institution. Conjectures as to what they will probably do would be premature. It is known, however, that while the regents are in sympathy with the ultimate purpose of the American Association of Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, they find themselves seriously embarrassed when they take up the question of the provision of funds with which to do the work that would be required, and the further question of correlating formal instruction or teaching with their own original and primary office of conducting investigations and publishing the results.

Our new territorial acquisitions and semi-acquisitions are bringing home to the country some new educational problems and responsibilities. In some measure these problems and responsibilities will receive merited attention at the present meeting of the association. I wish merely to observe that the bringing together of many hundreds of Cuban teachers at Cambridge, Mass., thru the joint efforts of the national government and of Harvard University, that they may enjoy the advantages of an American summer school of high grade, is an experiment that must evoke the ardent interest of every educator and of every patriot. To be overconfident of the result would be foolish, but it does not seem unreasonable to expect that this enterprise will be repeated in the future on a scale larger or smaller, and that it will contribute both directly and indirectly to the solving of the new problems.

One of the new problems is the provision, by the national government, of a civil service, competent and honest, for the new dependencies. In his timely volume, entitled *Colonial Civil Service*, Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell, while admitting that "at home, except for special branches of administration requiring a high degree of technical knowledge, such as the army or the navy, an intelligent man can easily learn in a comparatively short time to do the government work fairly well," goes on to contend :

In an Asiatic colony, on the other hand, where the duty of the official consists, for the most part, in ruling over districts containing many thousands of natives, an untrained man, suddenly appointed, would be perfectly helpless, however great his natural capacity. He knows neither the language nor the customs of the people, nor does he comprehend their thoughts; and the consequences of his ignorance may be disastrous. Well-meaning but inexperienced officials could easily provoke an insurrection like the Indian mutiny without being in the least conscious that they were drifting into danger. Hence the administration of the colony can be intrusted only to men who have mastered the language and all the conditions under which the government must be carried on. But oriental and western civilization are so different that years must pass before an official becomes thoroughly efficient; and no man of parts will undertake those years of preparation if he is liable to be thrown back on the world to start life all over again after he has proved himself a valuable public servant. The colonial service must therefore be a life-long career.

No competent person questions for a moment that Mr. Lowell has here stated the exact truth. Unfortunately, however, there is some reason to fear that the political branches of the government at Washington will

not accept this truth and act upon it as promptly as the exigency demands. Let not this association finally adjourn until it has adopted and sent out to the country a resonant resolution calling upon Congress and the president to take vigorous action in the premises. If we are to become a colonial power, as there is so much reason to hope or to fear, we must either recognize sound principles of administration in dealing with our colonies, or we must follow our predecessors, who have made and persisted in the same mistake, into the abyss.

To quote one of the abler organs of public opinion :

One of the most interesting developments of specialization now going on in higher education in this country is that which looks toward a better training for business-men and civil servants. Whatever the prevailing view of the primary objects of a college or a university, and however narrowly one may be disposed to limit its essential field, there can be no question that the most progressive of these institutions are now zealously seeking to put themselves in touch with the practical business needs of the times, and to fit their students for participation in everyday affairs.

Proofs of this tendency have become too pronounced to be overlooked or underrated. The Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania, the School of Political Science of Columbia University, and the elaborate courses in history and economics at several of the stronger institutions were the forerunners of the new movement. Two years ago the University of California founded a school of commerce, including in its curriculum studies in history, political science, commercial and international law, technological subjects, and modern languages, and laying emphasis upon our commercial relations with Asia. A little more than a year ago the New York chamber of commerce determined to co-operate with Columbia University in establishing a collegiate course of instruction in commerce, to be open to high-school graduates and to cover four years. Dartmouth College has recently announced the Tuck School, with a program of studies bearing directly upon preparation for business and administrative life. Again, the University of Wisconsin has also taken steps to organize a school of commerce, while the University of Michigan has just sent out an announcement of special courses in higher commercial education and in public administration. These courses are especially intended for students, graduates or undergraduates, who desire to specialize in history, economics, and related subjects ; but they are also thrown open to those who wish to prepare for the political and social side of newspaper work, for teaching history and political science in colleges and high schools, for philanthropic and pastoral work, or for diplomatic or consular service.

These several schools and courses of instruction are not yet fully organized, but that consummation will not be long deferred. The causes that have produced them, and that promise to produce others like them, call for but the slightest suggestion. They are the industrial and political, commercial and social, activities of the times. Such schools and courses

would no doubt have come in time had the nation moved on in its old path, but they have been materially hastened by the fuller development of the national self-consciousness that has followed events in our recent history which are too well known to call for formal mention. Those persons who adopt Mr. Lowell's characterization of a university as a place where nothing useful is taught are not likely to take kindly to the new development, but they are no more likely to oppose to it a successful resistance. In fact, we are but following in the footsteps of Europe. Special schools for teaching business and administration have already been successfully established in France, Germany, Austria, and Italy—the best-known of all perhaps being the school at Leipzig. The new University of Birmingham, England, will include a faculty of commerce.

The records of the year show that in the United States the stream of educational beneficence is not only still flowing, but flowing with larger volume than ever before. A careful authority shows that gifts to the "big six" among the universities, six institutes and unions which he enumerates, various schools for the higher education of women, and certain foundations for the protection and industrial training of the poor, amounted for the year 1899 to something more than \$40,000,000. Moreover, he asserts that the gifts for 1900 will almost surely surpass those of the previous year. Before half of the year had gone such gifts amounted to nearly or quite \$20,000,000.

Abroad some educational history has been made that, if not of first-rate importance, still calls for recognition on this side of the ocean. Particularly is this true of England.

The Board of Education Act passed last year swept away the old double-headed system of school administration, the lords of the committee of the Privy Council of Education at Whitehall, and the Science and Art Department at Kensington, and set up a unified education department in its room. Some progress, but not rapid progress, has been made in organizing the new department. The Duke of Devonshire has been gazetted as first president of the board of education, and the names of some of his principal subordinates have been announced. The friends of educational progress in England are watching the successive steps taken in perfecting the new organization with interest, curious to see wherein the new administration will differ from the old one.

Much the same may be said of another subject that has occupied considerable attention in recent years. The commissioners appointed under the University of London Act to frame statutes and regulations for the new university for the metropolis some time ago submitted their report. The total result seems to be but a tentative measure. An English writer concludes his discussion of the statutes and regulations reported in this fashion :

To sum up, a teaching university for London, as the term is understood at Berlin or Glasgow, is still in the womb of the future ; but the seed has been planted, and a first attempt has been made to co-ordinate and concentrate the existing institutions for higher education. We have not yet a university which teaches, but we have a university which recognizes teaching as something distinct from examination, and in the government and direction of which teachers form the dominant factor. The association for promoting a teaching university for London has, after sixteen years of what at times seemed a hopeless struggle, gained a first victory ; though it still remains to occupy and administrate the province won.

Of greater popular interest than the measures just described is the new code for the regulation of public elementary schools and training colleges. Attention will here be limited to a single feature of this document.

In the year 1861 there was introduced into the educational administration at Whitehall the principle or rule known as "payment by results." It sprang out of the anomalous system of elementary instruction which had grown up in the country. The government found itself dispensing to schools, or rather to teachers, over whom it had no direct control, large sums of money, much of which, there was reason to believe, was little better than wasted. This fact vexed the righteous soul of Mr. Robert Lowe, then the working head of the committee on education, who declared, when the revised code of that year was brought out, that "if the new system was costly, it shall at least be efficient ; if it is inefficient, it shall be cheap." The meaning of this was that the revised code contained the rule that the school children must pass an individual examination in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and, according to results in each individual case, a grant should be made for the support of the school. An examination or inquiry into the efficiency of the school as a whole would no longer answer, as it had previously done. This was only the beginning ; the principle was afterward carried much farther. More definitely, the government now paid to the managers of schools a fixed stipend for every pupil who passed a particular examination, so that the pupil was said to "earn money" for the school. The method was a device invented to protect the treasury and not to promote good education. Matthew Arnold, it will be remembered by all the readers of his *Letters*, earned his bread for twenty-five years by serving as a government examiner of elementary schools—an example of Pegasus yoked to the plow. It is probable that no cramming engine of greater power than payment by results was ever incorporated in an educational system ; and the best teachers and educators in England naturally fought hard to secure its removal.

By degrees the rigor of the method was materially mitigated, and now, in the last year of the century, the last shreds of it have finally been thrown aside. The fact is that payment by results, in the technical sense of the expression—that is, payment which depended on individual

examinations—came to an end in 1897; but in the form of “piece” grants, so much for this piece of work and so much for that, leaving the total to be paid for a pupil to be determined by an addition of the pieces, it has lingered on until now. A leading educational journal of London accordingly speaks of the new code as putting “an end to the thoroughly vicious principle of piece work which was part and parcel of Mr. Lowe’s payment by results.” What is called a “block” grant has been substituted for the piece grant; that is, a specified sum or “grant” is paid to the school for every pupil who comes within the range of the special rules. At first there were fears that the new method would work against the high-grade primary schools—which are really nascent high schools—but now that these fears have been removed the block grant commands general, if not universal, approval, as does the new code taken as a whole. It must not be supposed, however, that the old tension growing out of the ancient religious controversy has been eased. Perhaps it has been increased. At least a well-informed writer in London declares rather mournfully: “This code will bring us one step nearer the ideal for which churchmen are now striving—a system of state-supported and church-managed schools.”

Little progress is being made in the meantime in organizing secondary instruction.

On the continent the educational opportunities of women are slowly widening, Switzerland still leading the way. To the universities of Basle, Berne, Geneva, Lausanne, and Zürich they are admitted on a perfect equality with men, while they may enter Freiburg only as “hearers.” Nearly one-fourth of the students in the Swiss universities, or 1,026 out of 4,611, are women. At Heidelberg and Freiburg in Baden women are now allowed to matriculate as regular students on “certificates of maturity,” and at Giessen they are admitted as “hearers.” At the other German universities changes are not reported, and the former status continues. The juristic faculty of the University of Vienna has formally requested the ministry of education to admit women as regular students to all the lectures and examinations in the faculty, and also asks that women who have passed the required state examinations shall enjoy the right of practicing as advocates and as notaries, and of engaging in every branch of the legal profession for which they are not positively disqualified.

There are also evidences of relaxation in university regulations in other particulars. The Prussian government has clothed the technical high school of Berlin with authority to confer the doctor’s degree, limited, however, by the phrase “in engineering.” The same government is also considering the further limitation of the use of Latin in various academical requirements, as in certain dissertations; while the governments generally are discussing the question of no longer

requiring students from the *Realgymnasium* who enter the faculty of medicine to take an examination in Greek, and to give more liberal conditions for the examinations in Latin. This last, however, is but part of the larger question of granting this class of students at the universities larger liberty in respect to the professional faculties. Once more, there is also a disposition in some quarters to open the benefits of university training to advanced and earnest students who have not received the traditional gymnasium preparation. Mention may also be made of the growing tendency in some cities to make class distinctions less marked in early school life than they have hitherto been, or to make the *Volksschule* a real people's school. It is clear, therefore, that the democratic spirit is beginning to make itself more felt in imperial Germany.

Coming to literature, we find the usual output of educational works, but not as many of high character as in some former years. In this country much the most valuable book that has appeared in the year is *Education in the United States*, a series of monographs prepared for the national exhibit at Paris and published by the state of New York. Prepared by specialists under the editorial supervision of Dr. Butler, who contributes an introduction, and the business oversight of Mr. Howard J. Rogers, director of American education at the exposition, the work presents a full cross-section of American education at the close of the century in a manner that leaves little or nothing to be desired. Not only is there nothing in American literature with which it may be compared, but it may well be doubted whether any work ever published has given an equally good view of education in any great country at any given time. We have now shown the scholars and teachers of Europe just what we are doing in an educational way, and it remains to be seen how they will be impressed by the showing.

In the purely pedagogical field one of the noteworthy books of the year is also one of the smallest, Professor John Dewey's *The School and Society*. Probably there is no deep-thinking student of education who has not at times been oppressed by the feeling that the training in our schools is too remote from the life that the children will afterward lead, or who has not asked himself the question how the interval may be narrowed. Thinking in this line has been strongly stimulated by the increasing valuation that men are placing upon social studies and social interests. Professor Dewey has not only given the subject much study, but he has done two things in addition—first, organized a school for the express purpose of trying what may be done in this direction; and, secondly, stating in his book the principles on which, as he sees it, the problem must be solved. More eyes are now fixed upon the University Elementary School, at Chicago, than upon any other elementary school in the country, or probably in the world—eyes watching to see the

outcome of the interesting experiment. No man of sense expects to see the children of the people generally taught in schools like the one that Professor Dewey has set up, but there are many who are hoping that this school may contribute something of value to the progress of elementary education.

Mr. Lowell's *Colonial Civil Service*, which has already been mentioned, is a book addressed to teachers and educators as well as to politicians and publicists, and should be earnestly considered by them. And, finally, it would be unpardonable not to speak of *Educational Aims and Methods*, by Sir Joshua Fitch, the veteran English educator. To say that this volume is in a sense supplementary to the author's *Lectures on Teaching*, and not unworthy to follow that admirable book, is all the commendation that American teachers can seek or desire.

The facts that have been presented, as intimated in the beginning, seem to the bystander isolated and fragmentary. To the historian, fifty or twenty years hence, such of them as do not fall out of view altogether will appear as parts of one consistent, organic whole. Even now we can discover, in part, their relations with one another, with other facts, and with the general movement of the times. The efforts to place power and responsibility, in respect to the public schools, in fewer and more competent hands; to unify systems and administration; to bring secondary schools into closer connection with the colleges and universities; to get the higher institutions to act together for common purposes, and to connect the higher training with business and administrative life—these tendencies spring directly out of that habit of mind, now so marked, which refuses to look at human activities under an atomistic, separatist, or particularistic aspect, and insists upon seeing in them unity, coherence, and organic completeness.

This address, devoted to a review of educational progress during the last year of the century, may fitly conclude with a glance at the state of education at the opening of the century in three or four of the leading countries of the world, as Germany, France, England, and the United States.

In some of the principal states of Germany, where the impulse that the Reformation gave to education had never been wholly lost, the large outlines of state systems of instruction could be distinctly discerned in 1800. In these states elementary schools existed, altho they were far too few to teach the children of all the people, and were generally of an inferior character. Compulsory attendance upon such schools, which had been recommended by Luther and been early adopted in some of the smaller states, had now been definitely enacted by Frederic the Great for his kingdom of Prussia. Teachers' seminaries, which dated back to 1704, had also been taken under the patronage of the same enlightened monarch. The gymnasia were still moving on the traditionary lines; but

Francke, the Pietist, and his disciples had successfully introduced *Realien* into schools before the middle of the previous century, thus paving the way for the development of the type of instruction and mental discipline that is furnished in Germany by the real school, the real gymnasium, and the technical high school. Moreover, this movement also led, in time, to important modifications in the elementary schools and in the gymnasia, and to the admission to the universities of students with a preparation almost purely modern. The universities themselves, delivered from the bondage of the church, led by the University of Halle, had finally won the *libertas philosophandi*. With all the rest, the Prussian government had promulgated the *Allgemeine Landrecht*, which declared :

Schools and universities are state institutions charged with the instruction of youth in useful information and scientific knowledge. Such instruction may be provided only with the knowledge and consent of the state. All public schools and educational institutions are under the supervision of the state, and are at all times subject to its examination and inspection.

For the time, perhaps, this decree was little more than a paper document, but it was never repealed, and finally became a living reality.

Turning to the moral side of the subject, Kant had already finished his work, altho his *Lectures on Pedagogy* were not published until 1803. Pestalozzi, employed at the time in the institute at Burgdorf, had brought out the *Leonard and Gertrude* in 1781-87, thus unfolding to his readers, who were, unfortunately, still few in number, the pure, sweet vision of Bonal. Hegel, born in 1770, was just coming into notice. Froebel, then eighteen years of age, had yet to receive his "vocation" for teaching at Frankfort, and to go to school to Pestalozzi, before he would be prepared to write *The Education of Man*, which appeared in 1826. Herbart, who was six years older than Froebel, was just settling down to his academical and pedagogical career. The awakening of Prussia from her political and moral torpor by Stein and his co-workers still lay in the future, beyond the defeat of Jena and the peace of Tilsit. Fichte's *Addresses to the German Nation* were still seven years, and the founding of the University of Berlin nine years, in the future.

It will be seen, therefore, that while much had been done in Germany, much yet remained to be done. The whole system of public instruction had to be remodeled and expanded, and the people aroused to an appreciation of its value. How stoutly conservatism continued to hold its ground is shown, in part, by the fact that the real gymnasium was not fully organized in Prussia until 1859, or its students, on leaving, admitted to the universities until 1870.

In France the situation was wholly different. Rousseau had put out the *Émile* in 1762, and the Encyclopædists had completed their work in 1765. What the results of the new movement toward freedom would have been — educational as well as other — provided the issue had been a

peaceful one, is a vain tho a curious speculation. The Revolution swept the old educational régime away with all the rest, and set up nothing in its room. That régime, brilliant in many respects, like the other parts of the system to which it belonged, had done nothing for the education of the masses of the people. Still, the rapid succession of *rappports* and *projets* of laws relating to education that followed, while all abortive, bore testimony to the close affiliation of democratic ideas and national instruction. The traditions of the old culture still remained, and, reinvigorated by the new spirit, were destined to be organized in a series of national educational institutions. The Imperial University was not founded until 1806, and even then made no provision for the instruction of the nation ; while Guizot did not secure the passage of the law that bears his name, or send out his equally famous circular on instruction, until 1833. Still, little was accomplished as time wore on ; and it was not until the third republic that France, stirred to the depths by her defeat at the hands of Germany, took vigorously in hand the instruction of her sons and daughters, offering to the world one of the most striking examples of educational progress recorded in history. Thus, to quote Compayre :

For successfully introducing anew into the laws the principles of gratuity, obligation, and secularization, as proclaimed by the French Revolution, not less than a century was required.

Still different had been the course of history in England. One hundred years ago no other great country in the world had been so little stirred by the genius of universal education. All thru the eighteenth century such schools as those described by Shenstone in *The School Mistress*, together with a few Sunday schools at the last, furnished most of the educational facilities that the children of the poor enjoyed. Joseph Lancaster, born in the same year as Froebel, had begun to teach some poor scholars in the shed back of his father's house in London, in 1796, and Dr. Bell had introduced the Madras system of instruction into England in 1798. These were the headsprings of a movement that was soon to attract universal attention. But England was bound fast in the Tory and high-church shackles. The French Revolution sat upon her breast like a nightmare. It is, in fact, almost impossible, at this day, to conceive the depths of indifference or hostility that the ruling classes felt for the enlightenment and elevation of the democracy. When the first education bill ever before Parliament was voted down by the Lords, in 1807, Sir Samuel Romilly, who supported the measure in the Commons, wrote in his diary that a majority of his fellow-members thought it desirable that the people should be kept in ignorance. In 1795 one of the bishops said in the House of Lords that he did not know what the mass of the people in any country had to do with the laws but to obey them, and as late as 1832 a lady of high social position demanded to know

what difference it made what the people thought, if the army could be depended upon. *Blackwood's Magazine*, a literary organ of conservatism, opposed the education of the people on the ground that it made them uneasy and restless, that ignorance was the parent of contentment, and that the only education which could safely be given them was a religious education that would "render them patient, amiable, and moral, and relieve the hardship of their present lot with the prospect of a bright eternity." With these facts before us we are not surprised to find Sydney Smith asserting that there was no Protestant country in the world where the education of the poor had been so generally and infamously neglected as in England; or Malthus asserting that it was a great national disgrace that the education of the lower classes of the people should be left merely to a few Sunday schools; or, once more Dean Alford, writing in 1839:

Prussia is before us, Switzerland is before us, France is before us; there is no record of any people on earth so highly civilized, so abounding in arts and comforts, and so grossly generally ignorant as the English.

To modify Lord Brougham's famous phrase, the schoolmaster got abroad but slowly. It was not until 1832, the year of the first Reform Bill, that Parliament made its first appropriation for education, the meager sum of £20,000, and not until 1870 that the Elementary School Act authorizing school boards and board schools was passed. But slowly, with the throwing off of the old conservatism and the penetration of the masses of society by the democratic spirit, England began to awaken to the shame of her situation, and to do something worthy of her in the field in which she had been so backward. Here, as in France, the relation of democratic ideas and educational progress was demonstrated. It was immediately after the passage of the Reform Bill of 1867, which greatly enlarged the suffrage, that Mr. Robert Lowe, afterward Lord Sherbrooke, recognizing the coming change in the center of political gravity, uttered the celebrated words, so full of meaning: "We must educate our masters." Still, with all that has been done, England, at the close of the century, is confronted by more serious problems than any other great educational country.

In the United States the contrast between the beginning and the end of the century, all things considered, is more remarkable than that shown by any other country in the world. So far as quantity is concerned, education has certainly more than kept pace with the growth of the country. In 1801 a number of the states had assigned to schools a status in their constitutions. Connecticut had founded her common-school fund, and other states were preparing to emulate her example. The national government had taken the first steps in that line of policy which has resulted in endowing education with a capital of about \$300,000,000. New York had chartered, in 1787, the regents of the state university, and begun to move in the direction of popular education. In 1801 there

were twenty-three colleges in the country, all but nine of them founded since 1775, whereas we now have more than four hundred. West and south of the Hudson river not even the rudiments of a state system of public instruction existed, while the boasted New England systems were but imperfectly developed and comparatively inefficient. Save alone the few New England grammar schools, there were no public high schools in the country, where we now have more than five thousand. But few of the state governments were doing anything whatever for elementary teaching. The first state board of education and the first state secretary, as well as the first local superintendent, were thirty-six years distant, and the first state normal schools thirty-eight years distant. Horace Mann, four years of age, was just beginning to braid straw in his native town of Franklin, Mass., while Henry Barnard was not born until 1811. More than twenty years were still to elapse before George Ticknor would urge valuable reforms in Harvard College, or Thomas Jefferson found the University of Virginia; while Francis Wayland would not write his book on college education until 1842, or prepare his more famous "Report to the Trustees of Brown University" until 1850. The state universities of the West were potent only in the implied promise of Congress to endow them with two townships of wild land apiece.

Our hurried glance has been limited to education as a whole. If we were to single out the education of women, who are one-half of the human family, the showing would be still more effective. This was shamefully neglected, even in the best-educated states and countries. In the United States not only were co-education colleges, "annexes," and women's colleges one and two generations in the future, but even the day of ladies' seminaries had not dawned. Still more, girls were sometimes denied the privileges of the common school. For example, it was not until 1789 that they were admitted to the schools of Boston, and then only when the boys did not need the schoolhouses.

To make this view most effective it would perhaps be desirable to present a similar one of education at the close of the century. But that is manifestly impossible. Probably, also, it is unnecessary. It may well be assumed that the audience is fully able to supply the counterpart of the picture that has been drawn. Three or four general statements, at least, will suffice.

Education has everywhere become a function of the state; that is, it has been placed in the only hands that are competent to furnish it to the people. Statesmen are called upon to reckon with the subject, and monarchs urge it in speeches from the throne. The educational budgets of the great educational countries rank with the budgets of the army and navy, or rather above them. The united expenditures of Germany, France, Great Britain, and the United States for public education this year amount to nearly \$500,000,000. The United States will cross the

century line with 245,000 public-school houses, 418,000 public-school teachers, 15,700,000 pupils in public schools, and an expenditure for public education of \$203,000,000. The two cross-sections of civilization marked 1800 and 1900 offer to our minds many striking contrasts; but none more striking, more instructive, more inspiring, more conducive to hopeful views of the world and of the race, than those furnished by education. With such a century behind it, what can the twentieth century be but

“ . . . another morn
Risen on mid-noon . . . ”

CLASS INTERVALS IN GRADED SCHOOLS

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

The germinal school organization out of which all varieties have grown is the country school of one room and one teacher, with from ten to sixty or more pupils of all ages and degrees of advancement, from the stripling of four years, who begins at the alphabet, up to the young man of twenty-one, who is likely to study algebra, or Latin, or natural philosophy. The difference in qualifications ranges thru eight or ten years of study. If classes are to be made, they are likely to be made on the accidental fact that some of the pupils bring to school the same text-books—the same arithmetic, the same reader, or geography, or grammar; a class being formed with very little regard to the difference in advancement of its members. Not seldom it happens that those of like advancement in the country school happen to have different text-books, and for that reason alone are assigned to different classes and mated with other pupils of very inferior attainments, who have the same book.

Thus it happens that the function of the teacher in the country school becomes chiefly one of keeping order and hearing lessons, without being able to find time to teach or explain anything, or to become acquainted with the obstacles that arise in the minds of his pupils. His number of recitations per day averages from twenty-five to fifty, and their length varies from two minutes to twenty or thirty, but averaging only five minutes apiece. There is no division of labor in this rudimentary type of school, and it is obvious that the continuance under the same teacher possesses but little more advantage than the antiquated process, by which a gun was made thruout—lock, stock, and barrel—by one gunsmith, has over the division-of-labor system in the Springfield armory, or the watch manufactories at Waltham or Elgin, where each manipulation has a different workman to perform it. With small schools of this character, which range thru so wide differences in age and acquirements in their pupils, but little can be done other than to secure discipline and lay special stress upon individual industry.

Uniformity of text-books (now generally established by state laws) renders possible some degree of classification; but at best such classification is very imperfect, for the reason that there can be little transferring from one class to another in case of differences of ability.

When the country school grows to be a village school, and the number of pupils increases to sixty or one hundred, two rooms are opened and two teachers employed. Division of labor may begin here. Primary and grammar departments are instituted, and the range of acquirement in each room may be four years by the course of study. Fewer classes and larger ones allow the teacher twice the length of time for each recitation, and he can begin to lay some stress on instruction. The advantages of class recitation over individual instruction begin to appear at this point. Individual instruction is good where the teacher can devote to it as much time as to an ordinary recitation, but it is inferior to class recitation even then. The class should consist of not less than ten nor more than thirty. The length of recitation should vary from fifteen or twenty minutes in the primary grades, to thirty minutes in the grammar department. During recitation there should be the most vivid and constant attention on the part of all the pupils. It is obvious that this can be obtained in the primary grade only for a short time. With increasing discipline and the strength that comes of years of practice, the recitation hour can be lengthened.

That a properly conducted class recitation is of far greater value than individual instruction is obvious from the consideration that the contents of the lesson are stated over and over by different pupils of the class, criticised and discussed, illustrated from the experience of different pupils, and the pupil has the advantage of seeing how his fellows encounter and surmount such difficulties as he himself meets. What we see in the experience of others, our equals, becomes at once our experience by adoption, and it saves us from the pain and consumption of time necessary to acquire its wisdom thru personal adventure. Hence education is essentially to be carried on in the form of a community. The school is and must be a community; no private tutoring can educate as the school can. But it is evident that the school best subserves this purpose when it classifies so that each one meets his equals in the recitation. Great inferiority or great superiority in his fellows mars the force of the lesson which he learns from seeing their work.

The village school of two rooms, as contrasted with the country school of one room, exhibits to us the beginnings of classification and proper methods of recitation. It does hardly more than this. Its separation of the four years of primary work from the four years of grammar-school work is a great, but only one, step.

When a village comes to have 500 or 1,000 children, living within a small area so that they can be brought into a central school of eight to

twenty rooms, new developments become possible in grading and classification. Usually the primary work is kept localized in small schools, while only the advanced pupils are brought together in the central school. This is just and proper. The ratio of younger pupils to older ones is that of a large number to a small one.

First year	-	-	-	-	30	Fifth year	-	-	-	-	7
Second year	-	-	-	-	21	Sixth year	-	-	-	-	4
Third year	-	-	-	-	20	Seventh and eighth years	-	-	-	-	3
Fourth year	-	-	-	-	12	High school	-	-	-	-	3

Provided the classes in the higher grades are to be of normal size, it is clear that the chances for proper grading are only one-seventh to one-tenth as good in them as in the lowest grade. The only remedy for this is to bring together the pupils of the higher grades into fewer schools. There may be very many schools with the lower four grades. There should be only five rooms devoted to instruction of pupils of the sixth year in the course, where there are thirty rooms devoted to the lowest grade, or ninety-one rooms devoted to the five lower years' work.

Counting the lowest three years of the course as primary work, we have over 70 per cent. of all the pupils in the schools in the primary department, and only about 26 per cent. in the grammar department. In eastern cities, where education for a long time has done its work, the ratio is much more favorable to the higher departments than in western cities. From these facts it is clear that in order to secure as good results in classification of grammar-school pupils as with primary pupils, the former must be brought together into about one-fourth as many schools as the latter.

Whenever the sizes of the schools have been such as to admit of it, a system of classification has been introduced, and the immediate consequences have been: (a) great increase in the length of recitation; (b) far more thoroughness in the discussion of the lesson, sifting the different statements, and probing the meaning of the same; (c) great stimulation of the mental activity of the pupil thru trial and competition with other members of his class. These three advantages can scarcely be overestimated. They multiply the teacher's power just as organization improves the strength of an army. In the unclassified system the teacher is only a private tutor, and the fewer pupils he has the better for each and all. In the classified system the proper quota of pupils is a potent instrument in the hands of the teacher, and he uses the whole class to correct and stimulate each one in it. The lesson, as recited and discussed by and before the class, gets all its phases stated, restated, and criticised as never could be done in the case of a single pupil with a private tutor. The presence of the class arouses the teacher to a high pitch of energy, and each individual in the class is excited by the presence of the teacher and the rest of the class. These circumstances account for the high estimation in which the graded system is everywhere held.

So many good things have a tendency to hide some very serious defects. One of these defects is the practice of annual promotions.

A set time for examination and promotion is injurious just in the ratio of its infrequency. Annual examinations for promotion and a discontinuance of promotions at other times is an extremely pernicious system and occasions serious injury to the higher grades of our schools. It is evident that the farther advanced the pupil, the more unfavorably will it affect him; and yet in our schools thruout the country the system is so arranged that this Procrustean device applies more especially to the advanced pupils. In how many of our cities is there promotion to the high school oftener than once per year? What becomes of the pupils who lack 1 per cent. of making the standard required? Are they not sent over the work of the highest grade of the grammar schools again, and thus made to occupy a year in doing what they might do in one-fourth of that time? And do they not leave school at this crisis more than at any other time in the whole course?

The effect of sending pupils back to repeat the work of the entire year is well known to all teachers who have made experiments in this direction. Both parent and pupil feel very keenly the time lost. The pupil must have been over much of the work of the year—perhaps nine-tenths or three-quarters, or perhaps only one-half of it. Yet, what he has done entitles him to an advanced position over his fellow-pupils of the next class below him. If he returns to school after being thrust back a year for his lack of less than half a year, he appears in the ranks of a class which was a year's work behind him. He has lost his ambition; weeks pass away before he comes to work that is difficult enough to arouse him to the exertion of his full energies. Meanwhile he has lost his ability for hard study, and he is very likely to break down a second time on the work of the year. A second failure in the trial for promotion is nearly sure to cause withdrawal from school. The parent has lost faith in the talent of his child and puts him into business or apprentices him to a trade. The youth has lost his own confidence in himself, and is stunted for intellectual growth the rest of his life.

A system which classifies the weak and incompetent with the strong and genial-minded, and when they diverge in the amount of work accomplished under its instruction—as they certainly will diverge under any instruction which is other than an opiate, a paralyzer of the will—still retains them in the same class and relaxes its hold so as to release the weak from a normal responsibility, will be found in nearly every case to be productive of injury to the growth of character in both weak and strong. If pupils of all classes are to be held to a strict accountability for their work, there must be a careful system of reclassification.

It is evident that provision must be made for promotion of the pupils who make rapid progress, and that this promotion will, at the same time,

restore the proper quota of pupils to the teachers of the higher grades. A promotion made once in ten weeks, or once in a "quarter" or "term," will generally suffice to keep the school well classified.

It is clear that frequent promotion should not be made by classes. The few best ones in the class should be united with the class above—it will seem a reward or a recognition of their excellence. After such promotion has been made thru all, or nearly all, of the classes from the lowest, each class will find itself composed of its fair, average, and poor scholars, together with a few of the best from the next lower class in place of the few that it has lost by promotion. For a while, at least, the average and fair scholars in the class will have the stimulus that comes from the consciousness of being the best in the class. The poor ones will rank as "middling," and the new pupils will begin as the poorest and slowly work up toward the top of the class. The advantage to the self-respect of the slower pupils which comes from standing in relation to their classmates as abler and better informed is not to be lost sight of.

A process of continual readjustment of classification in our schools will render the whole school system elastic and mobile. Like the current of a river, there will be everywhere forward motion—in the middle the current is more rapid, at the sides the current flows more slowly. The work of the grade laid down for a year's study will be accomplished in three or three and one-half quarters by the brightest; by the dullest and slowest, in five quarters. There will be no temptation to push on a slow pupil or drag him beyond his powers; no temptation to promote a pupil to a new grade's work before thoroly completing what is below him.

By this plan would be checked a pernicious system of holding back pupils from examination for the high school, simply for the purpose of gaining a reputation for the school thru the high per cent. of its pupils that succeed in the competitive examination.

Doubtless there is a certain degree of thoroness requisite in the lower branches before the pupil can profitably take up the studies of the next higher grade. But after attaining this per cent. it is possible, and indeed often the practice, to keep the pupil drilling over the lower work, in order to secure a certain mechanical thoroness, so long as to waste much time that might be better expended for the pupil's culture and growth on the higher studies.

It might be urged that this system causes so rapid a change from teacher to teacher that the very important personal influence of the teacher is materially impaired. But under this system in the higher grades the pupil would hardly change teachers oftener than once or twice per year; and a change as often as this is desirable for the healthy individual culture of the child. The school should not be a family influence exclusively. It is the transition to civil society; consequently the pupil must change teachers often enough to correct any one-sided tendencies of

social culture that he may be liable to acquire from the individual teacher. For it must be remembered that reclassification of a whole school of 700 pupils, distributed thru twelve rooms, does not imply a change of teachers on the part of more than one-sixth of the pupils, even when one-third of the best pupils in each class are promoted to the next higher class. Each teacher having two classes (or, in the lower grades, three classes) will have one-third of the pupils from her advanced class promoted to the lower class in the next room above; she will likewise receive from the next room below one-third of the pupils from the advanced class there. In her own room one-third of the pupils will be promoted from her second to her first class, but will still remain under the same teacher. In fact, she will have promoted to the next room one-sixth of her pupils, and have received one-sixth from the next lower room—that is to say, in case one-third is promoted from each class; but, practically, this is the maximum, and in ordinary cases a less proportion of the class will be transferred.

The system of frequent transfer does not affect the individual pupil any oftener, on an average, than the system of transfer once a year. The bright pupils, it is true, have frequent opportunity to advance. The system is elastic for them. The slow pupils advance only when ready. The system discards one general epoch of transfer and reclassification at the close of the year, and adopts instead four or more partial transfers, so arranged as to accommodate the twofold demand: first, that the ablest pupils shall not be kept back; second, that the ablest and highest-paid teachers shall, at all times, have their full quota of pupils. In the lowest grade, where several rooms in the same building are filled with pupils not advanced beyond the first year of their course, the bright pupil will change teachers perhaps three or four times in the year. In the higher grades the pupil will remain a year or more under each teacher.

Classification in a school is never absolute. No two pupils are of exactly the same degree of progress. The entire number in the school may be ranked from the highest to the lowest, and there will be found no wide gaps indicating a natural separation into classes, but the best of the next class below would stand very near the poorest of the class above, no matter where a division were to be made. In dividing into classes, therefore, the proper number in the class is first to be considered, and next the qualifications. But it will not do, even for the sake of having a class of proper size, to combine pupils of widely differing attainments.

In enumerating the causes which tend to render frequent reclassification necessary, I would mention the following:

Some pupils are detained from school by sickness, some by the necessity of working for a living. Three months of a year is all that can be afforded by the poorest people after the child is able to work. New arrivals in the city, or departures from the city, occasion a fragmentary

participation in the privileges of the school. Moreover, it is an important fact that nearly one-half of the youngest pupils begin their school life in the spring, having arrived at school age too late the previous fall to enter before the inclement weather sets in. The number of pupils belonging to the school at any one time is two-thirds of the entire number enrolled for the year. Hence the accession and loss of pupils during the year equal 50 per cent., or one-half, of the average number belonging to the school. It should be stated that the statistics of a large number of cities show a greater fluctuation than this. The general character of this accession and loss may be stated thus: In the lower grades there is continual accession, in the upper grades continual withdrawal of pupils.

There is great difference among pupils in the capacity to learn. Children who enter school at eight years of age can, on an average, make nearly double the progress in primary work that pupils of five years of age can make. Bright, nervous children will make far more rapid progress than children who are stolid and dull.

The school must provide for this difference in rates of progress by frequent reclassification; otherwise the school will become a lifeless machine, a Procrustean bed. It must be understood that when bright scholars are kept back for dull ones, they acquire loose, careless habits of study; and when pupils of slower temperaments are strained to keep pace with quick and bright ones, they become discouraged and demoralized.

Then there is the difference in temperament and character—the slow and the swift, the weak and the strong, the careless and the earnest, the mature and the immature, the industrious and the indolent. Start all together, and these causes will soon make a great difference in attainments.

As systems of schools are generally organized, the higher-salaried and most experienced teachers have charge of the upper grades of pupils. As their classes suffer depletion thruout the year, unless there is some regular mode of transferring new pupils to the care of those teachers, they will have very small classes the latter half of each year. Thus, while the poorer class of teachers are overburdened, the ablest and best-paid teachers have less than their quota of pupils. It is clear that the policy should be to bring as many pupils as possible under the ablest and best-paid teachers. The practice of frequent transfer of pupils is better for this purpose than the custom of transferring in bulk once per year.

In addition to the obvious advantages involved in providing for the advance of pupils according to their abilities, there is, therefore, the additional advantage of economy in filling up the classes of the ablest and best-paid teachers, and making room in the lower grades for new pupils constantly applying.

Instead of its being an injury, it is rather an advantage, on the whole, to change teachers oftener than once a year. Is it desirable to keep a

pupil back in his studies simply in order that he may recite for a long time to the same teacher? Every superintendent knows that a change of teachers brings the pupil in contact with a new individuality, prevents the danger of warping the development of character in the pupil, and is desirable oftener than once a year in the lower grades, and at least once a year in the higher grades—where the teachers are maturer and more highly cultured—until the pupil reaches the high school, where he recites daily to three or more teachers.

In conclusion, I will quote what in 1875 I wrote of the working of this system of small intervals in a system of schools in a western city, thus :

"At all times there are now classes just beginning the work of a grade, or year's work, in some one of our schools. The classes are not separated by intervals of one year in their work, but by irregular intervals varying from six weeks to twenty. It is considered desirable to have these intervals small, so that reclassification may be more easily managed. Pupils who fall behind their class for any reason (such as absence, lack of physical strength, or of mental ability) may be reclassified with the next lower class without falling back a year and thereby becoming discouraged. Pupils who are unusually bright or mature may be promoted to the class above, or form new classes with the slower pupils of the class above who need to review their work. Thus it happens that in a district school there is a continued process going on, the elements of which are as follows: (1) The older and more advanced pupils are leaving school for business or other causes. This depletes the classes of the most skillful and best-paid teachers, who are usually placed in charge of the most advanced pupils. Again, there is at all times of the year an influx, into the lower grades, of pupils who have just completed their sixth or seventh year and are now anxious to begin their school career. Thus the pupils in the primary rooms of our schools tend continually to be overcrowded. (2) To correct this continued tendency which overcrowds the rooms of the least skillful and poorest-paid teachers, and gives small quotas of pupils to the most skillful and best-paid teachers, from time to time (usually once in ten weeks, but oftener in some schools) each class is sifted and its most promising pupils united with what remains of the next higher class (i. e., with the not-promising portion of it—those who, for absence, or dull intellect, or weak wills, fail to keep up with the best). (3) To make room for this transfer, a portion of the highest class is sent to the branch high schools. (4) The number changed from class to class is usually small. The disturbance in classes is very slight, compared with the advantages gained by the teacher in being relieved of the necessity of driving the laggards to make them keep up with the average of the class. The teacher was once obliged to spend most of her time upon the dull ones in the useless endeavor to force them to make up lost time or to

equal the strides of the more mature, more regular, or more brilliantly gifted pupils; and, of course, these latter pupils lost proportionately; and the net result of the process was to overwork the incompetent and to hold back the competent ones. The teacher, in the vain effort to hold together the extremes of her class, separating more widely every day till the end of the year, became cross and petulant, and sank continually into the abyss of drill-machine pedagogy. Under the present system we can make room, when needed, in the lower grades, and fill up the classes of our skillful and high-priced teachers."

DISCUSSION

[REPORTED BY I. C. MCNEILL]

F. W. PARKER, of Illinois.—Age and attainment are properly the bases for promotion. Life must be manifested by children of similar age and experience to each other. In the recitation the individual pupil brings in himself for the benefit of others. The child should go into the next grade when he can do the most good there.

MR. GOVE.—In the practical working of the short grading of the school most pupils go on well together. There is less difference between pupils than is often thought.

MR. KEYES.—There is danger of securing so much adjustability as to defeat the ends of class work. The most helpful teacher goes on with her class regardless of the exact amount of work done in a term of school. Teachers should not be tied down to a time-card for promotions.

MR. BARTHOLOMEW.—Trouble arises from too much pressure on teachers, censure for failure to put classes thru on schedule time.

DR. HARRIS.—There is a disposition for teachers to nag slow pupils.

COLONEL PARKER.—Any system which says "so much in such a time" is hopeless

REPORT ON HIGH-SCHOOL STATISTICS

JAMES M. GREENWOOD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, KANSAS CITY, MO.

The object in submitting this report to the National Council of Education is to call attention to the imperfect methods now employed in collecting and tabulating high-school statistics, and to perfect a uniform system to be used thruout the country. Until such a system is adopted, the important facts connected with this department of public education will continue to be imperfect and unreliable. The general trend of the various groups of children in their studies, the studies that present most difficulty, persistence of attendance, general behavior, and other items should be matters not only of record, but also of investigation. Under present existing conditions as much as can be claimed with certainty is "guesses at the truth."

4. Total number and ages of first-year pupils that have been dropped from your high school since September, 1899:

<i>Why dropped?</i>		<i>Ages in years</i>										
		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
Failing eyesight	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Transferred	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Illness	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Illness in family.	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
To work	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Left city	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Football	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Society	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Inability	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Unknown	Boys ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
	Girls ...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
..... 1900.												

Principal.

Replies to this circular were received from the following cities: Portland, Ore.; Topeka, Kan.; Boys' High School, New York city; Providence, R. I.; Cambridge, Mass.; Denver, Colo.; Springfield, Mass.; Pittsburg, Pa.; Louisville, Ky.; West Division High School, Chicago; Newark, N. J.; Milwaukee, Wis. (three schools); Patterson, N. J.; Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Scranton, Pa.

The total enrollment in these schools was 12,542, distributed as follows: 6,804 belonged to the first year, 2,850 to the second, 1,799 to the third, and 1,089 to the fourth year. These reports show that 54.3 per cent. of the pupils were first-year, 22.7 per cent. second-year, 14.3 per cent. third-year, and 8.7 per cent. fourth-year. This result, I suppose, represents an average distribution of the pupils by years.

Of the 6,804 of the first-year pupils at the time of enrollment, 2 were 11 years old; 79, 12; 538, 13; 1,479, 14; 1,516, 15; 980, 16; 373, 17; 95, 18; and 16, 19 years old; leaving 1,801 unclassified as to age.

LEAVING SCHOOL—GENERAL DRIFT

From the same schools 1,384 pupils out of 6,804 had left school up to the time these reports were forwarded in April. The ages of those withdrawn from school were: 8, 12 years old; 43, 13 years old; 185, 14 years old; 258, 15 years old; 265, 16 years old; 149, 17 years old; 62,

18 years old; 14, 19 years old; and 8, 20 years old. In round numbers, 20 out of every 100 pupils dropped out of the high school the first year. By ages 8 out of 79, 12 years old, left school; 43 out of 538, 13 years old; 185 out of 1,478, 14 years old; 258 out of 1,516, 15 years old; 265 out of 980, 16 years old; 149 out of 373, 17 years old; 62 out of 95, 18 years old; and 14 out of 16, 19 years old. Or, if these numbers be expressed in per cents., we have the amazing results of 10 per cent. between 12 and 13 years of age, 8 per cent. between 13 and 14 years, $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. between 14 and 15 years, $16\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. between 15 and 16 years, 27 per cent. between 16 and 17 years, 40 per cent. between 17 and 18 years, $65\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. between 18 and 19 years, and $87\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. between 19 and 20 years.

Bringing these two items—enrollment and dropping out—together, the relation may be expressed in another form, namely: 11 per cent., 12 years of age, left school; 12 per cent., 13 years of age; 11 per cent., 14 years of age; 16 per cent., 15 years of age; 25 per cent., 16 years of age; 30 per cent., 17 years of age; 60 per cent., 18 years of age; 50 per cent., 19 years of age.

WHY THEY LEFT SCHOOL—MORE SPECIFIC REASONS

The data collected from the cities reporting were tabulated under the several subheads embodied in the circular. The results herewith appended include 5,252 first-year pupils enrolled in these schools, and the information is, I believe, trustworthy.

Of this number, 1,015 had left school, the following reasons being given:

"Sickness"	81 boys and 116 girls
"Sickness in family"	9 boys and 25 girls
"Inability to do the work"	93 boys and 35 girls
"To go to work"	135 boys and 21 girls
"Transferred"	35 boys and 40 girls
"Left the city"	29 boys and 47 girls
"Failing eyesight"	2 boys and 6 girls
"Too much society"	5 boys and 5 girls
"Unknown"	156 boys and 174 girls

Total..... 546 boys and 469 girls Total, 1,015

REMARK.—Of the 546 boys in this table 255 belong to the Boys' High School, New York city.

FAILURE IN CLASS WORK

The failures reported in class standing during the first year, according to ages, are as follows: 6 pupils, 12 years old; 100, 13; 377, 14; 518, 15; 460, 16; 288, 17; 66, 18; 7, 19; and 3, 20 years old. From this it is seen that 6 out of 79 12-year-old children failed in class standing in one or more branches; 100 out of 538, 13 years old; 377 out of 1,478, 14 years old; 518 out of 1,516, 15 years old; 460 out of 980, 16 years

old; 208 out of 373, 17 years old; 66 out of 95, 18 years old; 7 out of 16, 19 years old. Nearly 8 per cent. failed that were 12 years old; 20 per cent., 13 years old; 24 per cent., 14 years old; 34 per cent., 15 years old; nearly 47 per cent., 16 years old; 55 per cent., 17 years old; 70 per cent., 18 years old; and 37 per cent., 19 years old.

This table simply gives the totals of the failures from those cities making the fuller reports, but not the subjects, and it was not possible from the information at my command to decide along what lines of study the greatest number of failures occurred.

STATISTICS FROM CITY SCHOOL REPORTS

To show the extent and character of the statistics compiled from recent city reports now in my office, I herewith submit some condensed statements which represent the highest, widest, and most reliable results:

Cleveland.—The city of Cleveland, according to Superintendent Jones' report for the year ending August 31, 1899, enrolled 3,560 pupils in the three high schools and normal training school: Central High, 2,064; South High, 339; West High, 975; Training Normal, 182. The ages of the pupils were as follows: 1, 11 years old; 4, 12 years old; 84, 13 years old; 489, 14 years old; 809, 15 years old; 839, 16 years old; 632, 17 years old; and 702, 18 years old and over.

Detroit.—The Detroit Central High School for the year ending June 30, 1899, reports the ages of pupils as follows: 2, 12 years old; 44, 13 years old; 182, 14 years old; 342, 15 years old; 377, 16 years old; 200, 18 years old; 139, 19 years old; 55, 20 years old; and 47, over 21 years old; making a total of 1,735. There is no distinction in regard to sex, or year in school, but there are very complete tables as to classes and subjects.

St. Louis.—In St. Louis the method of tabulating high-school statistics is one of the most complete of its kind in this country, and the tables extend backward over a series of years. The latest report I have is for 1897-98. The total number of pupils admitted to the high school was 740; ages as follows: 14, 12 years old; 52, 13 years old; 190, 14 years old; 243, 15 years old; 173, 16 years old; and 68, 17 years old.

The total number of pupils in the high school, including those admitted and tabulated according to age, is represented as follows: 15, 12 years old; 63, 13 years old; 273, 14 years old; 450, 15 years old; 495, 16 years old; 352, 17 years old; 228, 18 years old; 83, 19 years old; and 24, 20 years and over; total, 1,983.

Per cent. of total number: 11 years old, 0.7; 12 years old, 3.3; 13 years old, 13.8; 14 years old, 22.7; 15 years old, 24.9; 16 years old, 17.8; 17 years old, 17.8; 18 years old, 11.4; 19 years old, 4.2; 20 years and over, 1.2.

Philadelphia.—Dr. Edward Brooks, in his report for 1898-99, gives much interesting information concerning the persistence of attendance in

the Philadelphia high schools compared with several other cities. He states the size of the class admitted at the beginning of each year, and the number who completed the course of study.

New Bedford.—Superintendent William E. Hatch, in his annual report of the New Bedford schools for the year 1899, published some valuable statistics concerning the high school of that city. The total enrollment was 493, and the number of pupils that left the school was 81, or 16.4 per cent. of the total enrollment, distributed among the classes as follows: sub-seniors, 8 boys and 9 girls; juniors, 19 boys and 18 girls; sub-juniors, 13 boys and 14 girls.

The causes for leaving school are classified under the following heads, designating males and females: illness, 4 boys and 15 girls; moved away, 6 boys and 6 girls; to work, 14 boys and 10 girls; neglect of school work, 4 boys and 4 girls; not promoted, 7 boys and 4 girls; went to private school, 5 boys and 2 girls; total, 40 boys and 41 girls; or withdrawals, 16.4 per cent. of the total enrollment.

Toledo high schools, ages of pupils.—In the Toledo high schools the total enrollment was 984. Of this number 364 were boys and 620 girls. Their ages are respectively: 1 pupil, 12 years old; 10, 13 years old; 97, 14 years old; 217, 15 years old; 281, 16 years old; 215, 17 years old; 102, 18 years old; 47, 19 years old; 11, 20 years old; and 3, 21 years old.

Cambridge.—Principal Ray Greene Huling of the English High School gave the following summary from September, 1899, to February, 1900:

Total enrollment of pupils, 570—238 first year, 152 second, 97 third, and 83 fourth year.

Ages of the first-year pupils: 2 boys and 5 girls, 12 years old; 9 boys and 18 girls, 13 years old; 22 boys and 52 girls, 14 years old; 23 boys and 47 girls, 15 years old; 15 boys and 29 girls, 16 years old; 3 boys and 12 girls, 17 years old; and 1 girl, 18 years old. The class was composed of 74 boys and 164 girls.

The total number of failures in class standing during the period was 75—29 boys and 46 girls. The failures by ages were 4 boys and 4 girls, 13 years old; 8 boys and 16 girls, 14 years old; 8 boys and 14 girls, 15 years old; 7 boys and 9 girls, 16 years old; and 2 boys and 3 girls, 17 years old. Twenty pupils were dropped from school, but a fifth-year class was formed of those failing, and was taught by pupils in the Harvard pedagogical class. The withdrawals numbered only 27.

STATE REPORTS

Massachusetts.—The state includes a much wider group of facts than a single city, and Massachusetts furnished the best illustration. Hon. Frank A. Hill, secretary of the state board of education, in an address

delivered at Springfield, October 15, 1898, gave the general statistics of 244 high schools in Massachusetts from which reports had been received. In round numbers, he estimates the total high-school enrollment for the previous year at 40,000 pupils, and Mr. MacDonald also gave the total number of pupils in actual attendance that year at a given time at 33,396, of whom 13,082 were in the first-year class, 9,151 in the second, 6,343 in the third, and 4,820 in the fourth and higher classes, the corresponding percentages being 38, 27, 19, 15. These reports include the branches of study, the number of pupils pursuing each branch of study, and the number of teachers.

Minnesota.—This young and vigorous state has an inspector of high schools, George B. Aiton. From his annual report for the year ending July 31, 1899, the total enrollment of high-school pupils was 11,742; the number of graduates, 1,429; high-school teachers, 442; and number of classes, 2,575. A table showing the enrollment by subjects is also published.

Missouri.—The last Missouri report made by the state superintendent shows that 17,734 pupils were enrolled in the high schools, as follows: 7,342 first year, 4,819 second year, 2,966 third year, and 884 irregular; or 41.4 per cent. in the first-year class, 27.2 per cent. in the second-year, 16.5 per cent. in the third-year, 9.7 per cent. in the fourth-year, and 5 per cent. irregular. The tables present the number of pupils pursuing each subject, teachers employed, and some other matters.

These three reports illustrate how much yet remains to be done before much definite information can be obtained thru the state departments of public instruction.

KANSAS CITY HIGH SCHOOLS

From these schools I obtained much positive information, only a part of which is embodied in this report.

The total enrollment in the four high schools for the year just closed was 3,464, of which 1,377 belonged to the first-year class, 972 to the second, 632 to the third, and 482 to the fourth-year class. By percentages as follows: first year, 40 per cent.; second year, 28 per cent.; third year, 16 per cent.; and fourth year, 14 per cent. The enrollment by sexes was 1,264 boys and 2,200 girls. The pupils that left school for various causes were 318 belonging to the first-year class, 194 to the second, 123 to the third, and 61 to the fourth-year class; or, expressed in per cents.: 23 per cent. of the first-year pupils, 21 per cent. of the second, nearly 20 per cent. of the third, and nearly 13 per cent. of the fourth-year class. The withdrawals number 696—291 boys and 405 girls. This result shows that the withdrawals are scattered thru the four years quite evenly.

The withdrawals expressed in per cents. by schools are as follows: Central High, 16 per cent.; Manual-Training High, 25 per cent.; Lincoln High, 24 per cent.; and Westport High, 15 per cent. The most significant fact in connection with this statement is that nearly 28 per cent. of

the boys dropped out of the Manual-Training High School and less than 21 per cent. out of the Central High School, which is essentially a classical high school.

The total number of cases of failures in mathematics was 27 in the Westport High School, 50 in the Lincoln High, 296 in the Manual-Training High, 377 in the Central High. This includes all pupils in all the classes. Those who failed on account of inability to do the work in algebra and geometry were 138 boys and 181 girls. From this it is seen that 319 failures are owing to inability, and 431 to be assigned to the other causes enumerated in the circular. Next are the failures in English, the total being 528—232 boys and 296 girls; but only 138 were regarded as unable to do the work.

The total failures in ancient and modern languages were 461, but the failures attributed to inability to do the work were only 163—82 boys and 81 girls, distributed as in the mathematical studies.

The total number that failed in one or more subjects in science was 388—190 boys and 198 girls—by schools as follows: Westport High, 14; Lincoln High, 45; Central High, 136; and Manual-Training High, 193. Under the head of inability to do the work, 105 pupils, 76 of whom belonged to the Manual-Training High.

In history, civics, and political economy the total number of failures was 185—82 boys and 103 girls.

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL OF KANSAS CITY

This is the largest mixed high school in the United States. The total enrollment this year is 618 in the first year, 477 in the second, 352 in the third, and 335 in the fourth—568 boys and 1,214 girls. Of the 618 pupils enrolled in the first year, 512 entered from the Kansas City ward schools and 106 from other schools; in the second year, 429 from Kansas City ward schools and 48 from other schools; in the third year, 316 from Kansas City ward schools and 36 from other schools; in the fourth year, 326 from Kansas City ward schools and 9 from other schools; in brief, 1,585 from the Kansas City ward schools and 197 from other schools, making a total of 1,782 pupils.

Causes of failure.—The object in procuring this information is to present in brief compass the number of pupils that failed in each of the five departments of study, the causes of failure, and the ages of those that failed.

The total number of different pupils who failed in one or more branches, or dropped out of this school during the year, is 303. The total number of first-year pupils who left school or failed in one or more branches of study was 112—42 boys and 70 girls, or 18 per cent. The reasons assigned for these failures are classified as follows: sickness, 4 boys and 8 girls; sickness in family, 1 boy and 3 girls; failing eyesight,

1 boy and 2 girls; inability to do the work, 5 boys and 7 girls; to go to work, 16 boys and 8 girls; transferred, 1 boy and 3 girls; left the city, 6 boys and 10 girls; unknown, 8 boys and 26 girls.

The total number of different pupils belonging to the second year who failed, or dropped out of school, was 94—34 boys and 60 girls, or nearly 20 per cent. On account of sickness, 3 boys and 16 girls; sickness in family, 1 girl; failing eyesight, 1 boy and 1 girl; inability to do the work, 2 boys and 14 girls; to go to work, 16 boys and 9 girls; transferred, 1 girl; left the city, 4 boys and 9 girls; unknown, 8 boys and 9 girls.

The total number of different pupils belonging to the third year who failed or were dropped was 70—21 boys and 49 girls, or 20 per cent. Sickness, 6 boys and 19 girls; sickness in family, 2 girls; too much attention to society, 1 girl; football, 1 boy; inability to do the work, 5 girls; to go to work, 9 boys and 3 girls; left the city, 1 boy and 3 girls; unknown, 4 boys and 14 girls.

The total number of different pupils belonging to the fourth year who failed in their studies or were dropped from school was 21—2 boys and 19 girls, or 6 per cent. Sickness or sickness in the family, 6 girls; failing eyesight, 1 girl; too much attention to society, 1 girl; inability to do the work, 5 girls; to go to work, 2 boys and 1 girl; left the city, 1 girl; unknown, 4 girls.

Failure in subjects.—This topic may include a pupil in one or several subjects, and it deals exclusively with failures.

The total number of failures in the five departments—languages, mathematics, English, science, history, etc.—is 303, classified as follows, without respect to age or years in school: in languages, 34 boys and 90 girls; mathematics, 117 boys and 290 girls; English, 104 boys and 143 girls; history, etc., 41 boys and 62 girls; science, 46 boys and 90 girls. One pupil may have failed in one, two, three, or even four different departments. Under the head of inability to do the work: languages, 34 boys and 28 girls; mathematics, 40 boys and 119 girls; English, 29 boys and 44 girls; science, 7 boys and 20 girls; history, 9 boys and 16 girls.

Concerning other causes of failure and of being dropped from the school the following items are in point: 145 failed on account of sickness; 23, sickness in the family; 18, failing eyesight; 4, football; 112, to go to work; 10, transferred; 82, left the city; 251, unknown.

The failures by years were: 13 years old, 8 boys and 5 girls; 14 years old, 8 boys and 15 girls; 15 years old, 17 boys and 37 girls; 16 years old, 26 boys and 55 girls; 17 years old, 17 boys and 55 girls; 18 years old, 12 boys and 24 girls; 19 years old, 7 boys and 11 girls; 20 years old, 4 boys and 2 girls; total, 99 boys and 204 girls. In per cents. the relations are as follows: No 12-year-old pupils failed or dropped out of school; 11 per cent., 13 years old; nearly 15 per cent. of those 14 years

old; 15 per cent., 15 years old; 20 per cent. of those 16 years old; 23 per cent., 17 years old; 13 per cent., 18 years old; 22 per cent., 19 years old; and 17 per cent., 20 years old.

The ages of the pupils of this school when they were enrolled last September:

1 boy and 1 girl, 11 years old.	115 boys and 282 girls, 16 years old.
6 boys and 11 girls, 12 years old.	93 boys and 217 girls, 17 years old.
48 boys and 68 girls, 13 years old.	61 boys and 142 girls, 18 years old.
85 boys and 72 girls, 14 years old.	32 boys and 51 girls, 19 years old.
115 boys and 247 girls, 15 years old.	12 boys and 23 girls, 20 years old.

MANUAL-TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL

The total enrollment of pupils in this school for the year was 1,244—546 boys and 698 girls. The number of first-year pupils was 579—273 boys and 306 girls; second-year pupils, 352—146 boys and 206 girls; third-year pupils, 211—95 boys and 116 girls; fourth-year pupils, 102—32 boys and 70 girls. Of the pupils enrolled, 1,100 were educated in the ward schools of Kansas City, 115 were admitted from other schools, and 29 were admitted upon examination.

Dropped-out pupils—first-year class.—There were enrolled 486 first-year pupils from the Kansas City ward schools. Out of this number 110 left school during the year—53 boys and 57 girls; that is, 53 boys out of 231, and 57 girls out of 255, left school, the percentage of withdrawals thus being 22½. The dropping out of those admitted from other schools was nearly 32 per cent.; of those admitted by examination, 40 per cent.

Ages of those who left school.—In the first-year class 7 boys and 1 girl were enrolled that were 12 years old; none of these left. Thirty-four boys and 29 girls were 13 years old; out of this number 5 boys and 2 girls left school, or 11 per cent. Sixty-nine boys and 61 girls were 14 years old, and 13 boys and 7 girls left school, or 16 per cent. Out of 160 boys and girls 15 years old, 39 dropped out of school, or more than 24 per cent. From the 16-year-old list 30 per cent. left school; from the 17-year-old list, nearly 50 per cent.

Second-year class.—The mean average of pupils that dropped out of the second-year class was nearly 21 per cent. of the enrollment. One out of 6 left school 13 years old; 5 out of 37, 14 years old; 23 out of 101, 15 years old; 19 out of 96, 19 years old; 11 out of 59, 17 years old; and 11 out of 25, 18 years old.

Third- and fourth-year classes.—There were 211 pupils enrolled in the third-year class, and 56 dropped out, or 26 per cent.; and 33 out of 102 of the fourth-year class, or 32 per cent.

WESTPORT HIGH SCHOOL

This is a small high school in which 210 pupils were enrolled—69 boys and 141 girls. Eighty-four pupils belonged to the first year,

79 to the second, 27 to the third, and 19 to the fourth. The number of pupils that left school belonging to the first-year class was 21; to the second-year class, 8; and to the third-year class, 2; and one was a post-graduate. Six of the 21 dropped from the first-year class had been admitted from outside schools; 15 out of 71 had dropped out that had entered from the Kansas City ward schools, and 6 out of 13 from the outside. There were 9 pupils out of 210 that failed on account of inability to do the work—4 belonging to the first-year class, 1 to the second, 4 to the third; while 15 from the entire school left on account of sickness.

The failures in each department of study were insignificant.

LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL

This is a high school for the colored youth of Kansas City, in which 228 boys and girls were enrolled during the year. There were 96 pupils in the first-year class, 64 in the second-year, 42 in the third-year, and 26 in the fourth-year. Thirty-six pupils failed or dropped out of the first year, 11 out of the second year, 7 out of the third year, and 2 out of the fourth year.

Only 8 pupils failed on account of inability to do the work—3 boys and 5 girls—and they ranged in age from 15 to 18 years; while 22 quit to go to work.

The ages of these pupils are: 1 boy, 12 years old; 2 girls, 13 years old; 3 boys and 5 girls, 14 years old; 12 boys and 18 girls, 15 years old; 21 boys and 32 girls, 16 years old; 4 boys and 46 girls, 17 years old; 12 boys and 26 girls, 18 years old; 13 boys and 13 girls, 19 years old; and 5 boys and 5 girls, 20 years old.

SUMMARY

1. That young children who complete the work in the grammar school and enter high school show the least per cent. of failures in class standing or withdrawals from school.

2. That the older pupils who enter high schools are most likely to fail or leave during the first year.

3. That failures in class standing are greatest in mathematics, second in English, third in the ancient and modern languages, fourth in the natural sciences, and fifth in history. The work of the pupils can be more sharply measured in two of these departments, mathematics and languages, while the others afford a fine opportunity to talk about the subjects rather than to talk into them.

4. That in a seven-years' course of study from one-third to one-half more pupils will enter high schools than when the course of study below the high school is eight or nine years, and that the pupils are just as well prepared, if the entrance age to the ward school is not under six years.

5. That if the pupil remains in the high school thru the first and second years, the chances are slightly in favor of his completing the course.

6. That a committee should be appointed for the purpose of preparing and submitting to the Council at its next meeting a uniform system of blanks for the use of the high schools of the United States.

DISCUSSION

[REPORTED BY I. C. MCNEILL]

E. E. WHITE.—I was slow in indorsing manual training. The items concerning the Kansas City Manual-Training High School should be followed up in other places. Do manual-training high schools lose a greater per cent. of their students than do the classical and English high schools? Does a smaller per cent. of graduates from manual-training high schools than from other high schools enter mechanic arts? We should know these things.

B. A. HINSDALE.—“In the history of manual training we find that the reasons for their support have changed. Manual training opens out a new sense.” He then asked Superintendent Greenwood whether or not it was his opinion that a less strenuous class enters manual-training high schools than enters the other high schools.

SUPERINTENDENT GREENWOOD in reply gave it as his opinion that the end in view largely determines the selection of a school. Boys who seek university training more frequently enter the other schools.

CHARLES B. GILBERT stated that many who enter manual training schools are looking for a “short-cut.”

L. D. HARVEY agreed with Mr. Greenwood on the necessity of fuller information before drawing conclusions.

J. H. VAN SICKLE.—The tendency during the past two years has been to make it easier to get into high schools.

N. C. SCHAEFFER, of Pennsylvania.—It has been asserted that graduates of manual-training high schools excel the graduates of other high schools in the dental colleges of Philadelphia, and the assertion has been reiterated by the representative of one of the manual-training schools of Springfield, Mass. Can we not have investigations and statistics to determine whether this statement is based on fact and corroborated by the other dental schools of America?

GENERAL CULTURE AS AN ELEMENT IN PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

RICHARD G. BOONE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CINCINNATI, O.

My subject is scholarship or large learning as a factor in the training and qualifications of teachers. I do not mean simply or necessarily more academic education, larger knowledge or versatility, tho this is well enough in its way. My theme is the needed influence of a larger individual life upon the teaching, the contribution of learning to the daily work of the class-room, an enrichment of skill and influence and conduct thru a more abundant culture.

There are three factors involved in ideal teaching :

1. The habit of right thinking on the part of the teacher. Here, as in its original sense, I use "right" to mean straight, direct, regulated thinking which has purpose and seeks an end and employs means ; that which is not so much influenced by incident and collateral considerations as able to influence and control other purposes or motives. Right thinking is centripetal.

2. Knowledge of the processes involved in growth is of fundamental importance. By this is not meant simply an acquaintance with mind or with study, altho both of these are implied ; but rather an acquaintance with mental development, the unfolding of individual life, the maturing of one's personality, the steps in this process, and the conditions under which it goes on. Knowledge of the process involved in growth means an acquaintance with both the *individual* and the *race*; an insight into the spiritual forces which make for civilization ; a sympathetic interest in the individual, as representing in the small the larger personality of the race ; an intelligent appreciation of the race as comprising the more sacred individual. Knowledge of the processes involved in growth implies a knowledge of both the individual and the mass ; their interrelations, their mutual reinforcements and limitations. Of course, in the schoolroom and to the average teacher, the essential fact, the one of most immediate significance, is the individual ; not the nation, certainly, or the race or the community even, or any particular class in the community, or the grade or class as a whole in the school ; but the single individual.

How do the processes go on here ? How they go on here, it must be apparent, depends primarily upon, or is explained by, how they go on there ; i. e., in the race or in the mass. But the average teacher's concern is with the particular boy and the particular girl. That this knowledge of the particular boy and particular girl is rightly comprehended, both as to fullness and validity, only by one's knowledge of the typical boy and the typical girl goes without question.

3. The final factor involved in what I have called here ideal teaching is skill in manipulating those processes mentioned in item 2. Skill is not knowledge so much as doing. It may or may not involve thinking. The more intelligence does enter into any art, the higher the grade of the art. But a large per cent. of all the world's doings among men, and the most intelligent men concerning high affairs in state and church and society not less than the school, partakes of the mechanical in a painfully large degree. The former's skill is a sort of blind art. Things are done as they have been done, with little thought of why or why not. But so is the teacher's skill and the preaching of the pulpit and the carpentering of the shop and the keeping of books and the running of railroads and the making of literature. Skill in manipulating the processes

involved in growth may or may not be conscious. It usually is not, or is but partially so; and to the degree that it is not, is unintelligent.

These three factors—the habit of right thinking on the part of the teacher, a knowledge of the processes involved in growth, and skill in manipulating these processes—are *all-inclusive* and fundamental. To omit either is to depreciate the profession and cripple the art. He who has knowledge of the processes may bungle in his instruction and have a limited scope of thinking. One may have skill in teaching and lack both the other requirements. One may have the habit of right thinking and not have considered the growth of mind, the steps in learning, and the nature of knowledge. He who has skill, but lacks knowledge and culture, may seem to teach well while doing his children an infinite harm. He who knows the mental processes involved in education may think so crookedly and be generally so wrong-headed as neither in theory or practice to be able to render any valuable service to his pupils.

The knowledge of growth referred to here includes the notion of (1) individual growth, (2) social and institutional conditions, and (3) racial growth, or the evolution of civilization. By these headings it is not meant to discriminate three distinct lines or orders of growth, so much as three phases of growth of the same being.

To understand growth in this triple sense, that is, in the individual, in the institution, and in the race, there are involved (*a*) a study of mind, (*b*) the history of education, (*c*) educational doctrine, (*d*) educational agencies, (*e*) method with its correlative practice. Growth in the individual is, broadly speaking, both as to lines and conditions, paralleled by growth in the race. So the psychology of the individual may be illumined and verified by an insight into the nature and motives and instincts of men in larger bodies. It is not enough to have read any text-book on psychology, however complete or trustworthy. Familiar acquaintance with the individual mind comes thru the study of the individual mind. The valid acquaintance with the universal mind comes not only with the study of the individual or numbers of individuals, but thru the study of groups, masses, and organizations; national and racial types; insights into mind as it has been manifested in institutions and organizations and societies, and clubs, and churches, the state schools, the family, individual bodies, etc. That is, any view of mind which is not enlarged and enriched by the acquaintance with minds and associated minds with established and organic relations must be partial and more or less unsatisfactory.

The way in which child-mind acts is more than paralleled by the way in which primitive mind acts. How the boy thinks is typified by the thinking of King Alfred and Charlemagne and Cæsar. "What," asks Emerson, "is the foundation of that interest all men feel in Greek history, letters, art, and poetry, for five centuries after the Homeric age?

What but this, that every man passes personally through a Grecian period?" Elsewhere, describing Xenophon and the experiences of his military life, he says: "Throughout his army exists a boundless liberty of speech. They quarrel for plunder, they wrangle with the generals on each new order, and Xenophon is as sharp-tongued as any, and sharper-tongued than most, and so gives as good as he gets. Who does not see that this is a gang of great boys, with such a code of honor and such lax discipline as great boys have?" Indeed, the Greeks generally "combined the energy of manhood with the engaging unconsciousness of childhood."

So, on the other hand, acquaintance with history in the larger sense is meager and inaccurate, and offers but the veneering of culture, except it be particularized and concreted in a familiar comprehension of the several great and common individuals who make history. The one enriches, the other enlarges the common notion. History of education gives the ground for one sort of comparative study; that is, the opportunity to observe educational systems and practice and agencies, along the chronological line. As all best study is comparative, whether in science or philosophy, in theology or government, so in education he who has not had his view of pedagogical thought verified by the perspective of Egyptian and Chinese and Persian and Hebrew and Greek and Roman and all typical past pedagogical thought, sees at best but narrowly and superficially.

A study of history of education gives a balance and caution to educational doctrine. This is the factor of conservation. It saves from fads and whims and caprice and tangential enthusiasm for what is momentarily thought to be new. A familiar acquaintance with ancient educational ideals furnishes a fertile soil in which to sow the seeds of the new education.

Theoretically, whatever is best in the modern doctrine concerning schools or culture or learning or systems or the lines of training may be found in general, at least often, in a well-developed philosophy in the writings of Solomon, in the writings of Plato and Aristotle, Quintilian and Bacon, St. Thomas and Comenius, St. Paul and Christ. To have put ourselves in the place of those who have thought before us easily tempers egotism and avoids or corrects the extreme of self-assertiveness, gives faith in the man and the race, and exhibits the lines along which advance has already been made and must be made.

But the most detailed and elaborate study of psychology, and the conditions and lines of progress in the race, would be fruitless and unmeaning, unless they be knit together by a body of inferences taking the form of educational doctrine; that is, teaching is intelligent to the degree that it is inspired by some rationally held theory of the purpose of education. Of all professional subjects, teachers most need the acquaintance with educational doctrine. Method is less important,

devices are insignificant, acquaintance with peoples barren of results, the most patient study of mind valueless, except these be carried on in the light of some more or less well established doctrine, or at least hypothesis, concerning the ends and conditions and means of education. Educational theory is the atmosphere in which all study of mind, and reading of history, and social inquiry, and philosophic thinking must be done. Give teachers right notions as to the essential nature of education and right education, the purposes to be achieved in the individual and the community, a mastery in their own lives of the forces that have operated to elevate the race, a sound understanding of the laws of mental improvement—and they may or may not have read psychology or logic, or books of method, or history of education, or school management and organization and courses of study. That is, educational doctrine is needed as a guiding principle; the laws of mind and of learning and of teaching would be brought into line, if only there be clearness of vision with reference to what has been called here educational doctrine. Never more than today has there been needed by the teachers of our country a thoro comprehension of the grounds for a state-controlled, state-supported, state-established system of secular education.

What are the agencies which society provides for the furnishing of a schooling? What is the relative service of each? What is the place of the family, of the church, of industrial and social organizations, of the state? In the race's history, that education is the function of each of these may be found to have at times prevailed in some place, and often with determined following. In comparatively recent years only, and first in this country, was there developed in a practical way the thought that schooling—free public, secular education—was the function of the state. Germany has such schools in occasional cities and provinces, but they are not at all common. In France during the last decade only has any serious attempt been made to effect a free and secular education. The board schools in England, the only attempt at such training of the young as is universal in this country, have been free, even in theory as they are not yet in practice, scarcely ten years. Here is a problem in pedagogy for our teachers in the United States, which has no superior in educational discussion in any country. Whose are these schools? To what end do they exist? For what purpose are the lessons given? Is it to fit the boy for the church or the bench or the shop or the store or the farm or the teacher's desk? Is it to make him pious or informal or skillful? Is it to give him a trade or a profession or a competence, or is it to make him a man? Of all these agencies I am not here to say which has the prior claim, or that either should absorb the others. My only plea is for such abundant training and large learning and richness of culture, such familiar sympathy with the progress of man and the conditions of his uplifting, that these and other questions may be fairly and intelligently

grappled. There is no single danger which today more menaces the public school than that teachers will prove themselves unable—thru lack of insight or fineness of discrimination and vigorous thinking, virility of life and mind, and mastery of the problems of civilization—to take hold of these and like vital questions and compete with the rich learning, the large-hearted zeal, the religious enthusiasm, or the utilitarian demands of aggressive individuals and organizations. "The cause of truth," said an old friend of my boyhood, "has often suffered more from its friends than from its enemies." Nor does the evil follow from wrong intention. The best designs, if stupid or backed by mediocre abilities or a too limited culture or careless judgments or loose thinking, may do only the more harm. Here is the danger.

Three hundred thousand scholarly teachers in our country, picked men and women of ability and training, large-minded and generous-hearted, possessed of that broad culture that comes only thru much reading and travel and long study, in five years would shift the very motive of government to a higher plane and make all life seem richer.

What is wanted primarily, shall I say, in the teacher, is that he be a man or that she be a woman, not a method-monger. The place and function of the public school, and its right to exist as the state's agent for providing a secular education, are not in any sense guaranteed by the devotion of teachers; every interest demands that it be an intelligent devotion, supported by high scholarship and reinforced by whatever lessons history and philosophy and science have to offer. It has been said that "the conflicts of the world do not take place altogether on the tented field;" nor, it might be added, at the ballot-box, nor in Congress. If secular education, a rich, free, liberally extended and universal education, is to be saved to our people, enlarged and fortified, it must be thru the people; and the campaign must be managed by the teachers, with all wariness and dignity and sound argument, efficient work in the schools and faith in the people. The conflict is one of mind, the campaign an education. Cool heads and masterly judgment are needed.

Moreover, in a knowledge of the growth referred to here there is also involved an acquaintance with what may be called "method," as distinct from methods or devices. By method is meant the law of the mind's movement. This is a narrower field than that of psychology, and even more fruitful of suggestion to the teacher.

Psychology in the ordinary sense is static; method is dynamic. Thru the study of psychology teachers learn of the powers and experiences and conditions of activity in mind; thru method, of the way in which these activities go on, or, rather, the law of their going on. For an insight into method, teachers need logic, or the law of inference or suggestion, or the sequence of experiences. To the teacher, the unit of child-experience is the judgment. The information theory of the older

schools made the unit to be the idea. How ideas follow one another, are combined and associated and breed other ideas, is the question for a gradgrind. How judgments combine, and are mutually influenced and breed other judgments, is the law of the new education. To understand growth means to understand the reason of forming independent conclusions, of gathering up experience by the child and making his inferences. The unit is the judgment. This may be illustrated in the study of geography. If the idea be taken as the initial and typical experience, and we seek to make the child informed, then our purpose shall be to give him the largest number of experiences, of ideas. This was the old way. Am I wrong in supposing that it is even now the more common way? On the other hand, if geography be taught as a means of arousing questions and suggesting problems and tracing movements and working out physical forces, and gathering from data new inferences, the training is of a vastly different kind. The modern thought of geography would make a study relatively less like memorizing lists of names, and more a process of reasoning such as geometry offers, or physics; that is, the study of method, which is both a cause and sequence of the knowledge of growth under consideration, is a study that involves a knowledge, not only of mind considered statically, or of the individual mind, but of the dynamics of mind, and mind in the universal sense as it appears in the race. The method of the school is a statement of those universal laws of mind which are true fundamentally of either sex, of all races, for every age, and in whatever subject or grade of school. Having to do with the forming of judgments, the growth and conserving and enriching of judgments, it will be readily seen that all method is grounded in logic. To comprehend the mind's way of learning is to have an acquaintance with the primary laws of thought, the steps in maturing, and the conditions of valid experience. This is well within the field of logic.

But the fairly profitable pursuit of either of these lines presupposes a maturity and mental integrity and large culture and abounding information, such as no novice possesses. A study of psychology and the history of education and educational theory and the principles of the school requires for their intelligent mastery a precedent study of those subjects out of which the science of mind grows, and those phases of history of which the record of education is the flower, and those forms of philosophy of which educational doctrine is the culmination; and these lie beyond the understanding of youth. The sooner we concede that the professional study of pedagogy is unavailable for the sixteen-year-old, or one with elementary training only, and insist upon professional views being taken thru the glasses of learning and large refinement and a tempered life, the better for the schools. But, it is asked, may not one do fair work as a teacher who has but a moderate scholarship and ordinary training? Certainly; much instruction is tolerable that rests upon no liberal

culture; but I am reminded that the teacher is like the egg; it is not enough that he be tolerably good. If ideals are sought, it must not be along the lines of mediocrity.

The most radical emphasis to be put upon professional fitness, therefore, yet concedes the necessary precedence of academic fitness. The teacher's view, whatever it may be, is special and hence narrow. Its significance and helpfulness are to be measured by the way in which it is rooted in a liberal preparatory culture. It has already been suggested that, in the train of a general education, the resulting habits and discipline are such, in themselves considered, as to carry a distinctive advantage to the teacher. But more than this, they furnish the only fruitful conditions for maturing the views peculiar to the teacher's calling. The one is the foundation essential to the other as a superstructure.

In history and the humanities generally is found the class to which pedagogy is referred, and which furnishes the principle both of the science of education and the art of teaching. In the physical sciences are found the principal means for all elementary training and a convenient instrument for higher culture. Not less, also, language and mathematics, once understood, form an exercise-ground in teaching whatever grade, fitted to the mind's needs and easily available.

But here, as often elsewhere, a little learning gives meager promise. The varied uses of the most common tool are known to that workman only who has mastered it by long and daily handling. The infinite suggestiveness of science comes to no teacher because he is a teacher, nor to the novice in science. The idea of nature's resourcefulness is his who has bought it by patient, willing sacrifices, courting her secrets in all moods, and tenting with her in solitude. How to employ things as a stimulus to thinking and make nature an ally of mind is easy enough if acquaintance with the *conditions* of learning is enriched as it may be by an intimate knowledge of the same nature as an *instrument* of learning. This is only another way of saying that he will best use an individual lesson in history, other qualifications being equal, who is best able to enrich it by a large contributing knowledge of related facts and a sympathetic interest in the forces that make for civilization. Geography is vitalized and bristles with suggestions under the instruction of a thoughtful, sympathetic teacher who has traveled far and read much and keeps in close touch with the great movements for exploration and conquest.

If our perceptions are significant according to the content which our conceptions contribute to our seeing, then the larger the culture brought to bear in any act of teaching, not in fact, but in thought, the more accurate, the richer the lesson.

All that is involved in the preceding paragraph under the knowledge of growth, and acquaintance with psychology and educational history and doctrine, and, especially, school systems and agencies, may and ought to

be possessed by every intelligent citizen, primarily because he is interested in youth, or should be, and also because he is a citizen. Much of what was once regarded in law as the exclusive privilege of the jurist and attorney has now worked down into the common life, and in principle and fact is acted upon by thousands of people in their business relations with their fellows, and those who have limited schooling and limited reading, who have never read a page in Blackstone or Story. Not a little of the best hygienic and sanitary thought of the last century, then known only to medical experts and surgeons, is now not only known, but followed, in theory and practice, by hundreds of families whose lives are thereby safer, whose comforts are multiplied, whose leisure is vastly increased and dignified, to say nothing of the added length of life. So, also, the nice, exclusive discriminations of the clergyman, and the interpretations of the moral law, and the standards and conditions of right living which were limited to the church and to the current theology, and were taken upon authority and without question, are now made and held by the average individual for himself. More and more the tendency grows to concede to the pulpit only an individual's right to think, and to the pew an equal individual's right. The exclusive theology and ecclesiastical privileges of the last century have worked down into and become a part of the common life of today. Just as the principle has operated in law and medicine and theology to permeate the soil of the common mind with what was once the exclusive possession of a privileged few, so of education. To question this learning and science of the mind, and civilization and legislation and school systems, and growth and its conditions, is daily being recognized as of paramount interest to every father and mother; to every law-maker or law-interpreter; to every pathologist and physician; and particularly to him who would preach the conditions of right living and worthy motives to his congregation. But the teacher may fairly be held to know the problems of his profession in a more masterful way, the philosophic grounds of his service, its civic and social and race relations, than these who have been named, or any others. This can only mean the study of purely professional questions thru a more abundant contributing discipline.

Skill in the manipulation of these processes of growth comes by practice only. No one can predicate successful teaching upon any amount of preparatory study. The having taken a four-years' course in pedagogy gives no certainty of efficient work before a class, neither does a period of college and university training; but both offer strong assurance. One may have mastered the collegiate courses offered in mathematics or science, and have had years of philosophy and literature and history, and have made himself familiar with current economics and politics, and read Greek and French and German and Spanish and Italian, and still be a stupid before a class of children. But so may one have mastered the

science of education and methodology, and have studied the principles of school management and school legislation and the development of school systems, and be overflowing with the ways of the Greeks and the Romans and Confucius and the Jews and Zoroaster, in the way of education, and be equally impotent before children. Success in teaching can be predicated upon no amount or kind of preparatory study. This only means that, if the teacher would claim rightly any real professional knowledge, the demand is growing upon him more and more to ground his acquaintance with and knowledge of these so-called professional matters upon a more discriminating insight, and more fertile judgment, and larger acquaintance with men and institutions and social forces, and the changing implications of science and philosophy. This faculty of thinking, and right thinking, may be found, and often has been found, in men and women who have made little or no formal study of the processes of growth either in biology or psychology or sociology.

The schoolmasters of the ancient Hebrews were school-masters; so were Socrates and Aristotle and Plato; so was St. Paul and the Man, Christ. Excellent teachers may be found all down thru the ages, no one of whom could have defined to the satisfaction of a modern any mental function or process, or technically described any experience; and yet they taught well. There will occur to you, in your own observation, teachers who are graduates of no normal school, who are not informed as to the laws of mind and learning, who find examinations for permit to teach frightful bugbears, and yet who succeed. Still, not their ignorance, but their wisdom, is the ground of their success; not what they do not know, but what they do, is the measure of their efficiency. It has been said: "A man is worth to himself what he can enjoy, but to others what he can do." If, however, what he can do is daily enriched by the larger possession of what he enjoys, the service is more than doubled. To have put into the commonest service of the hour the spirit, the enthusiasm and interest and confidence and hopefulness which form a large part of the enjoyment of living, gives to teaching an impelling force, an aggressiveness, the quality of positiveness and directness, and so fruitfulness, such as it has in no other way. This is the function of larger learning in its reaction upon daily teaching. It gives intensity to one's influence, and directness to one's example, and accuracy and definiteness to one's questions; it lends precision and clearness; it makes one fair and considerate to the degree that one's own good intentions for himself are infused into his relations with his pupils. Learning is conservative, but it is also kind and large-hearted and thoughtful. Learning in the teacher's heart acts upon the teacher's mind, and kindly impulse in the one gives sympathetic force in the other. This skill, therefore, is rational only to the degree that the teacher's particular view of the individual child on a given day, in a specific mental act, is enriched by the more general

conception of the aggregate life, that of the contemporary social and institutional life of which he is a part, and that of the progressive evolution of the race; that is, these give horizon and perspective to what were otherwise local and particular.

Further, both the skill, on the one hand, and the teacher's view of learning, on the other, become rational solely as they are supported and directed by right thinking. The juxtaposition of these two notions, professional culture and general culture, suggests to one, whether he be teacher or not, some interesting opposition of thought. The paper thus becomes more or less controversial and is liable to be unfairly interpreted by one side or the other. The emphasis of a purely professional preparation omits just the factor that, by the common-school teacher, seems to be most neglected. The emphasis of scholastic attainment takes one out of line with the prevailing tendency.

Incidentally, then, along with the purpose to deal fairly with both aspects of training, there has been more or less conscious with the writer an ever-present tendency to exaggerate the importance of right thinking, and a generous, mental habit to make certain of its just recognition. Whatever of superlative, then, appears in the paper must be charged to the enforced controversial tone incident to the character of the theme and the evident bias of the profession, not to any one-sided or partial view of it, intentionally giving disproportioned emphasis to either factor.

I think I need not be careful in this presence to prove my faith in professional training. Whatever I have said, or shall yet say, of the urgency of better scholastic qualifications, you will, I am sure, do me the courtesy and yourselves the credit to think of me as among the pronounced friends of such preparatory work. The need of pedagogical training and some directed preliminary practice is as well defined and vital, it may be claimed, as that for medical training, or the practice of law, or preaching; and the efficiency of such training is quite as marked among teachers as among those of other professions. Nothing can be substituted in the candidate's preparation for this detailed and patient and systematic and philosophical study and observation of school and educational questions.

My present care is to give what seems to be a much-needed emphasis to the thought that the richer the scholarship, the safer the special training. The soundest pedagogical doctrine is dangerous if employed by the illiterate, and only less so with those who are satisfied with an elementary or other foreshortened education. Some of those who are before me will recall how, at times and in places, the wisest of professional directions from Comenius' dictum of "learning thru doing," down thru Rousseau and Pestalozzi and Froebel, have received only distortion and have been wrested from their original intent at the hands of well-meaning but crude minds that saw in them only an interesting mechanism or a convenient recipe. Indeed, no device is quite safe except in the hands

of those whose learning and resourcefulness and mental balance and intellectual acumen are such as to make the device unnecessary. The larger the mental mastery, the safer the special training.

Let it be premised, then, that the most zealous insistence upon the necessity of what is called "professional" does not therefore imply disregard of "scholastic" qualifications.

Speaking generally on the lowest plane and in the language of the uninitiated, what is to be taught must be known. He who does not have the facts of history cannot give them nor judge of their correctness when given. To communicate knowledge implies the possession of knowledge. He who would teach Greek must have Greek. The facts of science, their conventional classification and nomenclature, can be taught, i. e., conveyed or explained to another, only by one whose possession they are. Symbols and signs, names, terms and figures, social forms and conventions, may be taught by him who knows them, and sometimes by the simple process of telling. The problem seems simple enough. For teaching on this plane, information, abundant, accurate, and systematic, is of supreme consideration. There is no teaching without it. When teaching means telling, there must be something to tell. The condition is equally binding upon every teacher of whatever rank, in whatever subject, of whatever age and attainment. The want is not more felt in history than in science, in language than in mathematics. The physician must know his medicines, the jurist his law, philanthropy the needy, the sheriff wrongdoers, the preacher his creed. All are equally subject to the same law. That the first may kill in his attempt to heal, the judge hand down unwise, ill-advised, antiquated decisions, philanthropy perpetuate improvidence, lawbreakers slip thru official hands, and the preacher be left to face empty or nodding pews, cannot invalidate the fact that, to bestow a benefaction upon society, one must have it to bestow.

The application to school instruction you have doubtless already made. It is not far to fetch. If teaching be taken to mean hearing lessons, the lessons must be had by the teacher. Other qualifications being the same, he best instructs who has most familiar and comprehensive knowledge of the sciences involved. The primary difficulty today in the introduction of science into our elementary courses, or manual training, or vocal music, or drawing, is in the lack of teachers who know these subjects, that is, know them in any facile, critical way. The same might be said, and with equal truth, of grade work in algebra and geometry, the principles of English composition, the rudiments of physical geography, and general history and literary studies. The statement holds for the lowest grade of teachers even and the most mechanical plane of instruction.

Scholarship is by no means to be disregarded, even subordinated. It may be frankly questioned whether, in the first flush of interest in the

new profession for teachers, its advocates have not allowed themselves to minify the professional advantages even of an abundant and distinguishing culture. To correct the bias, if it exist, has been the purpose of the present paper.

Larger views in science and philosophy extend the horizon of one's experience in other directions. To have canceled one's provincialism by a prolonged study of history and literature, "to know the best that has been said and thought in the world," these are the best antidotes to littleness and selfishness and jealousies in class management. The scholar easily drives out the drillmaster. The man-of-the-world is no martinet. Paucity of life and meanness of habit, local and commonplace motives, temporizing and easy satisfactions, are incident to primitive views only, and the most elementary training; and few qualities of mind are more unwholesome in the schoolroom. Culture is suggestive and rich in interpretation; it discovers opportunity and resource; it has foresight and adaptation; it attracts occasion and learning and confidence and co-operation. It is not needed that anyone should emphasize to this body how helpful these all are to the teacher; incalculably helpful to him who knows how to use them.

No amount of professional training as such can take the place of this wide acquaintance with the race's thought, this participation in others' culture and achievement and success, this mastery of science and the humanities. Neither can a study of school questions, however extended and detailed, compensate for ignorance or indifference or mediocrity toward the world's rich life.

A vital defect in the average teacher, both in our own state and elsewhere, is his limited information upon matters of the most common concern, and his still more unsatisfactory mental habits and culture. How greatly he has improved in all these respects can be really appreciated by those only who have critically observed him during the process.

It is not meant to hint even any disparagement of the common-school teacher. Most of my professional life has had to do with the common schools, and I believe in them. Acquaintance with the teaching body in most neighboring states gives abundant room and reason for pride in and respect for the honorable position held by those who administer the public system. Nevertheless, it remains true, I think, that the advance made in the Northwest in recent years has been chiefly along professional lines, exhibiting relatively less progress in the culture that may be called liberal.

Unsatisfactory as are many of the results, the conclusions of recent psychology and pedagogy, the deductions from educational history, and the systematic and more or less valid directions of experts in school management, are rich and varied, and have been worked down into and become part of the average school life, and aggressively influence the

teaching, as has not happened, I think, to the contributions of history or literature or science. Libraries and magazines and homes and schools and lecture-rooms and best society and the pulpit are full of the old mythologies and early superstitions and personal heroisms and art and much practical philosophy and ethical standards and moral discriminations and codes of social and industrial intercourse; images of pure lives and great achievement and unselfish devotions; exalted motives and divine patterns, whose lessons, made common among teachers, both urban and rural, would lend tone and dignity and efficiency to much that is now class-room dawdling and worse.

Abundant experience, richness of thought, generous scholarship, wide reading and travel, and the integrations of motive and purpose that only result from intelligently directed, continuous study and formal training, may well be beyond the reach of most teachers, even as professional training seems now to be; but their presiding in the teacher's chair, in a moderate degree only, would impart life and significance to much otherwise aimless teaching.

DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

NOTE.—On Tuesday, July 10, from 6 to 8:30 P. M., prior to the opening of the session, a reception was given to the department by the Local Kindergarten Organization on the Charleston College campus.

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The department met in Hibernian Hall at 3:30 P. M., and was called to order by the president, Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelté.

Soprano solo—"A Dream," *Bartlett*—was sung by Miss Harriet Kershaw, of Charleston.

President D. B. Johnson of Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C., gave an address of welcome on behalf of the state. He was followed by Dr. Frank Frost, on behalf of the city council; Superintendent Henry P. Archer, on behalf of the city schools; Mrs. W. B. S. Heyward, on behalf of the South Carolina Kindergarten Association.

The president responded, and then delivered the president's address.

Corporal Frederick N. Wake sang a bass solo—"A Bedouin Love Song," *Pinsuti*.

Mrs. Clarence E. Meleney, of Brooklyn, N. Y., read a paper on "A Mother's Advice to Kindergartners."

Professor Philander P. Claxton, of the State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro, N. C., presented "The Need of the Kindergartners in the South."

The following committees were then announced:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Miss Mary C. McCulloch, St. Louis, Mo.

Mrs. Clarence E. Meleney, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Miss Eveline A. Waldo, New Orleans, La.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Miss Emma A. Newman, Buffalo, N. Y.

Miss Orietta Chittenden, Omaha, Neb.

Miss Harriet Niel, Washington, D. C.

Then followed a paper on "The Kindergarten Gifts and Occupations, and Their Educational Value," by Miss Harriet Niel, director of the Phebe A. Hearst Kindergarten Training School of Washington, D. C.; after which the meeting adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12

The department was called to order by the president at 3:30 P. M.

The first address on the program was by Miss Mary C. McCulloch, supervisor of public-school kindergartens, St. Louis, Mo., on "Froebel's Mother and Cossetting Songs," with practical illustrations.

A piano solo—Nocturne, Op. 9, No. 1, *Chopin*—by Mr. Samuel Jacob, of Charleston.

Miss Emma A. Newman, instructor of first grade, Teachers' Training School, Buffalo, N. Y., followed with a paper on "The Kindergarten and the Primary School in Their Relation to the Child and to Each Other."

The paper was discussed by W. H. Jones, principal of the graded school, Denmark, S. C., and Dudley Redwood Cowles, superintendent of schools, Hampton, Va.

Song by Corporal Frederick N. Wake—"Last Night."

The paper to follow next, entitled "The Educational Use of Music for Children under the Age of Seven Years," by Miss Mari Ruef Hofer, of Chicago, was omitted, as Miss Hofer had been detained on the journey; but the department voted to request its publication in the volume of proceedings.

Miss Emma A. Newman, chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, read the following:

WHEREAS, The Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association is deeply sensible that the success of every meeting is largely due to the arrangements made by those in charge of the preparation for its reception and comfort; therefore be it

Resolved, That this department desires to express its deep appreciation of the cordial welcome and great courtesy extended to its members, and particularly to thank the Local Executive Committee, Mr. W. H. Welch, chairman; the Local Kindergarten Organization, Miss Sophie G. Rose, chairman; the South Carolina Kindergarten Association, Mrs. W. B. S. Heyward, president; the press of the city; the ladies and gentlemen who so kindly placed their musical talent at its service; and all those who so generously contributed time and effort to render this meeting a memorable one in the history of the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association.

Resolved, That a sense of our sincere regret be recorded and extended to Miss Anna Stovall, superintendent of the Golden Gate Kindergartens, California, and to Miss Ella B. Elder, supervisor of the free kindergartens of Buffalo, N. Y., whose circumstances rendered it necessary for them to resign from their positions as vice-president and secretary of this department.

Resolved, That our sincerest sympathy be extended to Miss Minnie Macfeat, of Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C., vice-president of the department, whose illness prevented her attendance at the meetings.

Resolved, That a sense of our great appreciation of her efficient services be tendered Miss Evelyn Holmes, director of the Kindergarten Training School, Charleston, S. C., as secretary of the department.

EMMA A. NEWMAN, *Chairman*.

ORIENTA B. CHITTENDEN.

EVELINE A. WALDO.

The report was unanimously adopted.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was submitted as follows:

For *President*—Miss Evelyn Holmes, Charleston, S. C.

For *Vice-President*—Miss Anna Williams, Philadelphia, Pa.

For *Secretary*—Miss Annie Laws, Cincinnati, O.

The report was unanimously adopted and the nominees declared elected as officers for the ensuing year.

The department then adjourned.

NOTE.—On Friday afternoon a Parents' Conference was called by the outgoing president, Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelté, with the purpose that such an informal meeting should be held each year following the sessions of the department, to the end that the connection between home and kindergarten should become closer and better understood. Miss Mari Ruef Hofer sang delightful children's songs. Mrs. Theodore D. Birney, president of the National Congress of Mothers; Mrs. Marian Foster Washburn, of Chicago; Colonel Francis W. Parker, of Chicago; W. K. Tate, of Charleston, S. C., were present and contributed to the success of the conference.

EVELYN HOLMES,

Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

MRS. MARIA KRAUS-BOELTÉ, NEW YORK, N. Y.

In life we are so closely connected, so dependent upon each other, that the very closeness of the bond makes it hard for us to realize it. They upon whom we depend have done their work so long, and we have grown so accustomed to having them do for us, that we often fail to thank them, or even passively appreciate them. In nature we see the plant, depending for life upon the earth below; the sun, wind, and rain above. In order to produce a perfect flower, each one of its parts must act according to the fullest power it possesses.

We see very few perfect flowers or trees in nature, but we see enough to show us what the perfect whole might be.

So with man. This idea is practically given to the child when he is held to do a certain small duty within his power and led to feel that, unless he does his work, the mother cannot do hers, and he will be the loser. This contains the lesson of interdependence evinced thruout the world. The higher spiritual thing of which this organic unity is the reflection is "the kingdom of God," toward which and for which we are all working. The right understanding of this relation is in the foundation of all right living.

The kindergarten, being the natural sphere of development, aids the home life, enlarging the child's horizon, preparing him for school, community, and church life in the truest sense.

Our age, with its wonderful discoveries, inventions, and the rapid rate of progress in all directions, will demand much from the men and women of the new century. The child, accordingly, must be in touch with his new environments, as also with human relationships. Hence, the child's love for companionship should be properly met. A most essential point should never be left out of view, namely, that there should be continuity in his training.

The true aim of education is to meet as far as possible all the natural inclinations of a child's mind, and, thru these inclinations, to offer opportunities and aid for the proper cultivation and growth of body and mind. The Creator has endowed the child with these inclinations as a means of assistance, similar to the seed that holds within itself the substance for the formation of the rootlet and sprout—tendencies which are, alike in the child as in the seed, but the development of the life within. What is not existent within cannot be developed from either the child

or the seed. The repression of any of the natural inclinations of a healthy mind will tend to dwarf the same, or to warp it out of its own individuality. If the sun touches only one side of a tree or plant, a deformed or misshapen tree or plant will be the consequence; but if the sun can fully touch the plant, it will develop symmetrically. The child likewise needs all the advantages for his development. Children are to be helped in learning to use their senses, to exercise their "self-activity," to become accustomed to habits of attention. The peculiar importance of the education of childhood, advocated by the kindergarten, lies in the consideration that it prepares the way for subsequent self-education; the first aim being to stimulate the child to find out truths for himself, to be put in the way to teach himself.

The aim of all true teaching should be to increase the pupil's fund of power, and not to assist him merely in scrambling over present difficulties. Making every difficulty the means of conquest over the next is helping the child to help himself.

"What, thoughtful, the mother arouses and fosters
With joyful, earnest play and with song;
What her love protectingly fosters
Will work for good, countless ages long."

The truth regarding the human being in his essence and development must find its application in the art and science of education.

Froebel gives us this truth in his system of "child-play;" for the kindergarten is founded upon the understanding of the human essence. No matter whether a truth be great or small, it must take some form in order to be received and comprehended. It is in the kindergarten, in "child-play," where the young generation is to be fitted, and where "useful helpfulness" must germinate.

"Great natures, born in millions, are unfolded but rarely in each century, and they have grown to maturity in this or that direction through a cherishing and educating care." Great men, it is proved, in most cases have had especially good mothers.

The development of that which has been gained will help toward further progress—the "old" reappearing in the "new"—while the bud is ripening to fruit.

In order to reveal what helps to progress, in any form, we must trace it to the origin and to the development of what now exists. And, above all things, the "being" of man has to be studied in its germ.

The "science of man" is the youngest of all sciences. We stand on the threshold of psychological investigations and studies of the little child. The "science of man" begins with his birth; the child, as the "germ of man," is its first object. Whoever understands the germ, whoever nurtures it in conformity with its destiny, understands and nurtures man,

The kindergarten must be counted among the most valuable acquisitions of the present age; tho to expect the universal improvement of the world from this institution alone would be folly. The salvation of the world does not depend upon one truth, one thought, or one act. If a new spirit is to arise in the human being himself, then a new inspiration must penetrate the "atmosphere of life" in every direction. If a new thought is to ripen new fruits in the field of education, it must not only embrace the first stage of life, but it must take in the whole season of youth, transforming all it touches.

Thus Froebel's "thought" must live and thrive as well in the family and the school as in the kindergarten; and then only we shall be able to speak of true educational improvement.

Rousseau was obliged to vindicate the rights of the individual as such, as also the rights of nature. Fichte had to combat the too inflexible self-regard of degenerate individualism, and therefore made prominent the social side, i. e., education in and for the whole community. Pestalozzi took up the interest of the oppressed, and, from the education of those who were quite neglected, laid the foundation of the modern education of the people; and opposed "object-teaching" to the then prevalent abstract method of instruction. Froebel combined all these points and would equally regard the individual and the social man, and give the family, and the life outside the family, the same educating influence, making both of these factors of human life work upon childhood from the beginning. For his assistant he calls upon the female sex to learn the art and science of this "calling," which has been peculiarly assigned to women. In his view, the renovated and sanctified family is the beginning of the renewal of society, because the family is the "elementary link" of community, church, and state.

The latest pedagogical reformers have all tried to introduce an education for work, or, at least, to use work as an assistant in education. Pestalozzi, Fourier, Fellenberg, Lancaster, Owen, etc., have declared learning and working, intellectual and bodily exercises, to be indispensable for childhood and youth, and have introduced them into their educational institutions. These institutions, in which field and garden culture, handicrafts of all kinds, and bodily exercises, have alternated with instruction, have never been sufficiently estimated. If the good accomplished by them had been recognized, they would have been more widely spread. However, in those institutions bodily and mechanical labor alternated with instruction, but they were not means of instruction, as is the case in Froebel's methods.

In the kindergarten, according to Froebel, the work is transformed in such a manner that it may be intellectual as well as mechanical discipline, that it may become a part of instruction in the full sense of the word, and consequently unite intellectual and bodily training. Body and mind

thus are not only generally cultivated during the first seven years, but mechanical dexterity is also partly attained thus early, while the child is active, not merely mechanically, but, at the same time, with his intellectual powers.

Rhythm is the fundamental law of all activity practiced in play, all the powers and organs being exercised, leading even the very young child to "free creativeness." Thus, work, play, and self-instruction are becoming one as a preparation for all the demands of later life, offering to earliest childhood the "life-element" befitting the originality of his young years.

A law must be at the foundation of the activity of man, as well as at that of the activity of nature, as both have one Creator. The organism of our body moves strictly according to law. All its functions are subjected to a fundamental law which bears various names, viz.: action and reaction, inspiration and expiration, heat and cold, darkness and light, the "law of contrasts" or "opposites."

A critic as unsentimental as Herbert Spencer lays down the law that "all education, in so far as it is true, tends to become play." He tests all methods by this criterion: Is it "task-work," or is it to the child "as good as play"?

It is our ignorance of child-nature, our poverty of invention, our "mechanicalness of methods" which make learning mere work. There is nothing incompatible between the merry play of the nursery and the school into which we would turn the child, if only we can be cunning enough to devise a subtle illusion wherein, when the children think they are only playing, we shall see that they are also learning. Leaving them their free, spontaneous, natural impulses of playfulness, we may then lead these impulses up into a system which shall, with benign subtlety, unwittingly to the children, train them into the most valuable of powers, fashion them into the most precious of habits, open within them the deepest springs of eternal life. Only for this finest and divinest of pedagogics we must, as the Greatest of teachers has taught us, get low down to the plane of the "little ones," and ourselves become as children, that we may enter the kingdom of heaven.

A MOTHER'S ADVICE TO KINDERGARTNERS

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In calling upon a mother to speak in this assembly you honor the home and emphasize the value of early home training. In responding to the earnest request of the president of this department, I do not wish to be presumptuous or pose as an advisor. Kindly receive what I offer as the suggestions of a mother who is deeply interested in the training of children in the home, in kindergarten, and in school. A mother cannot give

her entire thought to any one stage of the child's growth, but must follow his development from the beginning to the end. The mother's happiness depends upon the successful rounding out of each period thru which the child passes, so that her interest never wavers thru all the years of the child's growth. It is indeed a God-given work to train children in the home, and it needs the wisdom which comes from above, as well as all the wisdom which may be gained by careful thought, study, and training. We should not be satisfied with ignorance or inefficiency either in the mother or attendant who deals with the children in the home. We must urge young women to fit themselves for their womanly duties, and if we do our part to create a sentiment, future generations may have a trained motherhood. Many courses of training lead to this end.

Perhaps no other so well equips a young woman for her life-work as a study of the masters Pestalozzi and Froebel and their system of "education by development." The testimony of mothers whose training and culture have been directed along other lines goes to prove that the higher courses of study for women are not strong along those lines which develop the highest possibilities of womanhood and supply womanly needs. One cultured mother remarked to me recently: "I would gladly have given up two years of my college life to have had a course of training preparing me for the work of bringing up boys." Another mother said: "I am delighted when I think how many years I shall be able to follow and enjoy with my little girl her studies as she grows; but oh, it would be such a comfort if I had something to help me understand her now in the first years of her growth."

1. In some form every woman is destined to come in contact with childhood; why, then, should not every young woman prepare herself to perform her womanly duties as mother, teacher, or worker in the many social activities which demand a love for and sympathy with growing children? You will recall, perhaps, the story of Maria Mitchell. Born with a love for the children of the heavens—the stars—she had no thought of turning her attention to the *children of men*, until she was sought out by them, because of her wide reading, to conduct the public library of her island home. This she did with such rare wisdom that the cultured life of Nantucket today may be traced to her work among the children so many years ago. The true maternal instinct lies at the foundation of all successful work with little children. The tendency of the kindergarten training is to develop motherliness; to transform the natural affection which the young woman may have for special children into a universal love for childhood. She is here trained to meet the poor little distorted life with the same loving sympathy that she bestows upon the more fortunate little ones. This is a time for earnest thought and study, as well as for developing that playful spirit which is essential in gaining the confidence of the little child. This is the period when every young woman

who is brought under the influence of a wise and womanly training-teacher acquires that loving spirit which is a necessary qualification for the work. She realizes that it is becoming a part of her life and stands ready to give full, free devotion to the cause of childhood. The kindergartner who said, "I went into the training class a thoughtless girl and came out a woman," expressed the thought I wish to convey, that by this course of training and with this appreciation of its responsibilities the girl is started on her womanly career with untold possibilities before her. At a recent kindergarten commencement an earnest young woman who addressed the honored teacher of the class said: "You have made us conscious of powers within us that we did not know we possessed." If we attempt to define these powers, we find that the kindergartner has placed before herself an ideal of a well-balanced life, in which she must realize all the possibilities within *herself*. She must possess the power to be active, and when opportunity offers to seek that repose of mind and body which gives self-poise. She must possess the power to rise above the difficulties which surround her path in the struggle of life, and at the same time be self-forgetful in the struggle for the life of others. She must have faith in human nature, and confidence in a higher power to lead and guide the lives of those who are seeking to fulfill the purpose for which they were created.

2. As the kindergartner enters upon her work it should be to her a life-work. Her experiences will be of untold value, if she learns to gather them up from day to day; tries to organize them and observe how they illustrate or prove well-established educational laws. She should compare her experiences with those of other teachers in elementary work, counting it a privilege to be in touch with those who will train the children from the kindergarten on thru the school. She should seek friendly advice; take kindly criticism from those in authority; show that in this period of transition from the home to the school she can lead the children in wholesome, well-organized work and play. She must prove the value of her work in the general plan of education. The kindergartner should make a study, as far as possible, of the work that precedes and follows her own; not until she has dealt with all classes under various conditions will she know child-life. The kindergartner's attitude toward her profession should be one in which she holds herself open-minded, teachable, ever progressing by the light which is revealed thru the study of children.

3. The relation between the kindergartner and child should in a measure resemble the relation between the mother and child. There should be a strong bond of sympathy between them. By intimate relations with intelligent motherly women the kindergartner will gain the motherly spirit which should pervade the kindergarten as well as the home; under this influence the children will develop freely. The child

should not feel for a single moment that he is being studied, analyzed, questioned to find out what is within his mind. The little child should not be made to feel that he has defects which the kindergartner is seeking to discard or virtues which are to be nurtured. He should be taken as a *whole*, with whatever of good or evil there is in him, *appreciated, loved*; then will his face turn toward goodness as the flower turns toward the sun. In this warmth the child will grow; he will breathe the pure atmosphere of his surroundings; he will feel the sweet influences of song and story; he will learn to love the work and play which helps him to understand his own life and the life about him. In a tender, noble, womanly way the kindergartner may help the child to understand the experiences which come to him from day to day. We cannot bring the child in touch with all the typical experiences of life during the kindergarten age, nor can we bring to fruition every virtue. We must be content with preparing the way, leading the child in body, mind, and heart to start aright, knowing that strength and vigor of life come with passing years. I fear we sometimes fail to realize how small the beginning must be, and too soon look for results in our work with the children. We want to hurry them on to things beyond their circle of thought and experience. Let me plead for simplicity in kindergarten life and work. A young woman just returned from a period of study in Germany told me recently that she was amazed at the simple little exercises which held the interest and attention of the children thru a morning of work. These children were dealing with apples, the bright-colored balls which Mother Nature gives her children. This innovation may not be desirable for every kindergarten, but we will not go far astray in giving the children playthings Mother Nature has provided for them, and using them in such a way that the eyes of the children are opened to new possibilities. As the child passes from the home to the kindergarten he is full of the thoughts and experiences of home life. The wise kindergartner preserves this as a basis of knowledge, gently leading the child to a larger circle of thought and experience. The kindergartner should *lead*, and in a measure *be led* by, the children. In following the children's interests she will find it quite unnatural to keep thought centered around one topic for a week or month. The *life* and experiences which the children meet, the passing seasons, nature's moods from day to day, all suggest immediate interests which she must take advantage of for their development, carefully avoiding thoughts too remote from the everyday life. In a recent visit to a kindergarten where many of the larger children were absent, the little tots attempted to carry out "the blacksmith game," but were utterly at a loss because of the mass of detail which it involved. At another kindergarten I was delighted to see that the little ones were given an opportunity to play in a circle by themselves; the games were simple and within their understanding. It was interesting

to watch their faces as they entered into the spirit of their play, as nothing was attempted which was beyond their circle of experience. As the child grows he is able to pass on to wider circles of thought. If he comes to the kindergarten at five years, he should not be given the work or play suited to the child of three years of age; he is physically stronger, more mature, and should receive work suited to his larger capacity. I was deeply impressed with this fact in visiting a kindergarten which had just been established in a new section. The children, being unused to the material, were not prepared for very active work. The kindergartner was trying to give a lesson with the second gift which was admirably suited to the babies, but the older boys at the table could not be induced to enter into the play. They were longing to handle, to investigate the possibilities of the gift. The wise kindergartner and mother are quick to detect when the child is ready to pass from one stage to another, but are slow to force development.

We should think carefully before forcing the spirit of the age of chivalry upon the children before they are capable of understanding it; knighthood is something quite remote from the very little child. Most people who have lived with growing children and observed them closely find that this experience is best understood, because of some inward impulse, when the boy is ten or twelve years old. In Jane Andrew's *Ten Boys Who Lived on the Road from Long Ago till Now* we find the story of Gilbert the page, who will one day become a knight. This occupies a place in the history of the world's development, and appeals to the boyish heart. I find in a recent number of the *Outlook* the experience of a mother who, in speaking of her boy of eleven years, says: "During this last year he has been completely absorbed by the age of chivalry, started there by the tales of King Arthur. In his play he and his friends personate King Arthur, his knights, and Ivanhoe, and his leisure time, when not reading, is spent in whittling out javelins, swords, and shields from sticks and boards." May we not leave, then, the stories of knightly adventure to their proper place in the child's development, and not introduce kindergarten games which will cause the little children to stand with wondering eyes while knightly exploits are enacted before them? The primitive life of the Indian, so wonderfully pictured by Longfellow in his *Hiawatha*, should be given when the children are able to receive it in the beautiful language which has made it classic. History stories should be left to the school, so that the teacher may present them with some degree of freshness and in relation to other events.

As we look back into our own childhood, we hold dear mother, teacher, or friend who knew just when we were ready to enter into some new experience, in our process of maturing; those who gave us the right books when we were capable of understanding them and appropriating their lessons to our lives; those who seemed to know just when we were

passing from childhood to girlhood, and from girlhood to young womanhood.

In the few minutes remaining I must speak briefly of the relation the kindergartner bears to the parents of her children. In seeking to know the individual needs of the children she naturally turns to the home and the mother of each child. She finds much to encourage and much to depress her as she comes to know home life and the care the children receive in the home. The conditions are so varied that she wonders where she may meet the mothers on common ground. Each mother should be met and cordially welcomed to the kindergarten, her confidence should be won, her co-operation secured. She must feel that the kindergartner has the welfare of her child at heart. When this general good-feeling has been established, the mothers may be invited to meet for social intercourse or for the discussion of topics relating to the children. In order to secure an unbroken, harmonious development for the child, home and school must work together. They must be one in spirit. Colonel Parker said, in a recent address, that at present "the child lives two lives, has two streams of thought, one arising in the home, the other in the school. These two streams should be made one." Intelligent mothers realize this, and make every effort to have the home life harmonize with the kindergarten. These mothers will be deeply interested in the principles which underlie kindergarten work and method. But how are the unintelligent mothers who are found in our densely populated centers to be reached? To gain the co-operation of these women demands wise forethought and broad sympathy with the mass of humanity. The kindergartner cannot hold herself aloof in any way as she goes in and out among these people. They are quick to detect a spirit of condescension, and they are quick to respond to womanly courtesy. As the kindergartner meets these mothers in weekly or monthly meetings, her spirit should be cordial and inspiring. Beginning in a simple way, where she finds the mothers, she may lead them to understand what she is trying to do for their children. It is not necessary or wise to attempt to teach unintelligent mothers the philosophy of the kindergarten.

The wise kindergartner will make use of story, song, and play to bring these poor women into loving sympathy with nature. Let them learn that each day should be received with gladness; teach them to enter with their children into the spirit of the passing seasons as they come and go. Gradually these mothers may be led from thoughts of nature to the consideration of higher moral influences.

The kindergartner should select stories from good literature to help her in her work with the mothers. I have seen a group of poor mothers greatly enjoy Helen Hunt's chapter entitled "A Day with a Courteous Mother." In considering the subject "Morning and Evening Hours with the Children," Charles Dickens' "Child's Dream of a Star" was a

pleasing story for the close of the meeting. When "Fruit" was the topic for discussion, Bryant's "Planting of the Apple Tree" seemed appropriate. What could appeal more to the mother's heart than the lines:

There gently lay the roots
And there sift the dark mould,
With kindly care;
And press it o'er them tenderly,
As round the sleeping infant's feet
We softly fold the cradle sheet.

Talks on the physical care of children will be helpful if given by some thoughtful, sympathetic physician.

No set program may be established for the conduct of parents' meetings. Each kindergartner must study her group of mothers and suit the work to their needs.

A few days ago I shook hands with a group of mothers who had accompanied the kindergarten children to the park. One of the mothers heartily exclaimed: "When anything is going on at the kindergarten I am always there!" How proud and happy the children were, 600 of them, with the mothers surrounding them, as they entered into their play-festival on the green slopes of Prospect Park! The mother entering into the work and pleasure of her child becomes refreshed and awakened to a deeper sense of her motherly duties. The prayer in Froebel's *Mother Book*, if not on her lips, will be in her heart as she watches the development of her child: "God keep him undefiled, guide him whene'er the tempest rages wild!" She will realize that

"She must do her best,
If hopeful she would rest
Upon the Father's breast."

To sum up these words of a kindergarten mother to her co-workers:

1. Let me urge young women to take the kindergarten training as a preparation for their womanly duties.
2. When trained, realize that you have entered upon a life-work which should broaden with the passing years and harmonize with the entire educational course.
3. Let your spirit toward the child be tender, noble, womanly, appreciative.
4. Take into your confidence and call to your help the parents of the children you are so earnestly trying to nurture.

THE NEED OF KINDERGARTENS IN THE SOUTH

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Less than seventy-five years ago Froebel's institute at Keilhau was an object of suspicion and of persecution by the Prussian government; sixty

years ago his first kindergarten, at Blankenburg, was laughed at as a vagary of an old man mildly insane; forty-eight years ago Froebel himself died without having seen his ideas become popular, or his great discovery regarded with favor by either governments or teachers. But his widow, who died only recently at the age of eighty-five, lived to see the principles, to the development of which her husband gave his life, recognized by students everywhere as fundamental in all grades of education; the kindergarten established as a part of the educational outfit of every progressive country of the world; dozens of presses devoted to the publication and dissemination of kindergarten literature; scores of schools and colleges filled with young women of the best ability and finest culture, receiving special professional preparation for their work with the little ones; thousands of mothers with loving hearts hearing gladly the words of this great constructive philosopher and friend of children, and striving to apply his teachings in the government of their own households; philanthropists delighting to give a portion of their wealth to found, equip, and support kindergarten schools; and the organization of many societies, local, state, national, and international, for the sole purpose of forwarding this movement, which already has brought blessings and happiness to millions of children, and has become, forevermore, an essential factor in the world's civilization and uplift into freedom and truth. All this has come about in these few years without the force of arms, or the power of wealth, or high political or social standing. Such is the potency of truth, love, and simple faith in humanity. Truly, those who trust in these have laid hold on eternal life. The meek do inherit the earth, and the pure in heart see God.

Such has been the rapid growth and spread of the kindergarten movement. But because of our lack of large cities in the South, the late development of our public-school systems, and certain peculiar social conditions and ideals, kindergartens have not become established in the southern states as they have in some other parts of the world. In a dozen or more of our large cities, and in a few smaller cities and towns, the kindergarten seems now to be well established, supported either by public taxation, as a part of the public-school system, or by voluntary contributions collected and administered by societies formed and incorporated for this purpose. In other places spasmodic efforts have been made from time to time by volunteer societies, churches, clubs, and enthusiastic individuals to establish real kindergartens, but only with the usual success of such efforts. In a few places there have been excellent private kindergartens established as individual enterprises, charging a fixed amount for tuition. In many others the very name has been brought into disrepute, and made a synonym for inefficiency and charlatanry by so-called "kindergarten schools" taught by those who, knowing nothing of the principles of the kindergarten and little of the practice, and who, frequently

being unable to obtain a license to teach in any grade of the public elementary schools, have resorted to this as a means of a livelihood by making capital of the name. I know at least one community in which small private schools of primary grade, differing but little from other inefficient schools of this kind, are dignified by the name of kindergarten, because the society young women who found it necessary to make their daily bread in this way prefer to be called kindergartners rather than school-teachers.

That which one finds in New Orleans and Louisiana may, I think, be taken as a type of the best progress yet made in the South, and as prophetic of what we may expect to find in most southern cities and states before the close of another fifty years. The constitution of Louisiana has been so amended as "to permit any community desiring to establish a public kindergarten to admit children to said department between the ages of four and six," and this recognition in the fundamental law has, it is said, greatly encouraged the friends of the kindergarten in that state. The school board of New Orleans has established a dozen or more public kindergartens, and for some years it has not established a new school without a kindergarten department. It has also maintained for some years a kindergarten training department in the city normal school. The board and teachers of that city "have accepted the kindergarten as the foundation of" their educational system. Of the excellent work done in Charleston you have already heard.

The kindergarten is needed in the South, as everywhere else, because it is based on true principles and presents the best educational practice; and the time has come when we must claim the best for ourselves and our children, and must no longer be content with less.

We need the kindergarten in the South because of the power it has to stimulate the interest of parents in all phases of the education of their children, and to awaken them to a sense of their duty to know something of the schools in which their children spend a good part of the most impressionable years of their lives, and of the teachers who direct their thoughts and form their habits. Where the kindergarten has become an integral part of the public-school system, bands of women—mothers and older sisters—have soon been formed to co-operate with the teachers and school officers in beautifying, cleaning, and making comfortable and attractive the schoolrooms and grounds. Following the babies with a tenderer solicitude than that with which they have been accustomed to follow the older children, their interest soon extends upward to all grades of the school. Putting the kindergarten classes in the public school at once adds the mother element, and tends to unite the home and the school.

Nor is the result less valuable, tho somewhat different in kind, where the kindergartens are supported by volunteer societies. The very fact

of laboring earnestly and constantly for the support of these schools, visiting the homes of the children of kindergarten age—many of them destitute enough of every home comfort, of love, and of physical and spiritual health—and having to take thought for the general plan and conduct of the work in the schoolroom, is an educating influence of no mean value to the members of any such society and to the community in which they work. These things give real occupation for time that would otherwise be spent frivolously, and a purpose in life to those too often without purpose. Labor for and with children can never fail to bring with it nobler purpose and sweeter culture. Nor can one become interested in any one means of welfare to the children of a community without becoming interested, to some extent at least, in every other means to the same end; and the interest will spread to the community as a whole. Here also “a little child shall lead them.”

We need the kindergarten in the South to give us—teachers, parents, and school officers—a truer insight into the real nature and meaning of education, and a juster appreciation of its worth. Too long have the school and its work been thought of as something apart from the real life of the child and the home. For this reason, chiefly, have we regarded school education as of secondary importance, and the teacher of the elementary school as worthy of little esteem, and consequently have been unwilling to provide sufficient funds for the equipment and support of our schools. We need to see the connection between the school and the home, to understand that the school life is an integral part of all life and the work done there the prime factor in future success, and that the school is the best-paying stock in which we can invest our money. Our teachers need to see more clearly the connection between the school life and the home life of the child, and to realize that the one must build on the other.

I have known the entire school system of a city to be reformed and vitalized thru the influence of kindergartens supported by a kindergarten association, but not connected with the schools, except that the superintendent and some of the teachers of the school were active members of the association. The influence was first felt in the primary grades and gradually worked up to the high school. Before the kindergarten had been in operation three years, some of the kindergartners were meeting with the teachers in their regular weekly meetings, and the teachers were studying Froebel's *Education of Man*. A little later some of the teachers were attending the lectures given in the kindergarten training school that had been established in the city. By being brought into the kindergarten, and hearing the happy voices of the children, and seeing their busy work and merry games, men who had opposed the establishment of the public schools and did not believe in the education of the masses were converted from the error of their ways and to a better faith. The

mothers' meeting of the kindergartens later developed into a paidology club, and still later into a teachers' and parents' association, with meetings in the school buildings at stated times for the discussion of topics of common interest to parents and teachers. Those schools are now the best-equipped schools in the state in which they are, and the walls and halls of the buildings are ornamented with pictures and statuary of the best kind to a greater extent than can be found elsewhere in the state. The school board of that city is now considering the question of adopting the four kindergartens which have been supported for eleven years by voluntary contributions collected and administered by a society organized and incorporated for that purpose. The kindergartens have made their worth manifest, and have won their way to the hearts of the people.

We need the kindergarten to add its years to the school life of our children—all too short everywhere in the South except for the favored and persistent few. Even in our best towns and cities the schools are from twenty to forty days shorter than in other parts of the country, and the majority of our children do not reach the fifth school year. Our people still believe it is necessary to take their children away from school early, that they may join in the struggle of bread-winning, or, as is too often the case, bear the whole burden, while the father whittles goods-boxes and talks politics of a type long out of date.

I would not have these years given to the ordinary work of the primary school, as is commonly done in England; they should be filled with legitimate kindergarten work, the joyous play and the exercises that develop the senses, the mind, the soul, forming the characters of the children and, by enabling them to live most fully the real child-life of these years, preparing them best for all future life, whether in school or out. Thus not only might these years be added to the brief years of the child's school life, but the years of school life might be made to yield fuller results than they now yield.

If all homes were ideal, still the broader social life for which Froebel pleaded for the children would need to be supplied by the kindergarten. But, alas, they are not all ideal. In many, grinding poverty and traditional ignorance have done their work all too perfectly. In many there is want of intelligent mother-love. Harshness takes the place of gentleness, filth and negligence of cleanliness and loving care, profanity and vice of the pure speech and simple virtues that should greet the ear and appeal to the heart of every child. For many children the home is on the street. In many homes of wealth and refinement the negro nurse is the child's most constant companion. This does not mean what it did when the old black "mammy," true and tried, cultured and refined by years of the most intimate association with her mistress and the mother of her mistress, and mellowed into the finest sympathy by the care of more than one generation of children, cared for the children with a

mother's love and devotion, and the watchfulness developed by family pride and a strong sense of personal responsibility. She has gone with the days that are no more, and her successor, a half-grown negro girl, hired for a few weeks or months at most and then replaced by another of whom you have probably never heard before, is of a different type. The cultured and refined white woman, with her mother-heart and patient care in the kindergarten, certainly might well replace this negro nurse. Shall we of the South never learn this lesson?

But we need the kindergarten most especially for another reason. The southern states are rapidly becoming the home of the factory. We are beginning to see that we should manufacture a portion at least of our abundant raw material. We shall soon cease to be hewers of wood and drawers of water for the wealthy manufacturing communities of the North. Already the cotton factory is a familiar sight in the Carolinas and Georgia. The country people are moving into the factory towns from their country homes with their large families of children. Is it needful that I should depict for you this factory town and its life? The large brick factory building, with its long rows of humming spindles and rattling looms, at which men, women, and children work twelve hours a day—I have seen boys and girls under ten working thru the night, from six to six, drinking their cup of black coffee at midnight to keep them awake till dawn; the groups and rows of houses without beauty of architecture, and with no relief of lawn, garden, or fruit trees; no public library; an ungraded public school, taught from three to eight months by an incompetent teacher, in a house unfit for such use, and only one-fourth of the children of school age in attendance; the young children with pale faces and unkempt locks playing in the street thru the long hours of the day, while their mothers and older brothers and sisters are in the mills with only forty minutes for dinner—a time too short to permit more than a hasty glance and a few sharp words of command for the little ones—the picture is becoming familiar to us all. I welcome the cotton mill, with every other form of industry that shall bring wealth, and its power and possibilities, to our people, but the blood of the children must not be woven into the web, dyeing it a crimson hue; nor must their cry continue to go up to the Father, in whose sight the soul of one of these little ones is of more value than all the trade of the Philippines. If so, his curse will blight our enterprise.

In the factory town, above all places in our southland, is the kindergarten needed with its strong saving influences, mighty to build against the evils of later life. I think these children would, above all others, move the heart of the great father of the kindergarten—great in heart as in mind. And the kindergartner in this town should be more than she need be, or can be, in most other communities. She must be an angel of light and hope to the community; she must take hold on the entire life of the

town. What an opportunity for the school garden, tended and cared for by the loving hands of the children—such as Froebel would have had as a part of his child-garden. For flowers will bloom all the year round in this climate. Here the kindergartner might bring around her the older children who can be saved from the factory a few hours in the week, directing them in this simple garden culture. How many bright spots might thus be added to the town; and how many happy faces and rosy cheeks!

If the kindergartner in this town should be a woman of broad mind, strong will, and winning manners, it would be possible for her to induce superintendents and directors to do many things for the welfare of the community. For these men are not hard of heart nor careless of the welfare of their employes. Few of them love gold more than life. Suppose the kindergartner knew of the work of the National Cash Register people at Dayton, O., as described in the *Kindergarten Magazine* for February of 1899! I know more than one cotton-mill owner who would gladly respond to any suggestions looking to like results for his people and his business. If you know men and women who, having an abundance of this world's goods, would like to lay up treasure in heaven and make their name dear to the children of the poor, that they may, in the last day, rise up and call them blessed, direct them to me, and I will point out the opportunity in any one of fifty or more mill towns in North Carolina.

One other cause of need I would not forget: the millions of children of the dusky race whose home is among us. The education of a race from a lower to a higher stage of life is no easy task, to be completed in a few years or decades; but the thing we call the "race problem" is ours by inheritance, and it must ever remain our first question until it is solved with the only possible solution—the education of the negro to industry, thrift, morality, and good citizenship. The restraining force of the master's word and presence, and the educating influence of the fine Christian character of the mistress, are gone, as is the wholesome fear of the overseer's lash for every flagrant breach of the moral code. Separation, the chain-gang, the gallows, and the stake have taken their place, to the detriment of all. Education must produce in the negro habits, ideals, and a conscience strong enough, high enough, and keen enough to take the place of the inspiring and restraining influences of the old régime.

Those who know the negro best know that he does respond to the influences of right education. If his education is to have this transforming influence, should it not be begun in early childhood? And what type of school is better fitted for this purpose than the kindergarten? Who are better prepared for it than our southern women, who understand the problem better than any others can? A heavy burden, you will say; but a very large portion of the "white man's burden" must be borne by us.

in the South, and the only release from it must come thru giving the colored man the power to walk alone, and, perchance, to bear some part of the common burden. The little negro is at least imitative. Which school will most probably lead him in the paths in which he should walk—for his good and ours—the school of idleness on the streets, among the dirt and filth of the negro quarters of our towns and cities, or the kindergarten with a woman of culture and consecration as teacher? I like the plan which, I believe, you still follow in this city—that of filling your colored schools with white teachers of the same grade and qualifications as those in the schools for white children.

“But the kindergarten costs money,” I think I hear someone say; “we cannot afford it.” We *can* afford it, and all other educational facilities necessary for the full education of our people. Cannot a brave and noble people, industrious and economical, make from the right use of the fertile fields, broad forests, rich mines, and the hundreds of singing waterfalls of this vast empire, won for us by our fathers, the few millions necessary to fit our children for all that is best in life? We *must* do it; it is our first duty to our children, for whom alone we live, and in and thru whom we must live after we are dead. The wealth we have is theirs—beyond that which we must consume in the needs of our daily life. Sooner or later we must leave it to them; we are only their stewards and guardians. Shall we invest their money for them in bonds or brains, in lands or life? Shall we leave them money, or skill to produce money and more than money?

When we have done our full duty by providing for our children kindergartens and schools of all grades and kinds, when the forgotten child is remembered and the “last waif” has been housed and redeemed, then shall we enter fully into our rightful heritage, and wealth and honor and power shall be ours beyond what we can now comprehend. And when these things have come to us or to our children, we or they will see that the little child has led us; and the name of the kindergartner and of the faithful teacher of children shall be named with love and reverence, and with the honor that is theirs by right of noble and valuable service.

THE KINDERGARTEN GIFTS

A FRAGMENT

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“The latest gospel of this world is, ‘Know thy work and do it.’”

“Man is blessed with struggle and labor and God-endowed with capacity to win.”

It has become, in our kindergarten parlance, a truism that we learn by doing. We need to remind ourselves that we learn, too, by intuition,

hope, and fear; by failure, faith, and love. We need the critic to remind us that we learn by questioning and by seeing.

One of the vital educators of our day has pointed out that "imagination and feeling increasingly bear the brunt of shaping human opinion and human conduct. Intelligence does its organizing work and then disappears below the surface." Another has diagnosed our spiritual condition as threatened with loss of power to reflect.

Life presses upon us from so many points of interest that we are stung as by gadflies, and either rush about swayed by every wind of doctrine, or languish in a torpor which is equally fatal to spiritual wholeness. Unreasoning conservatism, listlessness, and the strong power of habit bind us to the *old*; rashness and "mad endeavor" drive us to the *new*; and there is no hope for our declining health save as we restore and nourish our dormant power to reinterpret those "truths which wake to perish never."

Froebel declares the purpose of the kindergarten gifts to be to satisfy, "not only the needs of childhood, but of youth, of educator and pupil." Their aim is "human cultivation," both as individual and as social whole, "as member of a family, of a nation, of humanity."

Again, their aim is "to foster independent action," "and the anticipation, recognition, and finally the comprehension of the inner coherence of material things, and of the phenomena of life, and also of the oneness of material and spiritual worlds and of the increasing similarity of their laws." Furthermore, he claims that his instrumentalities "will especially state the clearly formed truths of nature and life obviously contained therein, for the purpose of self-discovery, self-observation, self-development." Nor is there omitted the express statement that they contemplate "satisfying the needs and requirements of the present stage of human development."

"Here will be presented," says Froebel, "in conformity with each line of culture, comprehensive summaries of all parts which belong together, and of the relatively higher unities and the highest unity of all these parts. The purpose of these summaries is that the human being may be led from the *visible* and *external* to the *invisible* and *internal*, from *appearance* to *true being*, and thus, led into himself, may also be led to God. Thus man may clearly be shown to man in his nature, in his unfolding, and in his relation to totality, . . . and so may come to man in all the relations of life, unity, clearness, . . . insight, and therefore joyousness, peace, and freedom." Truly these are claims of a man not afraid to "hitch his wagon to a star."

Our practice with the gifts emphasizes the fact that nature and man's work show a preference for certain fixed forms, as spheres, cubes, and cylinders; and we proceed to induce children to repeat such sentences as: "Apples are round like the sphere;" "Tree trunks are round like the

cylinder ;” “ Bureaus and houses are flat like the cube ;” etc. We count faces, corners, and edges, and vainly fancy we are giving the child a sufficient clue to nature ; but if we stop on the plane of thought which these examples indicate, are we giving the child in the kindergarten or the student in the training class any intimation of one of the greatest truths declared in our own day—of nature as a colossal process of becoming ?

The type aspect of the gifts, as crudely conceived, shows nature only as a collection of fixed forms. But the truth about nature is that she is not static, a congeries of forms and colors and magnitudes, but that a persistent energy is working back of appearance, producing all phenomena.

The truth about Froebel's gifts, as interpreters of nature, is not alone that as types they stand for particular things or classes of things, but that they furthermore intimate, thru their succession, nature's ascending manifestations. A new exploiting of Froebel's second gift has revealed its possibility of bringing to the experience of little children illustrations of this evolutionary characteristic of nature. May I briefly illustrate by the twirling exercises and the cuttings suggested by Froebel for the extended second gift ?

1. Cut a sphere by its three dimensions, producing the forerunner of the cube. This produces the cube in static form by getting to the center of the sphere itself ; in other words, the sphere contains potentially its own opposite.

2. By twirling the cube thus produced, that is, by revolving it on one of its three axes, is revealed the shadowy form of its antecedent, the round ; and also supplied, by the different velocities at which it moves, a great many shadowy forms intermediate between these extremes. The child can behold the merging of one form into another, and the final restoration of the original cube when the motion ceases. Such exercises call upon him “to make a distinction between the thing or being and its appearance, and thus to protect himself from deception.”

3. Froebel's fourteen forms, which crystallize the passing ones hinted at by twirling the cube.

4. Miscellaneous forms, with illustrations how we have used them this year.

5. Three circles at right angles ; structure of sphere ; looking thru and seeing its inner workings.

6. Nested balls, cubes, and cylinders, which bring to the child's experience the fact that the essential thing in these forms is not dependent upon the accident of size.

All these and similar exercises are an approach to the grasp, not of form alone, as our practice too frequently distorts the intention, but of the evolutionary process of “formation.”

What interests the child in these twirling and subdividing exercises, as well as in the jointed slats and thread games, is just this transformation taking place before his very eyes and at his own command. One of the deepest mysteries of our unfathomed nature is that we persist thru all our varying caprices, moods, and tenses. This may account fundamentally for our delight in the discovery of an old friend under new and unexpected changes. You remember the delight of Emerson's boy when he discovered that his knife, which he had supposed to be good mainly for whittling, suddenly took to attracting steel filings. You remember the astonishing new manifestations Pegotty displayed under affliction, while she yet remained Pegotty.

Critics of Froebel's school of drawing fail to discover that in this occupation he is trying to show how the simple element — one straight line — multiplied and varied in the two predicates of length and inclination, will afford illustration of a complex and varied whole resulting from this simplest element, and how from this simple line itself points are offered in common with a curved line, its own opposite. Recall the cobweb figure of the drawing. "All that is great," says Froebel, "if one traces it back to its germ and the first intimation of it, begins, almost always, with what is quite insignificant, and the manifold goes forth from the simple, indeed the heavenly from the earthly, just because the latter contains the heavenly in itself. I always think of this when my boy in the company of his playmates cuts his reed flute in the spring, and when I go into the church and hear a Thuringian chorister playing on the organ, with its '*vox humana*' stop, the introduction to an '*Allein Gott*.'"

A little boy of whom I heard the other day put the same thing into words when he said in answer to the question, "Who made you?" "God made me about so big, and I grewed the rest of the way."

We have kept our experiences and exercises with children too fixed, and so have given a bias toward a one-sided view of even nature. We have not built enough on, or thought enough on, or planned exercises enough on, the interesting and suggestive twirlings, analyses, and reconstructions of the total second gift, which projects the whole tour of the gifts.

We have not ourselves understood what Froebel means by a simple and a complex unity as related to the sphere and back to the sphere itself again. We conceive the simple unity to be epitomized in the first gift, the complex unity in the sixth or some succeeding gift. "I place great value on everything," says Froebel, "in which manifoldness develops from unity thru contrast and again returns to unity."

Froebel meant the child in the nursery and early kindergarten experience to have the ball given him; that he should freely play with it as he needs no urging to do; that in his play he should get clearer and

clearer perceptions of its representative character — hopping like a bird, etc. — and of its movement in typical directions — up, down, right and left, around and around, and then round its own axis ; but that these directions which the ball travels on an outward track, so to speak, shall be discovered *in* the ball itself, as I tried to show a few moments ago in the divided sphere.

The child's desire to get to the heart of things is not restricted to the third gift, but is carried back to his first plaything as well, and either in the kindergarten or in the connecting class the ball which he received primarily as a free gift he shall possess ultimately by conquest. Finally the child is to make in clay or cardboard these same gifts.

It is told of Xerxes that he refused to eat Attic figs until he had conquered the country which produced them, and, while our own infirmities would press too heavily upon us, if we could enjoy only what we have conquered, with no room for free acts of grace from others, the tendencies of our time, with its richness of opportunity, are to make the individual an unquestioning, and maybe an unappreciative, recipient. Certainly the poet's admonition,

What from thy father's heritage is lent,
Earn it anew, really to possess it,

is not enough borne in upon us.

Children should have repeated experiences of making inside outside, turning pockets inside out, cutting apples and oranges, etc., and discovering the formation there. Froebel points out that the botanist must get to the heart of his tree or flower, to approach its deepest secret ; and that the hammer of the geologist is indispensable to his study.

But this aspect of the gifts, as offering means for the interpretation of nature, is not the only one in the plan of their projector. Froebel marshals his forces around that nature which education contemplates, human nature, the nature of mind. Says Froebel : "This consideration of the outside world leads in a very remarkable way (which has not yet been completed and carried thru in the education of human beings) into the linking together of the activities and vocations of man, and even into the history of human development." The whole world is a spectacle of disrobing, of lowly things laying off their lowliness, throwing off the "garment of life, which divinity wears."

Froebel in one place declares the goal of his instrumentalities to be "self-discovery, self-cultivation, self-determination, clearness, insight, peace, and freedom ;" bestowed as dower by the institutions of men, and won as possessions by individual man. Is his claim too much ? Has he aimed higher than his arrow struck ? Are our sympathies with the cat or with the bird in Dr. Raymond's clever little poem, "*Felis Agnostica*" ?

Said the cat to the bird :
"Those things on your back are absurd.
Why don't you cast them free
And walk about like me ?"
Said the bird to the cat :
"Don't be so sure of that.
You would more wisely not
Despise what you haven't got.
Those things
Are wings.

"I know what legs are worth
To walk upon the earth.
And I, whenever I choose,
My legs like you can use.
We both tread earth, but I,
Whenever I choose to fly,
Command both earth and sky."
Then away the bird flew
And the cat cried : "Mew,
How do I know it's true ?"

That's always the way I find
With folks of a fanciful mind.
If you try to set them right,
They defy your logic quite,
And go somewhere out of sight.
Now what sort of proof is that
To a cat ?

Froebel's great aim, to give men themselves, runs thru every instrumentality he fashions. The *Mother Play* is undoubtedly the apex of its attainment, but the "Gifts and Occupations" are in the series too and aim at the same goal.

★ The gifts are not the truths they typify, nor those they symbolize. "Art is not truth nor beauty, but a revelation of beautiful truth thru individual vision. It is the artist's reaction to the stimulus of his universe." The gifts are not the principles to which they point, nor the thousand possible examples which they suggest; but, as types and symbols, stand midway between these two extremes.

To be convinced that, in the plan of Froebel, human nature or mind was the dominant thought, one need only read the first few pages of his chapter on the "Gifts and Occupations," to which I refer you. He begins with not a word specifically about them, nor does he mention them for about six pages out of forty-one. He rings out a clear note at once on the threefold nature of man and his threefold relationships. The illustrations which follow emphasize the mother's mediatorial services and culminate in the child's own nature as mediator. All this is, of course, introductory to the mediatorial aspect of Froebel's gifts.

The mastery of technique in Froebel's "Gifts and Occupations" is very

little; but that, thru the use of them, there begins to emerge the power to transform, to reflect, to interpret, is everything. A little boy in a kindergarten said not long ago, after looking at the sphere, "Why, it has so many corners it hasn't any;" not a bad preparation for Harvard's accepted definition of a circle as "a polygon of an infinite number of sides."

The gifts hint in wood and stuff what the parable does in word. Froebel, you remember, has a great deal to say of the parable in work of the transition class and the innate transmuting power of the mind, and readily makes the transfer of meaning implied.

"Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles?" "A sower went forth to sow his seed." "I am the vine; ye are the branches." None of these have failed of their aim, which certainly was mediatorial between the hints of nature and the truth of character. I once heard education defined as "the giving of life *from* the living, *thru* the living, *to* the living."

Is not life, as infused into the world thru great personalities, one of the foremost gifts of God to man? Rob the world of Homer and Dante, of Plato and Aristotle, of Shakespeare and Christ, and of the other seers, and the world would still be barbaric. No education is vital which does not coincide with the main issues and interests of individual and community life, indeed with the ascent of human history. Has that not been a spectacle of man's coming to *know* and to *own* himself? There is no possession to which the child has so inalienable a right as to self-possession. There is no possession to which the adult would consent to receive so poor a title as most of us hold to our own self-possession.

You remember this was the gift Froebel wanted to bestow. He wrote in the album of a friend: "May Fate grant to you a happy home, a loving wife. May she drive me restlessly from place to place, granting me only in the end life's best gift—knowledge of myself." After a pause he adds: "You give men bread. May it be my effort to give them themselves."

The stuff we are working *on* is human souls. The stuff we are working *with*, in the last analysis, is not wood nor clay nor paper nor wool; not even sunshine and sky and flower and art; but our own defective, hungering, individual souls. What gifts of the spirit are ours to bestow? What waters of life can we set a-flowing, in our few short months of influence, in the children, in the students, in the homes? Have we not need of self-refreshment, have we not need to keep in the company of the great, to be reassured and reaccoutered for our work? Not the doing only, but the doing and the seeing, the questioning and the answering, will equip a teacher. Listen to the testimony of the great race-teacher, Dante:

The greatest gift which in his largess God
Creating made, and unto his own goodness
Nearest conformed, and that which he doth prize
Most highly, is freedom of the will,
Wherewith the creatures of intelligence
Both all and only are endowed.

And again listen when he, the poet of the thirteenth century, hears realized what Froebel, the educator of the nineteenth century, hoped to minister to :

Free and upright is thy free will.
Thee o'er thyself I therefore crown and miter.

Can the twentieth-century teacher, in a country committed to individual free will and self-government, have a higher incentive for contributing her mite? Can she fail to realize the glory, the privilege, and the responsibility of her vocation?

THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE PRIMARY SCHOOL IN THEIR RELATION TO THE CHILD AND TO EACH OTHER

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In an age of transition, such as the century just passing has been, the department of education cannot fail to bear its share of unrest in efforts to adjust itself to changed conditions. The application of steam and electricity has not revolutionized the industrial world alone, but has brought new ethical and spiritual conditions—conditions presenting problems yet unsolved, tho the best thought of many minds has been grappling with them for years. It is, therefore, not strange if in the educational world, which depends so largely, if not upon an intelligent understanding of conditions and facts, at least upon the good-will of the people at large, for any radical change of method, there should be found much confusion and many methods.

Here and there thru the centuries minds endowed with insight into eternal truths have given forth words of wisdom applicable to all ages and generations. Slowly these golden strands of thought are being gathered up, harmonized, and applied to present-day conditions. There is no longer any question in the minds of intelligent people as to the value of kindergarten training for the young child. The principles upon which the system is based are conceded by all prominent educators to be sound psychologically and true to child nature. However justly fault may be found with particular schools or exponents of the system, these closing years of the nineteenth century have witnessed a sharp distinction between such exponents and the genuine principles for which

the name of Froebel stands. This is a distinctive gain in the educational field ; for it opens wide the door to tens of thousands of little children from three to six years of age, takes them from the streets with the moral contamination there found, to place them in sunny rooms under the care of loving hearts and willing hands to be taught how to play, how to make use of that inborn activity which, left to itself, so often degenerates into mischief and evil.

The value of kindergarten training may be briefly stated as follows : Thru association with children of like age and ability those qualities which make for selfishness, which unfit for social life, are eradicated ; in their place a right estimate of self, a spirit of independence, of courage, of brotherly love and helpfulness, a sense of mutual interdependence, are fostered ; that training of the senses—sight, hearing, touch—so essential to clear perception, which forms a basis for all higher mental operations, is gained ; an intelligent interest in nature, leading not merely to a careful observation of facts, but to love for the beautiful, and tender care for all the helpless things over which man has been placed, is aroused ; a sympathy with and respect for the various occupations of mankind is inculcated—work is dignified in the eyes of the child ; the effort and tact necessary in mastering difficulties encountered in the concrete expression of mental concepts tend to develop perseverance, self-control, and a certain power of self-direction which offers the best possible foundation for the growth of independence of character, of self-helpfulness, of power to help others. The mistaken zeal of friends has often proved more harmful to the kindergarten cause than the frank criticisms of opponents. Slowly but surely a clearer understanding of the principles for which Froebel stood is spreading. There is less contention over details of method, more openness of mind in looking for results in the lives of the children, with a better knowledge of what these results should be. All causes in their infancy suffer from a blind adherence to the letter of the law, as well as from misapprehension of it. The kindergarten has been no exception to the rule. But it has weathered the storms, outgrown the trials of infancy, proved its right to live because of its power to give the best and fullest opportunity for an all-around development to childhood. It is only a question of time when all children shall be given the chance of profiting by that which the kindergarten stands ready to bestow.

We are all familiar with the saying that the only way to preserve the free institutions of our country is thru the education of the masses. We likewise know what strenuous efforts have been put forth in this direction since our birth as a nation. Each succeeding generation has realized in fuller measure its pertinency. Nevertheless there is an undercurrent of feeling, making itself felt more and more strongly, that somehow education has not brought about just the results expected of it. When our boys and girls enter the arena of practical life they are found wanting in

some of the attributes necessary for success in even the humblest vocations. Their education seems to have given them little, if any, ability to cope with life's practical difficulties. This seems to be increasingly true of the children of our large cities.

The country child still enjoys some of the advantages common to all children a generation or two ago. Life is less complex in the country; there are fewer things to appeal to the child-mind with such distracting rapidity of succession. He is brought into closer touch with nature's elemental forces and products. He is able to understand man's conquest of the one and assistance in bringing the other to fruition. Some conception of man's power and limitations, of the ultimate results of patience and perseverance, becomes unconsciously a part of the country child's inheritance. Then, too, he invariably has his share of the family work to do; finding many opportunities for exercising his ingenuity in carrying out his own plans, or in helping others. The city child learns all too soon a few cents and the neighboring store will save him the necessity of constructing some contrivance, more or less clumsy, necessary to the completion of his plan, thus losing that training which comes from helping himself over difficulties, which develops originality and forethought.

Even where the city child is compelled by necessity to lend his mite of strength to increase the family's slender income, how different are the conditions! Instead of contributing his legitimate share of labor where he is an integral part of the family life, inferior only because of immaturity, he is turned out to compete upon street, in store, or in factory with large numbers of his own age. Thrust into the midst of the evils engendered by competition while still too young to comprehend them, he nevertheless is molded by their influence. A sharp eye for a bargain, looking out for self at the expense of others, giving as little service as will bring the desired pence, are some of the moral ideas unconsciously imbibed.

It is true also that the children from better homes in our cities have lost much of their birthright of freedom. Crowded apartment houses, with no open spaces, are turning the children upon the streets or into dark basements to enjoy their time-honored games. When the street is the playground, often the whereabouts of the "guardians of the peace" must be carefully kept track of. Free play, with its endless opportunities for developing a child's resourcefulness, generalship, patience, and good-fellowship, is fast becoming an impossibility for our city children.

Child-energy must have an outlet; if it cannot spend itself in legitimate ways, it will find others not so good for body, mind, or soul. Therefore it seems to me that all our city children are losing ground thru a too early encounter with competition; thru the curtailment of free play; thru the ease with which they can procure ready-made implements for

the furthering of their plans; thru the mistake of putting complicated, finished toys into their hands from earliest childhood, thus deadening creative ingenuity.

With this somewhat cursory view of the conditions into which modern city children are born in mind, let us inquire what the primary school, whither they must wend their way at five or six years of age, has to offer them.

Tho the children of today, and those of past generations, possess such different mental and moral equipments, because of the changed and vastly more complicated environment of today, the matter taught in the first three years of school life remains the same—"the three R's," only sugar-coated that the dry facts may be more palatable. A little science, a few stories, are thrown in as a sort of center around which the other work is to group itself; nevertheless teacher and child are judged, not by these accessories, but by the latter's ability to read, write, and use figures. There is not the slightest doubt but that the child of ordinary—yes, of less than ordinary—intelligence can, between the ages of five and eight, be taught to read and write well and use figures to some extent.

The only means of securing this result is thru a process of repetition. The best thought of intelligent teachers has long been seeking to relieve this process of some of its irksomeness, and a large measure of success has attended their efforts. But there is another side to the problem which has not received such close attention. While it is now possible to present the same fact in such a variety of ways as to retain attention and interest until the fact has become a part of the child's mental possession, try as we may, we nevertheless are forced to call into play the same powers of mind, the same senses, the same muscles on the part of the child. Nature has set an absolute limit here. Certain senses, muscles, mental powers, must respond each time to similar stimuli. All must perceive the harm resulting from this constant use of one set of powers to the exclusion of others. That it naturally results in the child's drifting into a more or less mechanical habit of thought and life, which, unless counteracted, will result in an atrophy of individuality, of those qualities essential in coping successfully with life's practical difficulties, is patent to any thoughtful mind. Happily for the child, his own nature so rebels at being run into a mold that he responds with amazing quickness to the slightest help in the direction of freedom.

The kindergarten, manual training, and child study are slowly opening our eyes to the radical changes necessary if education is to preserve individuality, increase the power of self-direction, develop forethought and ability to master difficulties, train to a respect and love for work, whether mental or physical. Mere ability to read, write, and figure will not make men and women qualified for intelligent citizenship in this great republic. In the past, when outside environment supplied opportunities for developing the other qualities needed, the state's duty to its children was done

when it furnished instruction in "the three R's." But the changed conditions of today demand a different training, if it is to be an efficient one.

Visit a kindergarten sufficiently often to become conversant with the methods used and acquainted with individual children; note their steady growth in the power to discover facts thru the use of their own senses, to express the thought gained in language or concrete handwork; watch the mastery of self, the tact in overcoming difficulties; see the growth of a community spirit. Also watch with equal care a primary class conducted according to the most approved modern methods. A comparison at the close of the year will reveal the fact that the children of the former have outstripped the latter in general intelligence, in power to think and act independently; are more amenable to social laws.

"The most colossal improvement which recent years have seen in secondary education lies in the introduction of the manual-training schools; not because they will give us a people more handy and practical for domestic life and better skilled in trade, but because they will give us citizens with an entirely different intellectual fiber. . . . Laboratory work and shop work engender a habit of observation, confer precision, honesty, self-reliance."

After years of patient struggle manual training has won for itself a place in secondary education because of its effect upon character. Thus the kindergarten and secondary education meet upon a common ground; but between them is a wide gap. That which meets and satisfies the needs of early childhood, that which affords a development in stability of character which mere intellectual training failed to give to youth, surely cannot fail to be of benefit between the ages of six and twelve years. Why, then, has it no place in our primary curriculum?

Tradition and habit are strong. Tho the kindergarten on the one hand, and manual training on the other, have opened our eyes in a measure, we are slow to follow their leading. The great mass of mankind still believes a sort of magic lies hidden somewhere in the mere ability to decipher a printed page; not realizing that the power of mind which can make use of what is so gained is the force which counts in the world. The bare art of reading is valueless; it is the transmutation of what is read into thought, act, character which works for good or ill. If we teach the art (a thing offering no difficulty at the right time and place)—if we teach the art, without the mental habit, the moral force to grasp and use purposefully such matter as can be gained thru the art, how are the children benefited?

There comes a time when certain powers of body and mind have developed, when certain mental habits have been acquired, when certain ideas and ideals have been fostered in the child-mind and heart, when he feels the need of and has the preparation for receiving with little effort those mechanical aids to further knowledge, letters, and figures. All that is now so laboriously struggled for from the age of five to ten, and which

results in a stultification of the reasoning power, in the elimination of the individuality of such a large percentage of the mass of children, with a suitable training preceding, can readily be acquired between the ages of eight and ten, and so acquired as to leave the children in full possession of all their powers, keen, active, trained for their highest usefulness.

The child of six to eight years of age has the same need—nay, an increasing need—of the civilizing influences of sympathetically directed play. The deepest ethical principles are often gained upon the playground. Principles of justice, of fair play, can be inculcated there as nowhere else, because practical results are seen and felt; they are not arbitrary injunctions imposed by superior strength.

Literature opens to the child its rich treasures of imagination and experience; treasures which deepen and broaden the life, while satisfying the instinctive craving of the child-heart for a means of comparing its own little life with the experiences of others. The story hour is all too sparingly used. It offers to the child-soul, as nothing else ever can, the noblest, the truest thoughts the world possesses, in a form which childhood loves and claims as peculiarly its own. Once given its proper place and allowed to fulfill its mission of storing heart and mind with its best, the problem of keeping the youth of the land from vile literature will be largely solved.

Now we starve the heart and soul that we may gain time to furnish the mind with the key to unlock the storehouse of knowledge for itself. There is no time to bestow the greater boon, the creation of ideals which contact with the great thoughts contained in the told stories would engender. Think of the thousands of little children who have no higher ideals than those gained from the squalid surroundings into which they are ushered at birth, and amid which they must live and die. Where are they to gain food for heart and soul? How are the garnered treasures of the ages to be brought within the reach, to be made of service to, the great mass of children? What better, or more natural, way than thru the story told?

Then, when the time has come for mastering the technicalities of reading, the delight of discovering on the printed page the much-loved stories serves as an added incentive to effort. Now thought has to be sacrificed to gain repetition.

Manual training continues, in form suited to increase strength and ability, that training begun in the kindergarten which satisfies the instinct for making, develops judgment, concentration of mind, perseverance in the accomplishment of a purpose; this in addition to the sense-training for hand and eye. There should be included in this connection also a practical working knowledge of all the common weights and measures. Children of this age dearly love to play store. Why not let them do so to some purpose? The amount of genuine mental effort made under the

inspiration of pleasure, free from the entanglement of figures, is amazing. A cultivation of a quickness of ear in detecting differences of sound, a keenness of eye in distinguishing differences in form, a delicacy and deftness of touch, must have a place in the curriculum if it is to prepare for an easy mastering of "the three R's."

Science has opened up a new realm to childhood as well as to mankind. All about him, arousing curiosity and interest, the child sees the forces of nature swiftly, accurately performing the mandates of man. Into what better channel than a study, thru simple experiments, of the manifestations of the elementary forces of nature and their practical application to daily life, can you direct a child's instinct for investigation? Such work, aside from its intensely interesting character, leads to habits of close observation, concise statement; offers large opportunities for the exercise of comparison, inference, reason, judgment. The finer qualities of the soul—sympathy, kindness, care for helplessness—are quickened and deepened thru a right contact with plant and animal life.

Is it more profitable in the end to spend from three to five of the most impressionable years of a child's life in mastering technicalities by means of constant drill; or will it be better to devote as much of that time as possible to developing brain-power and character, and then acquire the technicalities at a time when the child's own ability fits him to do it with ease and speed? Were it not that the former method comes to us weighted with the authority and veneration of hoary-headed tradition and habit, there could be no hesitation.

With senses trained to be alert, active, accurate; with minds stored with facts obtained by observation, or experiment; with the ability to express thought in good language; with the opportunity of using their now pent-up energies in the production of objects which are concrete expressions of their own mental images; with the gain in self-control, moral purpose, and forethought, thru persistence in adjusting means to the accomplishment of an end; with a healthier insight into the meaning and relations of life gained thru story, games, and contact with nature; possessed of these qualities, can anyone doubt that children will be happier, will not only be better prepared to be taught the technicalities which permit of more rapid advancement in formal knowledge, but will also have a fairer chance to grow into men and women possessed of nobility and strength of character?

The birthright of every child is an opportunity for the free and full development of all his powers of body, mind, and soul, that he may be fitted to meet life's struggles and opportunities.

Education will have accomplished its noblest purpose, have reached its highest ideal, when it secures this for all children.

*THE EDUCATIONAL USE OF MUSIC FOR CHILDREN
UNDER THE AGE OF SEVEN YEARS*

MISS MARI RUEF HOFER, CHICAGO, ILL.

The ideas of the new education, as inaugurated by the kindergarten, have been so generally accepted during the last decade that they no longer furnish occasion for argument, but we find them incorporated in general good theory and practice. The terms "self-activity," "creativity," "spontaneity," "self-expression," the "play-spirit," and their equivalents, have become familiar words in school circles—in fact, it may be said of them that they have graduated from the kindergarten, and are now receiving most serious attention at the universities and other seats of advanced learning.

In the early days these magic words came as heaven-sent messages to the teacher. At their bidding she found herself called from the plain fare and unadorned conditions of "the three R's" to revel in the munificence of philosophy, science, and art, with the liberty to think, feel, and experiment freely along all lines. What vistas of joy and growth revealed themselves to her in the new methods! What luxurious browsings in hitherto unexplored fields were now permissible! Also, what problems of individual reconstruction had to be met, what bridges of inefficiencies and despair had to be crossed, before these things could be!

In the first abandonment to the new freedom lay the education of the teacher from the old to the new ideal of teaching. If in the embarrassment of her riches it was difficult for the kindergartner to act with judgment and discretion in the use of her resources, it is hardly to be wondered at. The first great step was the conquering of herself and her material. The second step immanent in all education today is to learn to discriminate, and use things in their right proportion and place. The days of first enthusiasms are long past, and the cool eye of professionalism is upon the kindergarten, questioning its uses and the effectiveness of its work.

In its motiving capacity the kindergarten holds a peculiar and prophetic relation to all later education. Here the ingredients for future life and living receive their initial stirring, and the questions as to future flavor and quality of the individual are largely determined. Here, in the realm of the impulse and caprice of childhood, is recognized and conserved the creative element as the chief cornerstone of future progress. Froebel, as no other educator, prognosticates the artist. By joining intuition to education he left the door of the soul ajar, that its mysteries might forever after mingle with the common life. In the materials of education he sees only the media thru which, in the end, shall be attained the perfect man and his perfect work. If Froebel's principles are true, the production of the artist must be, not only a theoretical, but a practical end in our work.

We may question ourselves : Are our methods conducive to this result ? With all our insight and philosophy, are we practically demonstrating our problem ? Are we really working from the creative, thought-generating standpoint ? Are our children creative, originative, originating beings ; or does much of our work yet remain fanciful theory and undigested practice ? Are we doing the inceptive work in the kindergarten which truly motives the individual and starts native impulses well along the path of creative doing ?

In music, as in other things, it is necessary for us to lay a broad platform if we wish fully to utilize the opportunity offered in the initial training. In the present urging of the musical ideal, and in our eagerness to give the child the best from the standpoint of today, the danger is to plunge him too soon into the full representation of music and its reproduction, without permitting him the benefit of natural growth and development ; also ignoring the tiny germ of self-effort which should be encouraged from the start. Especially is this detrimental because of the many partially defected children along hearing and ultimately musical lines.

In music-teaching more than in any other subject have we suffered from the two extremes : on the one hand the professional musician absorbed in the technique of his art and knowing little of the art of teaching ; on the other hand the unmusical teacher, who, while familiar with teaching methods, is wholly ignorant as to musical ideals. These two extremes must also be met in the kindergarten ranks. It is not possible to induce the musical ideal by methods alone. There is that which is subtle and far-reaching in musical suggestion and impression, which necessitates the presentation of pure ideal. Children may be wholly demoralized as to tone ideals by the harsh and poor singing of the teacher, which may induce bad vocal habits and inferior tone-appreciation for the remainder of life.

Next to the importance of impression and the preserving of the ideals of music would come a rational educational treatment of the subject, which would insure a development of the child thru music as well as the gradual acquirement of musical knowledge.

While music can be appreciated and understood—certainly felt as an influence—without analysis, as can no other art, the larger, formulated ideal of music must be abstract and confusing to the child.

The beginning work here, as in other studies, should have less to do with direct training in music itself than with the accessories and environment which help a child to become musical. In this early period all is grist which comes to his mill ; all sound, all motion, are music to him. He claims the whole earth and the heavens above for his themes—the sun, the moon, the stars, the earth, the air, and all that in them is, furnish him with the musical occasion. He hears, feels, and imbibes and appreciates the materials of music in a thousand forms. The world is his instrument,

and nature supplies him with melodies, rhythms, and harmonies at first hand. All this is theoretically recognized in the kindergarten as in no phase of education. Here the work is to convert nature into the materials of life. In the order of impression a concrete tone-experience should precede general musical training. This can be gained naturally and unconsciously in the poorest neighborhood. A little thoughtful work on the part of the teacher, in the kindergarten and first primary, and later in connection with the science work of the grades, would be sufficient to equip the most backward child, in a hearing experience, with the power to discriminate and reproduce all sounds thru imitation and association. This is the significance of the early imitative or bow-wow period, which, thru the ignorance and indolence of parents and nurses, is unutilized; and the sense remains dulled and undiscriminating and uneducated.

As the child looks forth from his undefined wonder-world, it takes but the magic of a "See the flower" or "Hear the bird" to arouse and focus baby-interest into active appreciation. From listening to individual sounds we pass rapidly to association of sounds with objects, discrimination between sounds, comparing and contrasting and locating sounds. Indeed, a very simple but logical program can be carried thru the year, based upon the occasion of everyday development, with the result to greatly quicken and develop the hearing sense, and thru imitation of sounds a natural system of phonics would train the vocal organs.

Nor need we go far from home in order to effect this. A teacher, hearing some of the suggestions, anxiously asked: "Where and how shall I get the apparatus?" But sit still and listen. Whether in the city or country, house or street, in five minutes you will hear more sounds than you can analyze in an hour. And all to the end of ear-training, and undoubtedly leading to the establishing of an auditory imagery which must be effective in assisting the later appreciation of music. To arouse the musical consciousness, thru an enlarged capacity for hearing and appreciating tone, would be a step toward the creative imagination which is the equipment of the one gifted in music. While today talent is largely bent of mind combined with trained resource, the new education hardly guarantees to manufacture genius, but it does and can undertake to free the powers which may lead to it. As a tree cannot blossom without an overfullness of life, so a child cannot function song without a fullness of experience and an overflow of the mind and soul.

In regard to voice, how fully we are becoming aware that it is the mind primarily, and not the body, that sings! The utterance of the individual thru the voice is as inevitable in kind and quality as the very identity of the individual himself. The color and character of the human voice is not a matter of chance or accident when unhampered by habit and disease, but the result of law and proportion, unmistakably speaking out the story of its possessor. In the voice are involved, not only the

proportions, the fiber, the timber of the individual ; but race, nationality, environment, local influences, temperament, habit, etc. Here we find the old principle of the vacuum applying itself. Unoccupied space, whether in earth or brain tracts, has a fatal way of growing crops of its own, if allowed to remain untilled and uncultivated. Inability to sing is not always due to a fundamental lack of power to sing. Following a sort of "House that Jack Built" method, we might say that lack of voice is due to a lack of response on the part of an unused member, due to lack of desire to sing, due to indifference of mind to the higher sentiments, due to cares and worries, worldliness, business absorption, etc., etc., *ad infinitum*. Most of the cases of unmusicalness and lack of vocal ability can be traced to spiritual and æsthetic indifference. Highly intellectualized habits, the modern mental approach to life in which the emotions are little concerned and involved, have a tendency to absorb the energies which go toward the more vital functioning of song. Is it to be wondered at if many of these sins of omission and commission reflect themselves upon the children ?

The delicate sense-adjustment of the child so easily becomes jangled and tuneless thru neglect. Again, as we know, with careful sympathetic treatment it may be made to vibrate continually sweeter and truer. In the case of the monotone and so-called unmusicalness, much can be done if we "catch the Scotchman young enough." The psychological subtleties of "Why people do not sing" have not yet been sufficiently revealed to suggest cure-alls for musical inefficiencies. Upon investigation, it must be confessed that ignorance and indifference seem more potent factors than either heredity or disease. The fact that with the monotone child the desire to sing is often stronger than in the case of the normal child shows that voice is more than a physical fact. The kindergartner has too often witnessed the miracle of the deaf being made to hear and the dumb to sing to question the efficacy of early musical influence to open the avenue of song to the child. The interesting process of scientifically "uncovering" voices is going on daily in the best vocal studios of the country. Here seemingly indifferent material is often converted into rare quality and power. What more interesting conditions can present themselves to the kindergartner than the vocal individualities of her little flock ? What a variety of coloring and contour is here found, as in complexion, faces, and hair ; as hoarse, suppressed, harsh, wheezy, gold and silver voices mingle together ! The careful study of their needs and limitations would inspire many happy experiments and a better adjustment of song and verse to the child.

While children understand melody almost instinctively, the word stands to them for the meaning of the thing and is the natural bridge to conscious knowledge. Froebel gives us valuable thoughts in connection with the early teaching of language and the use of the "word" as the

medium between the thought and the thing. The proper expression of the word thru sound and a pure vowel-quality would be a valuable aid in vocal development. The careless use of language in regard to vowel-quality, and later the perfunctory, hurried, and chattering use of words in common speech—the purely mental use of language on the part of the adult, with no regard to the expression side, involving no emotional element—results in a paucity of tone and individuality in the quality of the voice which must go a long way in limiting the vocal power. For this reason song as speech and speech as song should be thoroly interblended during the kindergarten period. Song should be musical conversations, largely of the active mode, first person, and present tense. These should naturally lead to musical good-mornings, and all kinds of simple phrases sung, bits of talk and song made up by the children themselves, and sung without the piano. From this the skillful teacher can lead up to difficulties of pitch and individual defects.

A careful study of relation of voice to pitch in the natural expression of idea must here be made by the teacher, in order to do intelligent work. A child thoroly sensitive to tone-discriminations and impressions naturally and logically takes the next step. This is the creative effort in making up tunes, which, in the yet unco-ordinated condition of education, the kindergartner is not always permitted to follow.

A little girl of my acquaintance, just stepping out of the kindergarten ranks, and proceeding according to the law of inner development, is busy picking out the tunes of the songs she has learned from the piano. "Peter, Peter" also gives her great satisfaction. One day she originated a new tune of her own, which was not "Peter, Peter," as she joyfully announced to her mother. "But," she anxiously inquired, "mamma, what does it say?" She had made her tune from the musical basis without words. The mother suggested that her song might be about one of the many things she knew about. She soon returned and brought these rather remarkable lines:

Hark! the bluebird now is singing,
And the apple tree is swinging.

It is needless to say that her mind was not a blank sheet of white paper to begin with, but here was clearly the transition from musical idea into tune, and from tune into words—the two happily wedded as song. We may fairly forecast that the formal and largely imitative use of songs will decrease as we learn to appreciate the creative opportunity given us here.

The soul of the child lives in motion as the mind of the adult does in thought. In rhythm, again, we are asserting the broader freedom. The old and more formal and technical plays are dividing honors with freer rhythmic expression, which represents the more impulsive and spontaneous activity of the child. Here the vital and physical energies come more into play, and in turn supply vigor and grasp to the thought-side of

the work. While the kindergartner is always in pursuit of the "thought," as can be testified by suffering relatives and friends, children in the kindergarten may suffer from passive thinking and enter the game not sufficiently awake or aroused to dramatic action. Thru simple rhythmic activities we can help lay the foundation-experience in feeling which will enrich the larger experience of the game. One teacher says: "I find in working out the incidental experiences more fully in free rhythmic play the children are better prepared for vital and spontaneous participation in the later dramatizations of the games. They think out their own activities better and more creatively, and show greater freedom and better control."

By working constructively, covering all with the spirit of genuine play, avoiding sensational music and dance forms, the new element of rhythm becomes a valuable adjunct of child-training.

In the kindergarten one is specially impressed with the discouragingly slow process of formal music-assimilation on the part of the children. It often takes weeks and months for a song seemingly childlike and suitable to reach the point of reproduction. We fail to remember that a song is a logical and sustained activity involving many co-ordinations—simultaneous control and functioning of body and mind. To express a song the entire organism must be poised and ready.

Little children often dream or are inspired to other activity than that of utterance while the song is in progress. Cannot the piano find its right use here, instead of usurping the place of independent song on the part of these children? Here we have been handicapped by the lack of organized material, taste, judgment, and the ability to play. The delight of the children in having their concrete experiences told in another kind of story by the piano, in harmony, tone, and rhythm—this alone will compensate any effort made in this direction. His *ear-mind* can appreciate and understand long before he is able to reproduce. A great step in the training of the teacher must be taken in order to do justice to this need.

In review, the child to whom everything "sings," from the rocking "whirr" of the passing street-car to the cracking of the flames in the fireplace, the mysteries of interpretation will never need to be especially explained.

Further, the child who has concretely experienced and represented, observed and appropriated, the life-qualities of the things about him will easily recognize their tonal and rhythmic meanings. Music becomes a language to him, another way of telling things, a means for the communication of ideas. From the simple and concrete we can easily pass to the higher and complex in music-culture, gradually leading the mind into the realms of art-appreciation and spiritual unfoldment.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1900

The Elementary Department of the National Educational Association was called to order at 3:30 P. M. in the First Presbyterian Church by the president, J. W. Dinsmore, Beatrice, Neb.

An organ recital by Miss Virginia Douglas and a vocal solo by Mrs. Charles Wilkie, ladies of Charleston, introduced the regular program of the department.

The first paper, "Nature Study in the Public Schools," was read by D. Lange, instructor in nature study in the public schools of St. Paul, Minn.

In the absence of Professor Parker, of South Carolina, the second topic, "Nature Study in the Primary Grades," was presented by Superintendent W. C. Warfield, of Kentucky, in a brief and informal discussion.

"The Geographical Phase of Nature Study" was treated by Dr. Jacques W. Redway, of Mount Vernon, N. Y.

The discussion was introduced by Henry R. Sanford, of Penn Yan, N. Y., and continued by Hon. G. R. Glenn, of Atlanta, Ga.

The Committee on Nomination of Officers was appointed as follows:

T. A. Mott, of Indiana,	W. C. Warfield, of Kentucky.
L. M. Landrum, of Georgia.	

This committee was instructed to report at the close of the succeeding session, and the department was adjourned to Friday afternoon at 3:30.

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13

The department met at 3:30 P. M., President Dinsmore in the chair.

Music by Mrs. Bell, of Charleston.

The first subject for the afternoon, "English in the Grades," was presented by Superintendent A. A. Reed, of Crete, Neb., who was followed in discussion by Mrs. Sara D. Jenkins, of Ithaca, N. Y. The discussion was continued by Superintendent J. W. Carr, of Indiana; Professor C. A. Graeser, of Charleston, S. C.; President John R. Kirk, of Missouri; Miss Thurston, of South Carolina; and J. J. Burns, of Ohio.

The second paper, "The Elimination of the Grammar School," was presented by Superintendent Otis Ashmore, of Savannah, Ga., and its discussion was introduced by President John R. Kirk, of Missouri.

Remarks were also made by Superintendents Landrum, of Georgia; Carr, of Indiana, and Raymond, of East Liverpool, O. The discussion was closed by Superintendent Ashmore.

The Committee on Nominations reported as follows:

For *President*—J. W. Carr, of Indiana.

For *Vice-President*—J. C. Harris, of Georgia.

For *Secretary*—Mrs. Sara D. Jenkins, of New York.

The report was approved, the persons named declared elected, and, on motion, at 6:30 P. M. the department adjourned.

BETTIE A. DUTTON,
Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

NATURE STUDY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

D. LANGE, SUPERVISOR OF NATURE STUDY IN CITY SCHOOLS, ST. PAUL, MINN.

In order to prevent any misunderstanding, it may be well to state that by nature study as used in this paper is understood the work in elementary science taught below the high school—in botany, zoölogy, physics, chemistry, and geology.

As we are dealing with a subject comparatively new in many of our rural and graded schools, it would not be wise to demand too much time for it; but at least two lessons a week of not less than half an hour each should be devoted to it; three lessons would be much better; and, if properly managed and connected with other branches, one lesson a day could be made most profitable.

I shall first briefly outline what material might be selected from the large amount available. In the first place let me say: Begin at home, begin with such objects and phenomena as attracted the child's attention before he came to school. The little child, manifesting a lively interest in bright flowers and birds, tells us to begin with conspicuous flowers and beautiful common birds. With these subjects a study of some common trees, shrubs, and vines, and a few house and garden plants, is easily connected. Then might follow a study of a few common and conspicuous insects, special attention being paid to those that are injurious to gardeners and farmers. A knowledge of a few of the most injurious weeds and common poisonous plants would about complete a chapter on hostile forms in nature.

We should not omit a simple study of the more important agricultural plants of our region, a glimpse of the forests and forest products, and of life in the water. At some convenient time, when outdoor work is not possible, we should remember our faithful servants—the domestic animals, whose toil and whose sacrificed lives have enabled mankind to occupy its lofty position.

Local geological and physiographical matter may be taught in connection with biology, or suitable months may be exclusively devoted to it. The latter plan is probably the better.

As far as my experience goes, whatever is to be taught of chemistry and physics must be taught in lessons set aside for these subjects; incidental work will accomplish nothing.

Is it not impossible to cover all these fields? The answer is that a careful—even a rigid—selection is necessary. In a small inland town of

the North, the trees, the denizens, and the products of the pine forest should receive special attention ; while children in a southern seaport have their interests attracted by other forms of life. The course for any particular school or schools must be planned in accordance with the time to be given to it, and teachers, superintendents, and supervisors must see that both shallowness and misapplied thoroness are avoided. It is by no means an easy thing to lay out a nature-study course in which local and general climatic and physiographical conditions have received due consideration ; a course which offers what is alike interesting, practical, and available, in plant and animal life ; a course in which the time to be used, and the training of the teachers, has received due consideration. Such a course cannot be struck off in an hour.

We shall now proceed to a brief discussion of the method to be followed. I believe it a good plan to co-ordinate nature study with geography as closely as practicable, but do not believe that it should be taught incidentally with geography. In smaller towns, and to some extent as well in large cities, the teacher can do much toward helping his pupils to form great nature pictures, if the subjects are selected at the different seasons by life-associations. Such topics as "Animal Life in the Woods," "The Woods in Early Spring," "Life in Our Pond," and many others, are rich in suggestions. In a large city this method encounters difficulties ; still such collective topics as "Our City Park in May," "Our Street Trees in Winter," can be studied even by children who have few opportunities for real field lessons.

And now we come at once to the difficult question of outdoor lessons. We must have them in one way or another. The happy country children can often be directed what to observe on their way to and from school ; city children who live where there are lawns and gardens, trees and birds, can be given similar directions ; but those children who live on city streets, where the pavement covers our mother earth, must be taken out where they can at least get a glimpse of nature ; and every class in any kind of school should be given a few class lessons in the fields or woods. The reason is simple : No child can have a correct picture of rivers and lakes, of swamps and woods, unless he has seen them. The study of trees confined to twigs, leaves, and fruit brought into the schoolroom will not teach the child how the oak, the elm, the cottonwood, the magnolia grow in woods and parks. The teacher must be familiar with the ground, and must know just what she wants to teach. A field lesson should not be simply a ramble. Teachers have often asked me : "What shall we do about these field lessons? Our patrons would object to them during school hours, and some object to them under all circumstances." If a teacher should always wait until the school patrons suggest an improvement, in some quarters of our country progress would not be rapid. Let every teacher be a leader, altho a discreet leader—by no means be a passive follower.

Next in importance to field lessons is suitable material. Twigs, flowers, fruits, and entire plants must be procured. Fresh specimens are preferable, but dried or alcoholic material may, and sometimes must, answer the purpose. Insects and other small creatures may be shown in bottles and jars, or specimens from a mounted collection may be used. In all cases the teacher should be sure that growing trees and shrubs are not mutilated. Twigs should be cut, not torn off, altho, I regret to state, ladies generally tear them off. Allow no creature, however humble, to be tormented by the pupils. This will surely happen unless children who do the collecting are properly cautioned.

I very much doubt the advisability of animal dissection below the high school. If it is undertaken at all, it should be under the direction of a well-equipped teacher. The demonstration of an important scientific fact may be indispensable to the working scientist and interesting to a mature person, but to the average child it might only be a repugnant post-mortem examination.

Graded and rural schools do not need a collection of birds and eggs. Study the birds outdoors and use good pictures, and let alone the birds you cannot reach by these methods. It is not our purpose to train ornithologists, and we certainly do not wish to imitate the cat that caught and killed a nightingale, and then with her claws tried to find the joyful song of spring in the dead bird's throat.

It need hardly be mentioned that nature study offers unlimited opportunities for the hand to draw what the eye has seen, and, as far as practicable, the pupils should also carefully write up in good, connected English the results of their experiments or observations. A large amount of statistics which the teacher is not able to control, and which the pupils cannot combine and interpret, is of doubtful value. We should, however, aim at definite results. Gushing sentimentalism or mere rambling talks will be as barren in results as undigested statistics. To avoid this, the teacher should always have a definite plan before her when the lesson begins.

A text-book for the class seems to me not necessary. The education of our children is too bookish now. If a text is used as an outline or a help, it may produce good results, but if the teacher simply assigns lessons from it, then it becomes a positive evil. Good books rightly used teach us how to use our own senses; they inspire and lead us closer to nature. With these few outline suggestions on matter and method, to which the time at our disposal limits us, we will proceed to discuss a little more fully the objects to be attained by this work.

Our people recognize the value of reading, writing, and arithmetic; but I could not truthfully say that all town trustees, nor even all city superintendents and principals, see the use of learning about such non-classical and unconsecrated things as frogs and weeds. Nevertheless, the

very question, "What is the good of it?" shows that our people take an interest in education, an interest which I hope they will always maintain.

The first reason why we should teach elementary science is a purely humanistic one. We should teach about flowers, butterflies, and birds because the child desires to know about them. Long before the boy is able to understand the complex relations of social and political institutions, and long before he cares anything about them, he is intensely interested in the life of birds, bees, and flowers; in the relations between boys, fish, and angle-worms. Teach him what he wants to know, then no cramming is needed; give him food his mind can digest, and on it his powers of observation, of combination, and of reasoning will grow as strong as his muscles do by the incessant training he gives them in all the various modes of warfare with his friends and enemies, and in his whole awe-inspiring activity which he displays as long as he is thoroly awake. If we grown people do not devote most of our time to things we care nothing about, why should not the child be allowed to devote some of his time to things he really wants to know? The accident that one child is born in America, another in Germany, and another in France fixes to a great extent the educational program of each one; that all three are born in civilized countries in the twentieth century also predetermines that they must undergo a systematic training during childhood, if they are to fight with success the battle of modern life. But whether our parents were Jews or gentiles, English or Boer, black or white, we were all born as human beings, as citizens of the world. But how few learn to know their great home! A large number never leave the dim closets of their birth; some take an occasional peep into the backyard. How few ever get a view from the great mountains and feel the breeze from the vast ocean of life and nature! All were born men, but few die as men. The one dies a grocer, the other a lawyer; the one a money-maker, the other a money-spender; a few die as office-holders, and many die as school-teachers.

Against the narrowing, blinding, specializing of modern life, what better remedy is there than an introduction into the great and universally true life of nature? That but few can travel great distances into this world without end is certainly no reason why not all should enter it.

Let us now briefly consider the æsthetic and moral aspects of nature study. A strong effort is now being made to cultivate the appreciation of the beautiful by means of pictures and other works of art. This is certainly to be commended, and will not be without beneficial results. The younger the child, the more emphatically he demands colors; but good colored pictures are too expensive for most homes, and certainly for most school boards. Happily for the majority of children in the land, wild flowers cost nothing, and orioles and tanagers exhibit without the small boy's great drawback to all shows—the admission ticket. To a

certain extent all art is an imitation and symbolization of nature. Should we not, therefore, first lead the child to appreciate the beautiful in nature? Have you not found that the child more easily understands a difficult sentence than the symbol of its diagram? No painted flowers will cause a child to run and rapture like a knoll of wild flowers with nature's own setting and on nature's own background. From the beautiful in nature the acting, the dramatic element, is never entirely absent. Living bees and butterflies, real thorns and prickles, running brooks, real sunshine and wind, make up the "each and all" of the wild flowers, which no master can fix on the canvas. Then think of all the things the child can do with the real leaves, twigs, flowers, and especially with the beautiful fruits. Birds, fishes, insects, and all animals always attract the boy. Some are beautiful, others cunning; some are brave, others elusive. They are always, like himself, doing something or about to do something, and he is interested. How different is all this in a picture! If it is not colored or does not suggest some vigorous action, the child really cares little for it. He must not handle it, not even touch it. The laudable instinct to touch and to handle never dies out; in this we all remain boys and girls. It is on account of this instinct that you have your canes and umbrellas checked before you enter a picture gallery, and after you have entered an iron railing keeps you a little more than arm's length from the objects you may study by the sense of sight only. Many works of art are interesting to adults on account of what they suggest to us. For this reason we should make the child's life rich by contact with nature, with human life and history. A certain maturity of mind is a prerequisite for a true appreciation of most works of art.

Now, turning our attention for a moment from painting and sculpture to literature, think of the works of Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Thoreau, Burroughs, and other well-known American writers and poets. Can you imagine these men to have spent their best years, and especially their boyhood, in the stifling gloom, in the noise and crowds, of a large city? Do you believe that Dickens could have written *Evangeline* and *Hia-watha*? Nature, which inspired all the great poets of all nations, certainly deserves a place in our schools and in the lives of our children. Let the children ramble in the woods, let them pick flowers, but teach them that it is a kind of hoggishness to take all in sight, and then crowd a hundred flowers into a small vase, and do violence to nature and æsthetics. Let us teach them that a few plants showing their leaves and flowers are more beautiful than a vulgar bunch, and let us not omit that the flowers are most beautiful where they grow. A similar rule we must follow about the birds. We want more birds to sing to us from trees and fields; we do not want more in neglected collections. Every teacher who countenances the bird- and egg-collecting mania among boys is not doing his duty. Nor is a teacher doing his duty if he looks

on passively at the work of the Audubon societies and similar organizations. A true teacher is not satisfied to be moved with the world; he takes a hold and helps to move it.

Let me now turn to the moral and ethical aspect of our subject. How much have we not heard about kindness to animals and man; how many protests have been uttered against the reckless waste of our forests! To reform a people we must train the young into an intelligent sympathy with bird and beast, and with trees and flowers. A person cares little or nothing for entire strangers. As long as birds, beasts, and plants are entire strangers to the children, the boys will keep on killing birds and robbing their nests. But once teach a boy to know the birds, and show him that tormenting any dumb creature is as cowardly and mean as if a big boy abuses a little boy, and the boys will become more effective bird protectors than laws, game wardens, and humane societies. Teaching is effective; mere preaching is often repugnant. It is probably useless to preach against fashion, but I think that very few women would wear songbird corpses on hats against the protests of their own children. As teachers of science let us not forget that man, beasts, birds, and plants have all one Father, that one God created them all. Man is not the only being that has a right to live. He may use all lower forms of life, but as a civilized man, and as a Christian, he may not abuse them. If all women appreciated that by wearing dead birds on hats they had caused thousands of young birds to starve, I believe that most of them would be willing to forego a low pleasure for the higher pleasure of seeing and hearing our harmless birds in fields and woods and at lake and seaside. These objections do not apply to domestic birds and to game birds killed in season, but they do apply to all other birds, and to foreign birds as well as to American birds. Lack of time forbids me to go farther into this subject, but let every teacher read the magazine *Bird Lore*, and if she is not interested, she will become interested.

Leaving now the moral aspect of nature study, let us see how we can answer from the materialistic point of view that oft-repeated question: What is the use of it? We live in an age of applied sciences; in commerce and manufacture, in agriculture and horticulture, in forestry and mining, in peace and in war, the principles of all branches of science receive practical application. The man who knows a little about insect life can in most instances largely control any insect pest that may threaten to destroy his flowers, shade trees, or crops. What a certificate of ignorance that man gives himself who indiscriminately nails to his barn door every hawk and owl he can shoot! I know farmers who could have saved themselves years of labor if they had known the dangerous character of certain weeds and insects. A few years ago one of our American blessings, in the disguise of the potato bug, appeared in Germany. The German government, backed by an intelligent public opinion,

promptly exterminated the pest. It would be ridiculous to claim that by teaching about weeds and injurious insects we could exterminate these nuisances. We can, however, do our share—and it is a large share—in creating an intelligent public opinion, and thus aid the efforts of the United States Department of Agriculture, the state agricultural stations, the public press, and wise legislation; for everybody knows that in a republic any law not supported by a fairly strong public opinion is a dangerous dead letter.

Last Christmas one of my Minnesota friends closed her house and went away on a visit. When she returned, the tank of the kitchen-range had burst and contained a cylinder of ice. She had turned off the water and thought that thus she had emptied the tank. If her twelve-year-old girl had learned a little “household physics,” the family would have escaped a very considerable plumber’s bill.

What we desire to accomplish is to cause the growing generation to observe and to think. If that could have been done in former years, our forests would not now be almost ruined by fires and wasteful methods of lumbering, for it is largely the class of people who do not observe and do not think that are responsible for thousands of square miles of burned, ruined forests, while we pay \$6 for a cord of wood and \$30 for a thousand feet of lumber. Just as our forests have been wasted, our game has been thoughtlessly slaughtered. The value of game to our country does not so much consist in its money value on the market as in the recreation and health-giving exercise it furnishes to our people. Fishing with bait and hook and hunting with gun and rifle may not be the highest form of recreation; still none but a vegetarian can condemn it as morally wrong. If it is right to take animal life for the need of our stomachs, it cannot be wrong to take it for the benefit of bodily health and mental vigor, as long as the hunter contents himself with a reasonable bag and does not make a game-hog of himself. If hunting with a gun is repugnant to you, hunt with a camera, which will give you as much health, and may furnish you much more exercise. Advocating and furthering reasonable forest and game protection is the duty of all science teachers. When we learn from a report carefully compiled by Mr. W. T. Hornaday that in Florida, to cite only one instance, birds in general have decreased 75 per cent. within the last fifteen years, and, as everybody knows, that the noble buffalo, which fifty years ago roamed the plains in herds aggregating to millions of animals, is now practically extinct, we must admit the necessity of a general awakening on this problem. The League of American Sportsmen, and other associations, have accomplished much in this direction during the last few years; but how few teachers have done their duty! Take a hand in the battle—don’t ride behind on the baggage wagon—must again be our motto.

In closing, allow me to add a few words on the purely scientific and

moral aspects of our subject. There is one great question humanity has been asking ever since a ray of the infinite light began to shine upon the speck of dust we call man. The heathen Pilate asked it of Him who came to bring light and mercy into the world: "What is truth?" The humblest slaves and the kings of intellect have ever asked the same question. At first it was asked timidly, then boldly; now the whole race repeats it. On this side of the great unknown the whole, infinite truth will never be revealed. But, where in former ages slaves and savages quaked in fear and superstition, great nations now strive hopefully, fearlessly, onward and upward. What is the value of science? Like a beneficent goddess she has begun to emancipate humanity from barbarism, from the slavery of toil, from fear and superstition. To search for truth without prejudice, to accept it with sincerity, to act upon it with the force of conviction—that is the great moral lesson science is teaching mankind.

NATURE STUDY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—THE GEOGRAPHICAL PHASE

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In the times that are now happily becoming a thing of the past, the factor next in importance to the president of the board, the superintendent, and the course of study was the teacher. As an individual in the community he was a creation upon whom all the miseries of life were to be unloaded; as a professional worker, however, his chief value lay in his having a method, and in his ability to "present" the various things, real and fanciful, popularly called education.

Somewhere or other in the system the child had a place—at least in theory; the place was a secondary matter, however, and the chief use of the child was to be a necessary evil upon whom psychological and pedagogical presentation was to be practiced. As a rule, the child was a passive entity—a sort of receptacle into whom an abnormal amount of graded and sometimes useful misinformation was to be ingested. Outside of the practice work in writing lineal miles of equations and reducing fractions to uncommon denominators, or an occasional composition on "Socrates," "The Beauties of Poesy," or "The Is-ness of the Was," there was but little chance for the child to cultivate his activities; indeed, beyond the fact that the child had an ever-present desire to be mixed up in some cussedness or other, there was a sort of lurking belief that he had no activities.

Even in the study of the sciences the activity of the pupil did not go beyond seeing what the instructor or professor did. In botany it was the instructor, and not the student, who pulled the flower to pieces; or if, perchance, it was to be determined whether a leaf was lanceolate,

oblanceolate, or sagittate, it was quite as likely studied from a picture and not a leaf. In mineralogy the student was generally required to memorize the chemical formulas of minerals; he must know that quartz was SiO_2 , but to ask him to pick out a piece of quartz from a number of minerals having vitreous luster was scarcely less than an imposition. His knowledge of chemistry was achieved, in many instances, without even a shadow of contact with the elements most concerned. Knowing the symbols of the elements, and having a glibness in the manner of expressing H_2SO_4 or $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, was considered evidence of proficiency; if he could write the reaction by which grape sugar breaks up into alcohol and carbon dioxide, he was considered an expert. Experiments, as a rule, were considered unnecessary, and were performed by the teacher and not the pupil.

In zoölogy the instruction was even more meager; the student memorized the classification, and probably remembered that animals were divided into birds, insects, beasts, and fishes. The idea of a biological basis in the study of zoölogy and botany was considered preposterous. In geology the chief end was to memorize the order of strata, and learn the names of a certain number of fossils. The trilobite was always in evidence, and sometimes the class got as far as megathereia and amphipleuræ pelucidæ. A limited amount of dynamic geology was permitted, but woe be to the teacher or professor who should advance the idea that the world was one minute older than six thousand years! In geography the conditions seemed even more hopeless. Physical geography was looked upon as a useless luxury, and in not a few instances it was put under the same ban that shut geology out from so many schools. Physiographic geography was considered especially vicious, from the fact that it was supposed to be in league with evolution. The general science of geography consisted of mathematical and political geography. In mathematical geography the pupils were expected to learn the exact inclination of the earth's axis, and also the names and position of the polar and tropical circles. It was also an unwritten rule that these circles were to be learned as the boundaries of the zones of climate, which is absolutely untrue. Political geography was the great stand-by, however, and the knowledge of it consisted almost wholly of memorized statistics — capes, peninsulas, bays, capitals, and boundaries; and until recently the sum and substance of geography has been locked up in this sort of knowledge.

Now, in the course of time, the science teachers of the secondary schools and of not a few colleges were drawn from the young men whose preparation for their work covered just about the ground noted in the preceding paragraphs, and the surprising thing about it is the fact that they knew their subjects pretty thoroly so far as theory is concerned. Their pupils likewise were well enough stuffed with information to pass the entrance examination into the university.

But when the student of the university had reached the place where he was compelled to get his information from sources other than books, or his teacher's stock in trade, he found himself at a dead standstill. As a result, he had the choice either of failure or of the extra work required to cultivate a faculty that hitherto had been dormant—that of observation.

In the many discussions that were brought about by this state of affairs there was one thing that the university professor never failed to demand, namely, that the observational powers of the pupil should be cultivated as well as the memory faculty; indeed, this is one of the few reforms in education that have come from the university and not from the primary educator. Thus it has come to be generally recognized that the knowledge the child gets by discovery is worth far more than that which he obtains by word of mouth. And so also the demand for observational work which started within the walls of the university reached downward, step by step, until it became a fundamental principle even of the lowest primary work.

Nature study, therefore, has come to be an established feature in almost all schools; and granting that in the hands of the novices at teaching some wasteful, injudicious, and even ridiculous work has been done, the results have been distinctively good. It has been good for the child, because it has given him self-power to discover and acquire knowledge; it has been good for the teacher by giving self-knowledge instead of a second-hand acquaintance with the subject-matter taught. There is a wonderful difference between the knowledge of contact and that which comes from reading about a thing; it is as solid gold compared with paper tinsel.

It has come to be an established fact also that pretty nearly all the departments of knowledge classed as natural sciences have a geographic basis, and therefore may be called differentiated geography. Animals and plants depend for their existence on conditions of environment that are distinctly geographic. Indeed, it would not be a very great breach of truth to say that a camel is a camel because of the desert; a fish, a fish because of the water; a bird, a bird because of the air; there could not even be a duck if there were no impounded water. All life requires food; indeed, nutrition is the physical basis of life, and nutrition comes from the earth. Therefore, in studying life-forms we are studying things that are essential to the life of mankind; and we cannot study them logically without making geographic environment the basis of research.

The study of rocks, including that of minerals, is also closely connected with the work of geography in the grades. Excepting the specialists along certain lines of scientific work, there are but few men and women who require a good working knowledge of more than thirty mineral species and ten kinds of rock. Most of these enter, one way or another, into the affairs of life, and nearly all can be recognized by their physical

properties. With perhaps a dozen exceptions, their blowpipe and humid reactions are so simple that the determinations may be made with certainty by pupils in the grammar-school grades.

In the ordinary work of geography there is a wide field for some very practical nature study. In nearly all schools the first three years of geography study is observation; and this, when intelligently planned and carried out, is nature study pure and simple. Both vertical and horizontal outlines must be made familiar, and these are best learned as one sees them in nature. There are but few localities in which most of them cannot be studied, either in miniature or in fact. In many instances they are very conveniently studied from pictures; and, as a rule, they are better studied from good photographs and half-tones than from ordinary models.¹

It is well also to bear in mind the fact that one example of a form is rarely sufficient. Mountains, islands, hills, peninsulas, and isthmuses take such diverse forms that in some instances half a dozen or more must be studied before the pupil discovers the salient feature. Thus the terms "hill" and "mountain" have each varied applications. The hill may be either a cliff, a grade, or a knoll; the mountain, a peak, a short range, a small plateau, or a cliff that has a high and abrupt escarpment.

Having learned something about topographic forms, manifestly the logical plan is to study the physiographic processes by which they are shaped. Here, too, observational work becomes of the highest value. One may possibly get fairly correct ideas of topographic forms by dint of verbal description, but the latter gives one very feeble and unsatisfactory ideas of earth-sculpture. And yet many of the fundamental principles of earth-sculpture may be observed in a rainstorm. The child who discovers that water in motion makes gullies and carries rock-waste has got at the foundation of geography.

The study of physiographic processes is the key to topographic forms, but what is the ulterior explanation of these? And the answer is, climate. In other words, the climatic control of land-forms brings us a step nearer to the ultimate principles of geography. Even this—or, at least, much of it—is within the scope of the grades. The effects of heat and cold upon the growth and development of life-forms are not difficult to understand; and when the observation is directed, the child will pick up almost unconsciously a great deal of useful knowledge. The effects of moisture impress themselves to even a greater degree; for moisture is not only necessary to life, but the condensation of atmospheric moisture is the cause of erosion and corrasion, the two processes that are so intimately connected with physiography. The drying of pools of water or of muddy roads shows the fundamental principles of evaporation. The momentary cloud that forms from the breath on a cold day illustrates

¹ Models that are topographically good and at the same time artistic are hard to obtain, and almost always expensive.

the formation of clouds, and the gathering of moisture on the inner surface of a window-pane illustrates the principle of condensation. It is necessary to go only a step farther in order to understand that upon the conditions of heat and moisture the distribution of life depends.

Doubtless all the things noted in the foregoing paragraphs form a part of the course in geography in many schools, and probably all the points mentioned have a place in the work of some schools. The only question is: Can nature study be made more practical and yield a greater worth? This, I am inclined to think, may be answered in the affirmative.

Let us take the study of animals and plants as an example. The pupil of the primary grades observes the germination of seeds: why not extend the work, taking systematically some of the principles of biology in the succeeding grades? If this were done, there would be no need of the course in biology in the high school, because the work would have been already accomplished. The pupil who stopped his school work at the threshold of the high school would have received the needed training of his faculties of observation; the pupil who entered the high school would be ready for advanced work; the university student would not be compelled to waste a year of time in learning how to see.

A still more practical side would be a wider knowledge of the species of animals and plants living within the pupil's vicinity; and to the boy or the girl brought up on a farm this knowledge would be a most valuable capital. A knowledge of the minerals of economic value would be a still greater working capital. The farmer who adds to a practical information of these things a knowledge of the demands of the markets may defy the trust octopus, the corporation dragon, or the devil.

In the study of physiographic geography there are abundant opportunities for doing much of the work by laboratory and field methods that is now attempted by didactic methods—or else not done at all. Now, were natural study systematically planned thruout the grades, physical geography might be finished in the latter half of the eighth year, and a course in economic or commercial geography put into the first year of the high school. The observation work in physiography can be made a most practical introduction to elementary geology, and the course in the latter then could be restricted to half a semester in one of the last years of the high school, or, better even, transferred to the university.

A still more practical result may be obtained by systematizing the weather observations, which now, a few localities excepted, are desultory; that is, they lead to no tangible results. In the sixth and seventh years the observations of clouds, wind direction, rain, etc., might be systematically recorded, and in the eighth year the study of weather-maps and the making of weather predictions could be practiced. That this kind of work is not too difficult for eighth-year and high-school pupils is

evident from the fact that it is now done in many schools, and the predictions are verified to a high degree of accuracy.

The direct results of nature study, when planned and carried out with a modicum of common-sense, are twofold. In the first place, it supplies a sort of knowledge which the pupil needs and can use in his experience with the world; in the second, it stimulates all the faculties of observation and perception, making him stronger and more self-reliant; and this, I believe, is its greatest value. It has been a stimulus not only to the child, but to the teacher as well; and it is even now giving the instructor in every department from the kindergarten to the university a broader and more accurate knowledge of the world and the things in it. Grant that it sometimes leaves one in doubt concerning the exact truth; if so, so much the better. Absolute knowledge does not come in cut-and-dried chunks; and to learn this is the beginning of wisdom. In other words, the science teaching of the past decade is becoming the scientific teaching of the present.

The president of this department has kindly suggested the subject of this preachment in the form in which it appears in the program; and there is a pleasant, scholarly ring about it that I like. Were I to follow my own feelings in the matter, however, I should have put it in a homelier but more expressive form, and written as my text: "Give the kid a chance."

ENGLISH IN THE GRADES

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Instruction in English will be discussed under three divisions: technical, constructive, and interpretative. Technical English considers all phases of grammatical and rhetorical accuracy of language. Constructive English has to do with the ability to use language effectively for accomplishing a given purpose. Interpretative English concerns the realization of the power of language. Technical English is but an incident to the other divisions, and for the most part should have incidental treatment. This will include all necessary facts of form and construction, presented as they occur organically in the use of language. The way to make an awkward, self-conscious child is to teach it "manners" constantly. The way to produce a wooden writer is to dwell continually on the errors of form. The child living in an atmosphere of culture moves with natural grace and dignity. So the youth who has studied under conditions favorable for correct, natural, effective language speaks and writes with correctness and power. Pupils in primary grades who have been accustomed to use language under normal conditions, with incidental consideration of form, have put to shame college graduates of the tread-mill school. The mere avoidance of error is not a virtue, either ethically or intellectually,

yet it is a consideration to be desired. Even this can be secured in a form to be permanent when acquired thru activity under a degree of energization. But we are told that forms and principles must be drilled upon until they are memorized—that old pedagogical error that iteration is of prime importance in memorizing. One experience is as potent as a thousand, if the soul has entered it. The teacher is concerned with realization, not iteration. This principle has produced valuable results in English, not only when applied to elementary schools, but also in schools of college and university grade. In one institution a class of seventy sophomores, as degenerate victims of misapplied efforts in English as a system could hope to produce, was changed in twelve weeks to a class with ideal form by disregarding technique and devoting all the attention to securing favorable conditions for energized modes and better matter.

The limits of the time and the extent of the subject compel me to consider mainly constructive English, the phase which, if placed upon a proper basis, would remedy most of the evils incident to the other divisions.

The difficulties in teaching constructive English are (1) to arouse interest in the subject and (2) to prevent the methods of the class-room from rendering the pupils intellectually defective. Three causes are plainly in evidence: (1) The so-called "language work" is too simple and is stultifying to the self-respect of the child. Pupils are still set to filling blanks of the type, "Fishes—in the water," an exercise that seldom requires mental energy or arouses enthusiasm. They are required to group words in sentences having no organic relation. They are encouraged to write things that no one but an imbecile would be guilty of saying, in the belief that such a process has some relation to "language-training." (2) Compositions are approached at long intervals in a formal manner, with fear and trembling on the part of both pupil and teacher, changing what should be a source of mutual pleasure to a cause of annoyance. The preparation generally makes the child artificial and self-conscious rather than natural and free in expressing self. To the teacher the period for writing should be an opportunity for breaking away from much of the formality that deadens the work of the school, and of dealing with the realities of life. To the pupil it should be an opportunity for exercising a God-given power of realizing self in an attempt at interpreting its own ideals. (3) Technical grammar is made the medium for instruction in language. The only master who requires his apprentice to learn the names and classification of the tools he is about to use is the schoolmaster. Such a blunder would be impossible in a carpenter-shop. The carpenter's apprentice does learn the names and uses, and effectively, for he learns them incidentally as he has occasion to use them. Thus they enter into his consciousness in their logical relation, and, reaching the understanding, are beyond the possibility of being forgotten. Children should acquire the correct use of language by using it correctly and organically. Knowing the terminology of the

science gives no power in the art. It is as absurd to hope to arouse an interest in language by teaching the analysis and classification of its elements as it is to attempt to cause a love for nature by teaching the analysis and classification of plants. Let the child revel in the beauties of language as it will in the beauties of nature, if turned loose in that direction, using classification as it can be made to summarize and broaden the later stages of the study.

The first essential for securing good language work is to obtain conditions favorable for awakening interest on the part of the pupil. Adults can do fairly good work from voluntary attention, but unless the child is energized to such an extent that it really wants to do a task, the result must be mainly a failure. This is as true physically as mentally. A little child will hop, skip, and jump for hours with evident pleasure. Let it be required of him three minutes, and he is in a state bordering on physical exhaustion. The most stolid person will talk effectively when the occasion demands it. He may be lacking in elegance, but never in power. So the boy or girl who can be brought to the right mental attitude will do strong, effective work in English. It is entirely our fault that the boy who can most effectively set forth a position or maintain an argument on the playground becomes entirely wooden when called upon to write in the class-room. Close observers realize that the fool of the schoolroom is often the leader in affairs outside. Such pupils would be leaders in schools where normal methods prevail. It is among just this class that the greatest improvement is found as a result of methods in English that are based upon the known operations of the mind, and that connect the work with humanity and the pupil's environment.

As an aid in presenting constructive English watch the effort at description by a boy under intense excitement from the influence of the object described. He seizes hold of the strong element that has taken possession of him, and sets it forth clearly, so as to cause you to see the whole picture thru the activity of the imagination. Instead of assisting the boy to use the mode which instinct prompts, we allow him to believe that writing is a strange process, widely different from those which he ordinarily uses. We permit, and even cause, him to give such descriptions as the following :

THE TEACHER'S DESK

This is the teacher's desk. It stands upon a platform six inches higher than the floor. It has four legs, one at each corner. The legs are cylindrical in form, tapering somewhat near the bottom. The desk has a lid which is attached by hinges and can be raised and lowered by hand. On the desk are some books and an ink bottle with a pen in it. I think it is a very nice desk.

There are two causes that produce such an absurdity. Often the subject offers nothing worthy of description. Where the subject is reasonable, there is failure because the pupils are not shown that a multiplicity of details causes cloud rather than clearness. In the case above

there was nothing to require description. That is a fault of a large percentage of assignments. No normal boy would have made that error orally, or at least not among his classmates. Should he do so once he would be proof against repeating the blunder. Children do not say, or permit to be said, things that are stultifying. Yet teachers encourage this in writing; just so pupils show power to spell, write, and string words together into sentences. While the process may secure some technical accuracy, it is under abnormal conditions, resulting in spiritual deformity of serious and far-reaching significance. Better that the child violate every rule of construction and feel and say something that causes the spiritual thermometer to register a rise, than to produce the most polished platitude so characteristic of the school compositions of the age. If the production contains life, it may become organic; but if it be dead already, it can be but carrion. Had there been anything to describe about that desk, it would have been because the quality was individualizing. Generic ideas already in consciousness need no description. The qualities mentioned are not characteristic, and so add nothing not already in consciousness at the mere naming of the object. Had such a quality existed, its presentation would have kindled the imagination and caused it to supply the details common to desks of this class, thus causing clear visualization.

Children are capable of using and appreciating in kind most of the elements of writing used by adults, the difference being mainly in the degree. Moreover, the child is even more responsive to an appeal to the imagination than is the adult—a truth overlooked by many writers and compilers who have tried to “write down” to the capacity of the child-mind. Visualization, the highest type of description, can be used in all grades, with such variation in presentation as the age of the pupil may require. Most of what passes as description is mere identification, or at most an enumeration of characteristics. Before there can be good saying there must be good seeing. So the vital consideration is to cultivate clear seeing—seeing that will cause the discrimination of type-qualities. We are prone to see generically. We can cultivate seeing specifically. Generally one quality can be found that will cause the imagination to move in the direction intended. It is power in the discrimination of this quality that should be cultivated in the instruction in description.

After visualization has been presented constructively, it should be used analytically in connection with reading and the study of literature. Pupils readily add it to their elements of criticism and enjoyment. They should be sent to the library to find the element as used by standard writers. Classes with but slight preparation have obtained high pleasure from the writings of F. Hopkinson Smith, James Lane Allen, Mary E. Wilkins, and kindred writers who have been so successful in description. Each description is made to pass a careful examination. No writer,

however great his name, will mislead the pupils by beautiful combinations of words that give no mental product. No skillful, clear-cut delineation will escape appreciation. The enthusiasm resulting is of the highest educational value.

If the same boy who, when in the right mood, gave an effective description were asked a question touching the sort of a person some friend is, he would probably answer first in a trite term indicative of degree of feeling. If still pressed, he would probably proceed to tell something that that person had done, leaving you to infer the type-meaning intended. If you cause the boy to see that the latter is what you want when you call for written themes of character, you have secured favorable conditions for writing. When he has a potential idea which he wishes to develop, it is hard to keep him from writing.

Common people when talking characterize concretely. Great writers do the same thing. Mediocre writers and pupils generally feel called upon to do a strange and wonderful thing, and wander from a process simple and satisfactory, in harmony with life, to a strange process, unsatisfactory in all its relations. The teacher has but to assist the pupils in using consciously a process they are actually using a score of times daily. Parents, teachers, merchants, classmates are all being weighed in the balance daily. The babe in its mother's arms springs to one stranger and shrinks from another. The man of affairs intrusts his fortune to one and another. Both are using the same process. Both depend upon the emotional inference.

There are emotional inferences of mood rather than character. All read them readily in life. Every schoolboy knows when not to take liberties with even the most long-suffering teacher. Trust the boy who wants a boon not to err in the times and seasons for approaching a parent. Since children use these so readily in life, it is easy to secure their use in writing. Ask to be shown by what is said or done that a person is happy, angry, surprised, or in such other mood as the age of the pupil and the condition of the class may suggest. There will be no lack of material presented. The pupils will be energized by the very consciousness of moving upon safe ground in dealing with a reality, and the result will be organic. Generally the emotional element in the experience recalled will assist in securing favorable conditions.

The theme of stories, poems, and pictures should be made the basis of language lessons. In this work the theme must not be thought of as necessitating monograph treatment, or as much matter as would fill a chapter of several paragraphs. A theme may, like the first sums in arithmetic, consist of very low units, as low as a single sentence or even a clause. "A rolling stone gathers no moss," may be the theme of low denomination that may serve as the basis for a poem or a book of high denomination treatment, just as a fraction may be changed to any higher

denomination without change of value. Every complete work of art will have a major theme, or final meaning, and it is of the highest educational value to cause the pupils to determine and express this meaning. Many excellent writers have insisted upon adding this meaning in a modified form of "*Haec fabula docet.*" The child has a right to interpret the meaning for himself. If the author limits this interpretation by suggesting one of his own, the teacher, in the interest of independent spiritual growth, should remove this part, presenting it for comparison after the child has exercised its own individuality.

In this age of Perry pictures and other inexpensive reproductions of the world's masterpieces of art, a wonderful opportunity is presented for improving the character of language work thru picture studies. The final value of these studies, however, will depend upon the purpose in view. Too many are making them merely the basis for teaching observation, and that not of a discriminating kind. A great picture does not come into existence to delineate objects. It is an interpretation or revelation of some type of ultimate truth or beauty, and exists for the theme-meaning contained. Whatever else may be written about a picture, the interpretation of this theme should be a chief consideration. A study of Landseer's "The Highland Shepherd's Chief Mourner" would fail of its true purpose, however accurately it described the objects in the room, unless from the relation of the objects in that chamber of death and from the agonized position of the faithful dog it made you feel how lonesome had been that life now departed and how strong was that almost human affection that outlasts the tomb.

A plan of constructive and interpretative studies, of which this paper suggests a few features, has been used for several years in schools of all grades, and its value has been clearly established. It has resulted in producing excellent work both in form and in matter from a remarkably large percentage of the whole classes engaged. Not only have dull students come to do better work in English, but they have been energized in all their work. It has resulted in magnifying the importance of quality and minimizing the importance of quantity. It has caused pupils to write because they wanted to say something, and so they have written succinctly and effectively. It has caused them to refrain from writing when they had nothing to say—a virtue of no less moment. It has connected literature with life, and has helped pupils to approach it thru the natural road of experience, thus causing appreciation. Ethically it has caused children and adults to be more responsive to deeper and higher ideals, and to realize the influence of their own thoughts and acts upon their characters and lives. It is the natural basis for moral training—a basis that does not require moralizing, but does demand right thinking, right feeling, and right living. It has produced results intellectually and ethically of so positive a nature as to demand a careful consideration at the hands of all who are earnestly seeking to improve the educational methods of the age.

DISCUSSION

MRS. SARA D. JENKINS, Ithaca, N. Y.—English possesses a large body of subject-matter, thru the study of which, or not at all, the child must become a good English scholar. Correct usage is the only law of language, but usage in this subject should be as pure as the laws of mathematics are inflexible. To lead the child to know and to love music, painting, and sculpture, works of the great masters are placed before him at the earliest possible age. Shall we delay for the first twelve years of the child's life the informing and uplifting influence of the masters of the mother-tongue?

The English of the people is dependent upon the English of the grades, and this, in turn, depends upon teachers whose ideal of instruction in the subject is "to furnish a tool useful in subsequent education." For generations the tool-conception of English has prevailed, and to its use there has been trained a sorry set of mechanics. It is a lamentable fact that the majority of American citizens born in this country and trained in the public schools cannot speak their own language correctly, few speak it fluently and accurately, and only the exceptions speak it with ease and elegance. All subjects are protected because specialties are still further guarded by skilled supervision; but the mother-tongue, exposed to foes without and within, deflected, degraded, corroded by every atmosphere, is left defenseless, without standard or leader. The result is, the ability to write faultless English is regarded as a gift of God; and the ability to speak it uprightly is a lost art. Low aim, false standards, and mistaken purpose have done their work. By present methods, in the hands of incompetent teachers, valuable time is wasted, wrong forms of expression become confirmed, and there is destroyed the true feeling for literature that comes only from early association with great authors in prose and verse.

Mastery of the English language is an unequaled accomplishment, whose foundation should be laid in the cradle, and whose superstructure must be reared by teachers of culture. If the people are to be trained to speak accurately, to write creditably, and to read with profit and delight, it must be during the first five, or at most six, years of school life, and by drinking, not from broken cisterns, but from wells of English undefiled. The child whose habits of speech are not formed and in whom literary tendencies are not awakened before the high-school age is at a disadvantage for life. The days of English in the high school are few and evil—made evil by wrong aim in the eight sub-academic years; "Achilles absent is Achilles still." Where Latin or Greek has been well taught, as language and literature, eight years turn out in the average pupil what is considered a good Latin or a good Greek scholar. Can this be said of English?

The child enters school at an early age possessed of a large speaking vocabulary; he has understood by hearing for years, and he now begins what we are pleased to call the study of language. In the eight years of English instruction what is done? What degree of perfection is attained? Just what might be expected from mistaken aim and home-made method. Children are permitted to create, capitalize, punctuate, and by other means to stamp indelibly upon consciousness detached elements of English composition, of which the following are selected specimens:

"A man stroking a big dog with a great sore on him was saying: 'Poor doggie, you have to suffer.'" "A tall, slim girl with large teeth is carrying a basket." "A man with red whiskers goes to church."

The mind grows by what it feeds upon. From childhood Milton read only the choicest literature of all schools, and before he had reached manhood his name was immortal. *Comus*, *Lycidas*, *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, and "The Hymn to the Nativity" bear testimony to long and patient study of the classics with which the boy is said to have been familiar before the age of twelve years.

In English, as in no other subject, it is true that whatever of method, of intelligence of insight lies in the man will lie written in his work. In order to

"Kindle in the human clod
Thoughts of destiny and God,"

the teacher of the grades, from lowest to highest, must see the wealth and know the worth of the English tongue; must know where to look for sources of inspiration. If the highest purpose of verse and prose in the schoolroom is, while giving skillful use of tools, to lead the human soul to assume new attitudes toward truth, we must not for eight long years dwell with parts of speech and the semicolon. There must flow from the teacher a power of direction and inspiration which no text-book can contain or suggest. English is not a question of mechanics. It is a question of subject-matter—of mechanics thru subject-matter. By *Thanatopsis* Bryant at seventeen astonished the Old World poets, but Bryant had escaped the language lesson. With his father he had for friends the great of all ages. Shakespeare became a playwright by mending old plays. Hawthorne became master of the paragraph thru loving study of classic writers.

Gifted teachers have lifted their pupils to pure expressions of lofty thought, even to noble life and action; but this they have done thru knowledge of the subject, thru scholarship, and thru personal superiority. Their triumph owes nothing to stereotyped method or to weak text. They have learned that the letter kills, that upon the English plant there must be distilled the dew of the spirit. Instead of training to dull, meaningless repetition of empty forms, to making sentences for the sake of the sentence, teacher and child have together gone where poets have strung the lyre with heart-strings, where life-blood has been poured on the altar of thought, that a flame might be kindled to illumine all that is dark and to warm to newness of life.

The sources are infinite, and the vision of the child is unconditioned. From the day of Homer and David to our own, all great writers have left something for the children's hour, and the successful teacher must thru it secure correct English. Orpheus, seeking the soul he loved, feared neither death nor Hades. No degrading sound, no dread form, could lure him from singing to the gods. Then let no deluding device, no misleading method, draw us from the delightful task of leading little ones to love real literature, to absorb poetic form and spiritual truth, to rise to nobler utterance and to purer life.

SUPERINTENDENT J. W. CARR, Anderson, Ind., following Mrs. Jenkins' discussion, commended the paper because of its constructiveness, and believed that the schools will find the way for effective work along these lines. He believed that much can be done thru the homes of the children, and this as a result of the increase of higher education among women. The child should be taught by the educated mother, and not left to uneducated servants. The school and the home should be confederates.

PROFESSOR C. A. GRAESER, of South Carolina, raised the question whether there is not a development in appreciation to be attained before the children can gain by the use of classical poems.

PRESIDENT J. R. KIRK, of Missouri, stated that he was always ready to defend the use of the best models, for even very young pupils. The twelve-year-old girls and boys are ready to analyze the best things in literature; and under the leadership of a teacher to whom these things are real the mind is already prepared.

MISS THURSTON, of South Carolina, thought that the Bible and Homer and Shakespeare and Milton would furnish full material for the work.

DR. J. J. BURNS, of Ohio.—It would take more assurance than inspires me even when on my native heath to attempt the discussion of a paper which, in large part, it was my misfortune not to hear. I listened with interest to its concluding pages, and to the earnest speeches following it; enjoyed all and believed most.

It seems to me that in our work in reading or literature—synonymous terms—we are drifting or rowing into a custom of having our pupils find things in the poems they study—deep suggestions, "best-laid schemes" which the author never consciously put there.

Certainly this is true in the reading, the analysis, the destructive distillation of Shakespeare's immortal plays. I have not time to enlarge upon this text: I am much more desirous that my young friends should grow into a sincere love of Shakespeare and make the reading of him a habit of their lives, than that they should learn to do this profound interpreting—like translating *Pilgrim's Progress* into the style of *Sartor Resartus*. All along the years the teacher and class should be a committee of the whole on the fine art of extracting enjoyment from the bit of literature upon which they are engaged—thinking the author's thought after him, and feeling his emotions as far as their individual ages and experiences endow them. The first-year pupils may be taught:

"My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky,"

and may thereafter thrill with the thing of beauty all the more keenly from memory's echo of the trumpet lines; but it is a far cry to the time when they can grasp the big utterance: "The child is father of the man." A lengthening experience convinces me of the good to come from the habit of committing to memory some of the best things we find in our reading, and I urge a well-chosen course of literature for the memory and heart. Before I yield the floor I wish to affirm that the study of English is our profoundest study, but it's a life-study; this reading class is our most difficult class, and who can estimate the folly of the school of platform orators who so wordily declare to teachers, "You must do this, you should do that, you must not leave undone the third," till plain sense mingled with practical experience inquires: "What impossible matter will they make easy next?"

The teachers who are to work this series of miracles are probably the youngest in the corps, and more probably the most scantily paid. The force of absurdity can no farther go.

THE ELIMINATION OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL

OTIS ASHMORE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SAVANNAH, GA.

There are some principles of education that are as firmly established as the fundamental truths of mathematics, and it would seem that they need not be called in question. If, however, there is more than one side to this question, I trust, at least, that this paper may serve to disclose it, and to provoke such discussion as may be beneficial to this body.

The term "grammar school" is somewhat loosely used in different parts of our country, but for the purpose of this discussion I shall assume that it refers to the two or three years of the ordinary school course next preceding the high school. I shall also assume that the term "elimination" used in this connection refers rather to the transfer to the high school of certain studies now generally pursued in the grammar school, than to the complete abolition of this department, for I cannot conceive of any other rational basis on which the subject may be considered.

Unfortunately, I have not been able to ascertain the scope or nature of previous discussions upon this subject beyond that contained in the report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements made at Los Angeles, and hence my treatment of it may not be altogether to the point.

If, as it would appear, there are studies in the grammar-school course that ought to be transferred to the high school, it is pertinent to inquire

what these studies are, and to what extent this transfer is applicable. All educators, I think, will agree that the character of the studies prescribed for any stage of educational development should conform to the well-known laws of mental growth and of the orderly development of the various faculties. The average age at which pupils at present enter our high schools is between fourteen and fifteen years, a period when the rational faculties begin to take on a more rapid growth, and when the perception and memory begin to yield in relative activity to those powers which deal with causes and effects.

It will be at once admitted that several of the studies now pursued in the grammar school can find their best maturity in the high school, where larger mental power is present to grasp the complex relations which cannot be adequately dealt with by the less mature mind. Chief among these are arithmetic, grammar, and history. These studies, especially in advanced stages, require the exercise of those mental powers which age alone can give, and they ought not to be laid aside in the high-school course.

I believe it is a most serious defect in the high-school courses of study to neglect a systematic consideration of these branches thruout the course. It matters not how well a pupil may have been taught arithmetic in the grammar schools, there are phases of the study which no pupil under fifteen years of age can adequately understand. The same is true of grammar and history. It may be laid down as a safe rule, then, that the proper studies for a high-school course should be chiefly those which psychologically are adapted to a maturer mind, and which cannot economically be pursued by pupils under fourteen or fifteen years of age.

It is far from my purpose to imply that such subjects as arithmetic, grammar, and history should not be pursued by pupils under fourteen years of age; on the other hand, it is my opinion that it would be a serious mistake not to begin these studies at a much earlier period.

The truth is—and modern education is coming more and more to recognize it—that almost every subject taught in the schools is susceptible of such a division and treatment as to render certain phases of it a perfectly legitimate study in every grade. The subject of geometry, for instance, which lies almost wholly in the domain of reason, is very properly assigned to the maturer years of the high-school course; but every thoughtful educator knows well that there are some of the facts and definitions of geometry that may with perfect propriety be taught to the earlier grades of a grammar school. The same thing is true of botany, physical geography, the ancient and modern languages, and many others.

There is another thought in connection with this subject that must not be forgotten. All true educational development is of slow growth; but it should be continuous to maturity, and not be subject to sudden changes or arrests in any line of mental activity. Too often is it the case

that arithmetic and grammar are laid aside just at a time when the best fruits of these subjects are maturing, and some other subject entirely different taken up in their stead. The result is that the pupil soon forgets what little he has learned about these subjects, and is often shocked by the sudden transition from a familiar to a totally different field.

So it would seem that there is not so much a need for eliminating the grammar school, either in fact or in name, as there is for such an adjustment of the courses of study thruout the pupil's educational career as to unify and harmonize the whole, utilizing at the same time every advantage which the correlation of studies offers.

Despite the revolutionary aspect of the subject of this paper, I cannot bring my mind to believe that there is any serious thought of eliminating the grammar school in the sense of abolishing it; for this idea seems to me to be not only impracticable, but positively absurd. The grammar school may be modified, and it doubtless will be from time to time, and even its name may be changed without detriment; but the substantial character of the grammar school as now organized will remain, as it should remain, the same as it is now.

DISCUSSION

JOHN R. KIRK, president of the State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.—The paper by Mr. Ashmore is tempered with modesty, caution, and conservatism—probably too much conservatism. In my opinion the gentleman hardly meets the issue as it should be met. Caution and conservatism are good enough in their places, but they never spanned a river, tunneled a mountain, improved the architecture of a schoolhouse, or stimulated human genius to high possibilities. Caution and conservatism are forever saying: "These things are good enough; let good enough alone."

My plea is for the boys and girls in the seventh and eighth grades. They are entitled to better things than they get. The twelve-year-old boy is a bundle of working nerve force, a veritable steam-engine, capable at all times of doubling the work which the typical grammar school permits him to do. The girl is an electric battery whose energy is suppressed and whose soul is cramped by the conventionalities, insipidities, and stupefying routine of a preconceived scheme for using up her time. We talk about the stormy and uncertain period of adolescence in the high school; but the grammar-school children, many of them, are just entering upon this same period of storm and stress; they have their dull and moody periods, too; they deserve all the advantages now given the high-school students. We find no fault with the grammar-school teachers. They do their best. Most of them see possibilities which the grinding machinery of so-called "system" prohibits them from even attempting.

Look at the facts: The grammar-school teacher has talent and as much versatility as anyone. She also has preferences among subjects to be taught. We demand of her impossibilities. She knows it. Not one in a hundred is at her best in all subjects. One, having the classical mold, is saturated with grammar, literature, and art, and teaches these excellently. Another has the laboratory stamp, and perchance teaches nature study, science, mathematics, and mechanical drawing excellently. Another is an expert in the arts of expression and gets children to deliver their thoughts unusually well. But the expert in art and classics often has comparatively little knowledge of arithmetic and

science, and a positive dislike for them. This is human nature. Several of this audience nod assent to this well-known fact. The expert in arithmetic often has poor appreciation of grammar and literature. No amount of skilled supervision will make this individual a good teacher of grammar and art. The grammar-school teacher, like every other teacher, is at her best in a few things.

Therefore, suppose three or four teachers in the same building have grammar-school grades, and even other grades reaching a little lower and a little higher. Why not allow these people to use their best talents by exchanging places with one another? They can do it at no inconvenience to anybody. Why not allow the sensible teacher of arithmetic to go the rounds and stimulate all children to their best efforts in that subject? Why not allow the cultured lover of classics and art daily contact with the children of three or four or more rooms, where she can illuminate the lessons in grammar and literature with her own clean-cut and far-reaching conceptions? This costs no more than to confine each teacher wholly to a separate grade and bound her usefulness by four walls. Where it has been tried by sensible and industrious people who believe in it and who are willing to believe in better things, it has already produced results which demonstrate its excellence. You raise the question of discipline. The grammar-school children have to be "disciplined" because their souls are starving. They want intellectual food. Give them what their natures crave, and the question of discipline is settled. Reward their toil and they will be as much interested in good order as their teachers can possibly be.

We obscure this subject by unfortunate terminology. We do not seek "the elimination of the grammar school." The expression "departmental work in the grammar school" is offensive. It is better to drop this cumbersome verbiage. Let us talk about adapting our talents to the best purposes. A mere exchange among teachers in consecutive grades and in adjoining rooms—this is all we want. This we *do* want, for by it we avail ourselves of the highest talent of all teachers. We circumscribe no one's horizon. We reduce no one's activity. We broaden the horizon of the teacher and the child. We illuminate all the grammar-school work with the better and stronger light of richer and riper scholarship and more willing service. We do not make specialists of the grammar-school teachers. We do not make them narrow. We give them incentives to greater effort and loftier purposes. We make their lives happier. Their spirit creates a livelier atmosphere in the grammar-school room.

Permit us, we pray you, to rid ourselves of dull and deadening mechanical processes, and we shall have less of the baneful and artificial production of stupidity. We shall better build sterling character in young Americans by the constant stimulus of labor which is felt to be its own reward. Then every teacher will be a live wire abounding in energy. Contact with such teachers will vitalize many a grammar school whose present régime is pure drudgery, and the reward of whose toil is "getting grades."

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The session of the department was called to order in Carolina Rifle Hall at 3:30 P. M., with President E. W. Coy, of Cincinnati, in the chair.

In the absence of the secretary, H. L. Boltwood, of Evanston, Ill., a motion was made and carried to elect C. A. Graeser, of Charleston, S. C., as acting secretary.

Principal William J. S. Bryan, of St. Louis, read a paper on the subject, "To What Extent Should the Pupil in the High School be Allowed to Choose His Studies?"

The discussion of this paper was opened by A. H. Nelson, of Chicago, Ill. The discussion was continued by Superintendent J. W. Carr, of Anderson, Ind., and Principal W. M. Slaton, of Atlanta, Ga.

The second paper, entitled, "How Shall We Teach Our Pupils the Correct Use of the English Language?" was presented by Principal Oliver S. Westcott, of Chicago, Ill.

Discussion by Superintendent J. J. Burns, of Defiance, O., and M. L. Britton, of Atlanta, Ga.

President Coy appointed as a

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Principal Reuben Post Halleck, Louisville, Ky.

Principal William M. Slaton, Atlanta, Ga.

Principal J. Remsen Bishop, Cincinnati, O.

Subsequently the nominating committee reported the following nominees, who were unanimously elected as officers for the ensuing year:

For *President*—W. J. S. Bryan, St. Louis, Mo.

For *Vice-President*—Miss Nettie Filmore, Cincinnati, O.

For *Secretary*—C. A. Graeser, Charleston, S. C.

The meeting then adjourned.

C. A. GRAESER,

Acting Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD A PUPIL IN THE HIGH SCHOOL BE ALLOWED TO CHOOSE HIS STUDIES?

WILLIAM J. S. BRYAN, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

The extent to which a pupil in the high school should be allowed to choose his studies is a question that has for some years engaged the attention of high-school teachers. Widely divergent views are expressed, with varying degrees of positiveness, and are supported by arguments

more or less logical. No subject deserves or has received more consideration from educators than the course of study to be pursued by pupils of all grades, from kindergarten to university; especially by pupils of secondary schools. Committees composed of the most active, most progressive, and most successful educators of all sections of the country have studied with the deepest interest and most assiduous industry the problem of the courses of study calculated to give the pupils of the various grades the best education. Psychology has been invoked to reveal the secret of the educational values of the numerous branches that compose the curricula from first to last, and the experience of the past has been questioned as to the results actually attained by the pursuit of different studies and combinations of studies.

The famous report of the Committee of Ten is known to all interested in the actual work of American secondary schools, and its suggestions as to the studies to be taught in secondary schools, the order of their presentation, and the method of their selection for the individual pupil have doubtless been carefully considered, as was surely demanded by the weight of authority resulting from the composition of the committee and of the conferences on special studies whose recommendations were indorsed by it. Without good reason, no one should disregard the lines of progress laid down in this report or set at naught the logical conclusions reached.

Change is not necessarily improvement. Progress and conservatism are not antonyms. In education as in religion, it is wise to prove all things and to hold fast that which is good. The injunction to Laertes, "The friends thou hast, and their adoption tried, grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel," is as good a maxim of pedagogy as it is of friendship. Fidelity to friends, hospitality to strangers, is the proper spiritual and intellectual attitude. Progress in the science and art of pedagogy is made by using the most advanced positions and methods of the present as means of further incursions. The danger is that leaving the sure base of supplies we may lose the vantage-ground now held, and expend our forces and equipment in misguided enterprises.

In order to establish the limit of choice to be allowed pupils of the high school, it will be necessary to determine the objects of secondary education; the relation of the several possible studies to that object as a result of their educational values; the knowledge of such values possessed by pupils, teachers, and parents; the conditions, financial, pedagogical, intellectual, physical, and temporal, that are requisite to the possibility of such a choice by individual pupils; the effect upon the preparation of the pupils desirous of meeting the entrance requirements of various colleges; the advantage to be derived by the pupil from freedom of choice.

What, then, are the objects of secondary education? Ask the pupil who is about to enter the high school why he proposes to do so, and his

answer, not very definite or profound, probably will be that he may continue his education, that he may fit himself for life, that later he may be able to earn more, that he may do as his parents direct. Ask the teacher by whom he has been taught—I do not say prepared—why he should pursue his studies farther, and the answer may not be clearer or show more thought. At times it will not be as satisfactory. Ask even the teachers of the high school itself, and there may be some hesitation, some vagueness of thought, some uncertainty of position; for they often take for granted the proposition they should be ready to maintain with clearness and completeness of demonstration. Ask the parents. If they have enjoyed the advantages of education, they will say that they wish their children to be at least as well fitted for the exigencies of life as they were, and to enjoy all the advantages that education furnishes. If they have been without such advantages, then they will assert their intention to give their children better opportunities than they themselves had.

There are those who are not content with the proper sphere of the high school in the system of public schools, which now truthfully may be said to include all phases of scholastic training from the kindergarten to the university, and are constantly seeking to invade what seems to them a higher sphere of education; but, rightly viewed, no one part of the system is of greater importance than another, if the completed product is to be considered; and if we regard the number reached, the primary phase of education is by far the most important. The object of the high school is to take the boys and girls who have reached a certain stage of advancement—at present, those who have acquired a reasonable knowledge of grammar, history, geography, and arithmetic—and to engage their energies in the mastery of advanced studies which will discipline their several faculties, develop their individual powers, give them a general survey of the inviting fields of knowledge and effort, furnish them with tools and motive power to extend their conquest of the material and spiritual universe to the limit set by their native endowments; withal to excite in them an insatiable thirst, an undying love, for the true as discovered in science, or philosophy, or religion; for the beautiful as disclosed in nature, or literature, or art; for the good as revealed in history or ethics; to enkindle in them, I say, an absorbing passion for the true, the beautiful, and the good; the true—the real, our environment material and spiritual; the beautiful—the ideal, to be realized in personal life, in the home, in society, in the nation, in the world; the good—the means of uniting the real and the ideal, the marriage of the beautiful and the true.

In this statement of the function of the high school I have not thrown overboard chart and compass, or unshipped the rudder. I have intentionally kept in mind previous surveys and soundings. At the same time I am not unmindful of other views, which are regarded as in advance of

the times perhaps, but as sure to be carried into effect in the high school of the future. Briefly stated they are as follows: It is the purpose of the high school to give to anyone who desires it an opportunity to study anything he may wish to study, as long as his convenience or inclination may dictate, and at such times as may suit his other engagements; or, it is the province of the high school to prepare its pupils for the actual life to be lived by each, not by giving to all such general preparation as will enable each to adjust himself to the special work to be done, but by teaching the particular art or trade that in the vicissitudes of life he may be called upon to practice; or, it is the business of the high school to ascertain the particular bent of each individual mind, and to develop these individual aptitudes or talents to the fullest possible extent. Between my own views, which were expressed in the first statement, and those represented in the other statements, there is an almost endless variety of opinions, and before anyone can have a basis of decision of the main question, he must determine his attitude on the question of the function of the high school.

Our knowledge of the educational values of the several studies must be derived from personal observation, from the history of education, and from psychology. The contributions made to the science of pedagogy by the reports of the numerous conferences on special studies are of the greatest value, and the paper of Dr. William T. Harris on "The Necessity for Five Co-ordinate Groups of Studies in Schools" presented in clear and succinct form the conclusions reached by the Committee of Fifteen, which evidently were in accord with his own profound convictions. The limits of this paper preclude the possibility of presenting the conclusions further than to say that it was shown that the five groups of studies differ both objectively and subjectively, and call into activity different methods of observation and different trains of thought, and therefore one of them could not be substituted for another, or omitted entirely, without distorting the pupil's view of the world, or at least rendering it incomplete. It follows that a course of study complete in every part would include at all stages of the pupil's progress some one of each of the five groups of studies discriminated, the selection being made in accordance with the maturity of the pupil. The wisdom of representing each of the five types of studies in the various stages of the child's progress will become apparent from a consideration of the relative ease with which we acquire knowledge similar in kind to that already possessed, in accordance with the doctrine of apperception, and the profound pedagogical truth that education should be a growth, a development.

Nature, inorganic and organic, and man, theoretical, practical, and æsthetic, should be the ever-present subjects of primary and secondary education, the view becoming ever clearer and broader and deeper as the world is formed in the consciousness of the individual, and he

comprehends more fully his own place in the universe. By the study of mathematics and the sciences, physics and chemistry, an acquaintance with the general laws of nature and with her inorganic phases is gained; thru botany, zoölogy, and other branches of natural history we arrive at a knowledge of the organic aspect of nature. The languages and psychology afford a view of man as a thinking being; history—including civics, sociology, law—presents him as willing and doing; literature and art reveal his æsthetic nature. The matter of education has so extended itself that in its details it is far beyond the grasp of any one mind, but a rational view may be secured by a study of man and nature in the several aspects presented.

The crucial test of every system of education is the world-view it gives; the touchstone to apply to each study is its ability to contribute essential elements to this world-view. Much harm has been done to the cause of education and to the lives of pupils by unintelligent manipulation of courses of study. The fact that the place of a study in a course is called in question is not evidence that it ought to be displaced by another for which room is sought. It may be only an indication of ignorance of its value. The studies for which there is the profoundest psychological and pedagogical reason are perhaps most frequently challenged, because the reason for their existence does not appear to the superficial observer. No study can strongly appeal to the reason of one who is ignorant of its content. The cry of "impractical," "out of date," "fetich," and other like expressions, may be effective with the uninformed, but, like the *argumentum ad hominem*, may prove nothing but the paucity of reasons in the mind of some advocate of a so-called practical study. In many minds the word "practical" is synonymous with directly convertible into dollars and cents—more frequently cents.

The perfectly natural and readily explained general ignorance of the educational values of subjects composing courses of study prevents the formation of logical judgments in such matters by the public; and this term should include parents and pupils, and such teachers as have not given special attention to the subject of educational values and the proper composition of courses of study. Fortunately for the cause of education in America, the public, while lacking the information and training requisite to the formation of a valid judgment in such matters, has to a marked degree the most excellent quality of common-sense, which makes it conscious of its need of information and leads it to leave the decision of such matters to those who have made them a study. Sometimes, thru confidence in injudicious teachers, the public is misled into positions from which it is necessary to retreat, with larger experience, but with cost of children's lives and wasted treasure; but the public schools of America are not in imminent danger of being led far into error by zeal without knowledge, as is shown by the Commissioner's report of the number of

pupils who are engaged in studying the several branches taught in secondary schools—a report that should convince the most timorous and pessimistic that there is a very bright future for education in these United States.

Beyond controversy, this is a “government of the people, by the people, for the people;” but at times there seems to be some misapprehension of the application of the term “people.” The editorial “we” is more potent and less offensive than the capital “I,” and the enthusiastic advocate of some change in the course that in imagination is going to revolutionize education, making the crooked places straight and the rough places smooth, exalting the valleys and laying low the hills, with his ear to the ground and his eyes uplifted to get a glimpse of his own prospective greatness, thinks he catches the accents of the people loudly clamoring for the device that is to pave a royal road to learning with the smooth blocks of desire set in undeveloped interest. Pupils do not know enough about themselves or the studies that constitute the curriculum of a high school to decide which studies they should take to develop their individual and peculiar genius, or to suit their ultimate but as yet undiscovered purpose in life, or even to awaken and hold their interest. Choice without power to discriminate is not choice, but caprice, unbridled fancy, unreasoning folly, distasteful even to children. Parents are full of sympathy for their children, as they should be; they have plans of their own, more or less in harmony with the unformed taste of their children; but, happily, with few exceptions, they defer to the calmer, unbiased judgment of the one whose business it is to know all that can be learned about the functions of different studies, and whose experience is many times as broad as that of any individual otherwise employed. This, I am well aware, throws a great responsibility upon the principal of the high school; but a public office is a public trust, and emoluments and burdens, opportunities and obligations, have a fixed relation to each other.

Even if it were desirable that each individual should choose his own studies and arrange a special course, there are inherent difficulties to prevent such freedom of action. Expense will always fix a minimum for the number to constitute a class; the natural sequence of studies is in many cases perfectly evident and unalterable; a certain intellectual maturity is indispensable to the prosecution of some studies; there is a physical limit to the work that each pupil can do; there are not an indefinite number of hours for the arrangement of a program of studies; there are still college requirements to be met by those who are not entirely self-sufficient.

But what are the advantages to be derived from an unrestricted election, if it were practicable? Chief among those that are mentioned, and the one most in keeping with the intense individualism of this century and this country, is the interest it would insure in the work to be done,

Work done under compulsion is said to be slavish and necessarily lacking in interest and enthusiasm. But is it true that the work done by high-school pupils is done under compulsion? Is not all freedom possible only to him who voluntarily does the things which the laws of his nature require? If, in my ignorance, I choose that which would not be my choice if I understood my own needs or the nature of the study, shall I, therefore, take an interest in my work? Shall I not rather be displeased with myself, dissatisfied with my work, disgusted with the system that made such a misfit possible? Is the interest that pupils take in their studies due altogether to the character of the studies or to their free choice of them? Is it not rather frequently due to the influence of the teacher, who by reason of the fullness of his own knowledge and his own kindling enthusiasm for his subject, and because of his love for his pupils, is able to awaken in them an interest kindred to his own? Is not the need of the hour, not selection of studies, but selection of teachers?

The privilege of certain options and choices has long been given, and the only living phase of the question is how far this privilege should be extended. The National Educational Association by its appointment of committees to consider the courses of study for secondary schools has done much toward shaping public opinion and effecting a general agreement as to the subjects to be taught and the importance of representing the five co-ordinate branches of study at every stage of progress. Within these limits, which have been quite clearly defined, the individuality of the pupil should be carefully considered by the principal in consultation with the child and the parents, but the desire of the individual ought not to be allowed to interfere with his own education, or to work to the detriment of other pupils or of the general welfare. Delicate pupils, or backward pupils, or pupils whose time is necessarily partly occupied with other interests, can easily be accommodated without detriment to others by giving them the privilege of postponing part of the work of any term to the next. Greater freedom from restriction seems hardly desirable or practical. If the arranged courses of study preserve the proper sequence, and if indeed it is not true that they are merely aggregations of studies without logical connection or principle of cohesion, it is hard to see how the privilege of disregarding the lines drawn could be granted without harm to the individual pupil and to the school. The educative effect of completing a part of a well-ordered course will be greater than the effect of pursuing some of the studies to a farther limit, and the chances of completing the entire course will be greater. I have no sympathy with the defect in child-training, common in our day, which exalts the immature judgment of youth above the maturer judgment of parent or teacher, in so far at least as it allows it to determine the action in specific cases. Hear the statement of the case, as it lies in the child's mind; point out the fallacies that appear; but insist upon the supremacy of reason. Freedom

is subjection of will to righteous laws, and the will is trained to righteousness by habitually doing right. Not desire, but recognition of duty, leads man to self-control. Not enjoyment, but service, is the measure of life.

DISCUSSION

A. H. NELSON, Chicago, Ill.—Mr. James H. Harris, in the *Educational Review* for May, in discussing "The Natural Limitations of the Elective System," says (and I assent to the statement): "The restrictions and limitations of physical and intellectual capacity, the laws of mental growth and of sequence of studies, the counsel and guidance of parents and teachers, are amply sufficient to safeguard the interests and promote the free progress of the youth without further limitations." If we could treat that as an algebraic proposition and cancel all possible factors, we should have left only the "counsel and guidance of teachers," for "the guidance of parents" is still an unknown quantity, and all real election by the pupil would be eliminated.

Those who would broaden the scope of election for high-school pupils must always reckon with two factors, constant and controlling in the solution of this as well as of every other educational problem. Naming these in the inverse order of their importance, they are: (1) the intellectual status of the average high-school matriculate; and (2) the single and only aim of all public-school instruction. I do not believe that there is a teacher before me, whether such teacher has had much or little of psycho-pedagogical training, that will not agree with me in characterizing the years between the age of graduation from the grammar school and that of matriculation in college as the period of greatest unrest, psychical as well as physical. It is the time of nascent manhood and womanhood, when boys and girls study themselves and each other with far greater interest than they study any text-book; the time when coeducation leads to the very delightful discovery of

"Books in the running brooks, sermons in stones,
And good in everything;"

the time when the girl coils up her braids, and the boy turns up his trousers. It is, in short, just the period when the guidance of experience, the control of a master-mind in determining the course of study, is most essential. An editorial writer upon one of our daily papers has said: "The average high-school boy has hardly got beyond the period when he is puzzled to decide whether he will be a general, admiral, or a circus clown. To throw open a course of study to the election of such immature minds would be as edifying a spectacle as to allow an infant to experiment with different-colored candies, for the similitude could be extended to the ultimate effect on brain and bowels."

Those who advocate an increase in the number of electives argue that there can be no proper development of the individual unless there is, or can be awakened, in the pupil an interest in his studies. This argument Professor Münsterberg analyzes and answers after this fashion: "All instruction must be interesting. If the pupil's interest is not in it, the whole instruction is dead matter, useless vexation. Everything which appeals to the natural tastes of the child is interesting. Instruction, therefore, must be adjusted to the natural instincts and tastes." The logical fallacy of this ought to be evident. All instruction which is good must be interesting; but does it follow therefrom that all instruction which is interesting must also be good? Are there not kinds of interest which are positively bad and destructive? Is not the true meaning of education to discriminate between good and bad desires, to suppress lower instincts and to reinforce the higher? Wanting the faculty to discriminate between good and bad desires, election in studies, even with reference to a special future occupation, is, as the same writer has said, "merely the cumulation of a hundred chance influences."

In anticipation of this discussion, and that I might know the opinion of a college president of very many years' experience with the graduates of secondary schools, I sat down a few weeks ago in the study of such a president and asked him point blank the very question we are discussing today. His reply was in substance as follows: "The longer I remain in this office, the more fixed am I in the opinion that until even a collegian has reached his junior year the scope of election should be very narrow. As for high-school boys and girls, they are of such comparatively low average in intellectual maturity that there is positively no room for election by them, if the course of study they are to pursue is to be in any true sense preparation for college. Evidence that some of the secondary schools are tending very strongly in the opposite direction I am constantly having in the young men and young women whose preparation to enter this university has very largely been directed by their own likings, rather than by the mature judgment and experience of teachers."

In my opinion, however, the chief objection to the multiplication of the number of subjects from which pupils in our high schools may elect a course of study inheres not so much in the intellectual immaturity of the scholar—the first of the factors I have above quoted—as in the second of those factors, namely, the single and only legitimate aim of all public-school education in this country; for I understand that in this discussion we are rigidly confined to the schools that are maintained by public taxation. That single and only legitimate aim is intelligent American citizenship. Unquestionably this is in very many cases not apprehended as the *raison d'être* of every high school as well as of every elementary school, and, where it is apprehended at all, it is not consistently treated as the chief aim of public-school education. It is not to be wondered at that those who advocate a gradual increase of the number of electives as compared with required subjects in the course of study for high schools seem to consider the purpose of the school to be to sift the finished product of the grammar school, to the end that the few score of boys and girls who have really fixed upon some calling or profession in which to do their life's work may be segregated from the hundreds—the very large majority in every high school—who are simply there because their parents send them, and very often with no better reason for such sending than that it is "the thing to do."

But if it be true that intelligent American citizenship, and that only, is the reason for levying taxes for educational purposes (and I do not think that that definition can be safely expanded one iota), then so to consider the work of the high school is to substitute for liberal education, that in which alone all the people can share, professional education, which must always be for the select few. However valuable the doctrine of manifest destiny may be as an indorsement of political and territorial expansion, it is fraught with dangerous possibility when it finds a place among the motives directing the public instruction of the youth of this country.

The captain of a company, or even the colonel of a regiment, has not that knowledge of the special and objective point of a campaign necessary for planning the combined and interdependent operations of the several branches of the army. A wider range of vision is necessary for the intelligent planning for the campaign as a whole. For a like reason the statement of Professor Withers, which I quoted at the outset, will serve as a criterion by which to test the value of much that has been and is being written by high-school principals and teachers upon this subject. If "the proper study of mankind is man," then the constant study of early manhood and womanhood, the daily occupation of the schoolmaster, must of necessity act as a powerful stimulus to enthusiasm in his work; but enthusiasm is always restive under the suggestions of judgment, and too often ignores the counsels of experience; hence the enthusiastic high-school principal or teacher is very apt to forget that because in science or literature, in biology or psychology, he finds that which stimulates and develops his own intellectuality, it does not follow that, even if any number of high-school pupils express a preference for such studies, such studies should be pursued. He is a professional man, and his place in the world is among professional

men and women; but the average high-school pupil will never rise to that level; nor is it the chief purpose of the high school to prepare pupils for college or professional life, tho the tendency to so consider a high-school course is all but universal. It has been well and wisely said: "The high school ought to be faithful to its only goal of general education, without professional anticipations." The infusion of the utilitarian spirit into our educational life is to be deprecated. True education is a life-process, and is not bounded by the kindergarten and university. That in the highest type of manhood and womanhood *to make a life* rather than *to make a living* is the controlling purpose, should ever be kept before the youth in our secondary schools; but those who determine the course of study in such schools ought to remember that in the domain of the intellectual as well as the spiritual the wide gate and the broad way "leadeth unto destruction," while "strait is the gate and narrow is the way that leadeth unto life."

HOW SHALL WE TEACH OUR PUPILS THE CORRECT USE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE?

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I answer the question in two words: By example.

The rules of grammar are accepted as the shibboleth of intellect by too many. We all know persons who seem always, when listening to informal conversation, to be eaves-dropping for solecisms, which they register, when found, more or less brutally, and store up to retail as malicious gossip later. These spies and informers of everyday life seem to assume that a breach of grammar is a breach of the peace, that a slipshod syntactician is a public nuisance, and that a double negative is complete damnation. Yet we all know certain absolute asses whose impeccable grammar only emphasizes the emptiness of their thoughts, whose brains are as free from the possibility of inspiration as any Chinese laundryman's adding machine. And we all know certain men whose thought takes magnificent strides and covers a noble parish without check from the barbed-wire fences and "no thoroughfare" signs of grammar. These unshackled souls are rather above than beneath the jurisdiction of justices of the peace like Lindley Murray.

This exordium is stolen in its entirety. Many of you have, no doubt, already perused it in "The Point of View" in the May *Scribner's*. It is apparently to some extent apologetic of what is to follow, viz., sundry quotations from classic English authors showing plainly that occasional nodding is not confined to Homer. He continues as follows:

But if grammar is upheld as the *sine qua non* of respectable speech, by so much the more is it demanded of the written word. A reviewer who has caught a young author in flagrant errors in syntax feels quite justified in holding a wake over him without further ado. But this, I aver, is not justified even by precedent or that consuetude which Quintilian called *certissima loquendi magistra*. For the most loftily renowned of writers have made slips—slips that cannot be palmed off or licensed as constructions which the high authority of their authors legalizes—slips, indeed, which can be forgiven, but not justified.

The matter is unquestionably of more importance than manner, the thought more to be considered than its dress, it is nevertheless as true in rhetoric as in the social circle that dress comes in for a liberal share

of attention, and that special consideration is always vouchsafed to a person of engaging presence. The old saw, "If you would give your talents fair play, dress well," is as applicable to literature as to life.

The writer of "The Point of View" certainly makes good his claim that so-called classic English authors are far from immaculate in the matter of English construction. It is passing strange that he should devote so large a part of his disquisition to commenting upon quotations from authors centuries old. No one feels disposed to hold to the strictest rules our earlier English authors—Beaumont and Fletcher, Fielding, Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, Jane Austen, Sterne, etc.—and we excuse their shortcomings by the unexpressed belief that the language in their time had not been so crystallized as to warrant our expecting the exactness we ought to find in the practice of later writers. But when Thackeray and George Eliot and Scott and Bulwer Lytton and Stevenson and Crane and Meredith are justly listed in the category of literary sinners, we are hardly disposed to join with the author in his moral, or emphatically to indorse his own English when he concludes:

If, after quoting out of a large catalogue *this few* (which is already too many), I shall have earned a little more mercy to the frailties of the weak by betraying the frailties of the strong, it is well with my soul.

Philosophically the position seems to be vastly more tenable that the sins of the great should not palliate the sins of the small, and if these errors are to be collated and presented for consideration, they should be presented as pitfalls to be carefully avoided. If the writers of the coming generation are to be unamenable to such scathing and deserved criticism as this, something effective must be done by us to enhance their reverence for and their familiarity with their vernacular.

What, then, shall we do?

When an old-fashioned revivalist used to lay out his program for a revival in a town he did exactly as Mr. Moody once did in Philadelphia. First, he examined the condition of the church itself. To bring sinners to see the error of their ways, nothing was deemed so potent as the influence of good example, and a few weeks spent in getting professed Christians into line, and a sermon or two from the standard text, "Go through, go through the gates; cast up, cast up the highway; gather out the stones; lift up a standard for the people," were deemed to be of essential necessity in preparing to do battle with the wicked and batter down the strongholds of Satan. This was a philosophical plan. Why, then, should not we as teachers exercise as much shrewdness in endeavoring to do battle with the hosts of ignorance? Let us, then, go thru the gates and at least show where some of the pebbles, nay, boulders, lie, which must be gathered out before the standard of the English language can be lifted above the dead level where it has so long been trailing near or on the ground.

The best-educated are too often inexcusably careless in colloquial discourse. The school superintendent of one of the largest cities in the United States said publicly to an institute on two different occasions that it is of little or no consequence that we teachers occasionally mispronounce words in our intercourse with one another. Does he think that he can give himself so much latitude in public and be more particular in his own family in intercourse with his children? Surely such leniency will be misinterpreted. His own influence with teachers, their influence upon one another and upon other people with whom they are brought in contact, his influence with his children, their influence upon their associates and companions at school, the consequent further influence of these latter upon members of other families, may all be referred to him as the central motor of these concentric and ever-widening circles whose limit is indefinable. Many, very many derelictions in the use of the English language may not unjustly be laid to his charge, if in his own practice he permits himself the slightest digression from the rules of the strictest propriety.

Let those who are fortunate in being parents (and all parents are also teachers) see to it that no influence goes out from their firesides that shall militate against the efforts of the professional teachers of language, that so their best endeavors be not rendered utterly futile. Those parents with whom we are not immediately brought in contact are admittedly beyond our reach for special influence. But we can furnish, and we ought to furnish, parents for coming generations who shall deem it one of the primary duties they owe society to see to it that, in their own homes at least, only good English is tolerated.

But parents are not the only teachers. When our pupils are out of the schoolroom they are likely to be brought in contact with other children from the families of individuals from every nation under heaven. The jargon at Babel could scarcely have been more pronounced than what may easily be heard upon the streets of any of our large cities and of most of our smaller towns. This potent influence for evil cannot, perhaps, be entirely counteracted, and yet it may be modified by thoroly inculcating upon the pupil the necessity of avoiding in his own conversation any scraps of *patois* that he may be compelled to hear. Teachers and parents should combine so far as possible to prevent the introduction of foreign words into ordinary conversation. And this is the very least of the evils in this direction. The provincialisms and the localisms of the various parts of our country and of the shires of England are incessantly cropping out and are sure of a luxuriant growth unless unceremoniously nipped in the bud.

But we teachers are perhaps the most amenable to charges like the above, and at the same time the least excusable. How many of us watch our own conversation in school or out with half the care with which we

watch that of the pupils under our charge? Are we careful that in every recitation the sentences of both teacher and pupil are carefully constructed after the most approved models? Is the recitation in science or the recitation in mathematics allowably more careless than the recitation in language? It takes line upon line and precept upon precept to induce pupils to say, the sum of the angles of a triangle *is*, rather than *are*. Few classes in geometry are clear of statements regarding the *frustum* of a cone or a pyramid, and fewer still are those no one of whose pupils will say: "divide a line *into* extreme and mean ratio." Why is this?

In the zeal of the times for getting the chasm bridged by introducing all the "ologies" into the elementary schools, the pupils are crammed to repletion with, to them, meaningless words and indigestible facts; and there is no healthy assimilation. If only the mental stomach could as easily regurgitate as can the bodily one, the next thing in order should be a vigorous emetic. But if we believe that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure, let us cease this senseless cramming and avoid the suggested necessity.

We are glad to know that so high an authority as Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler believes with many of us that mental growth during the period of adolescence is not the mental growth of the child; that there should and must be an entirely different course of procedure in the elementary and in the secondary schools; that the bridging of the alleged chasm by the so-called "enriching" of the course in the elementary schools is utterly unpsychological, if not absolutely impossible, and, at any rate, by such a method both pedagogically and philosophically undesirable. Let us rather cause the chasm to vanish by the inculcation of studious habits, by laying a solid foundation for broad and accurate scholarship, and not drag down material from the secondary schools for the use of pupils not yet able to cope with it. The abstractions of algebra and geometry require a certain maturity of the intellectual powers and a thoughtful preparation in dealing even with the practical side of these branches in connection with arithmetic. Unless time is given for a philosophical preparation, it is obviously unfair to expect successful work from the pupil. Relegate algebra and geometry and Latin to the secondary schools, where abundant opportunity is given for their acquisition, unless a place can be found for them in the elementary schools without trenching upon the time of things fundamental and more important.

Theoretically we admit that the rudiments of geometrical science require the simplest of mathematical concepts. We admit that it has been demonstrated repeatedly that the use of such a book as Hill's *Geometry* can be made profitable with children from eight to ten years old, and indeed younger. The fundamental rules of arithmetic may profitably be followed by some of the simplicities of algebra. Then the

three branches of mathematical science with which all children should be made more or less familiar may be taken up together and progress in geometry, algebra, and arithmetic proceed *pari passu*. But if algebra and geometry and Latin, etc., are grafted upon a tree whose present foliage and possibly prospective fruit are able utterly to exhaust all nutriment that can be supplied by the air or by the soil, the results can only be deleterious. While the new grafts do not thrive vigorously, the old shoots are robbed of their legitimate claims and the whole organism deteriorates.

It is strange that teachers in secondary schools often excuse their shortcomings, by saying that pupils should have learned such or such a thing in the elementary schools. Granted, but that is no excuse for further neglect. Since a minute and accurate knowledge of English is indispensable to one who wishes to communicate thought with English as his chosen medium, it should go without saying that anything needed and possible of supply by the secondary-school teacher should be willingly and lovingly rendered. And it should not be forgotten that the example of the teacher should in all respects be worthy of imitation. Does the student of geometry write *porportion* or *porprotion* for proportion, it is not alone his present carelessness. His previous pronunciation, or mayhap that of his teacher, has left no definite impression upon his mind as to the word characteristics. He writes *therium* for theorem, and the same suggestion explains.

Pronunciation and orthography go hand in hand in a much larger number of cases in the English language than is assumed by our fault-finding teachers and professors who boast of being poor spellers. If only they would spend, in making themselves and their pupils absolutely accurate, a tithe of the time which they spend in putting forward a few objectionable peculiarities of the language, and abusing the most copious, the richest, and the best language now spoken by any nation on the face of the earth, their time would be spent to far greater advantage.

So potent are the influences of example that I verily believe that any large city could well afford, in the interest of its children, to employ one officer, who should be styled, if you please, sign-supervisor, who should have absolute authority to order removed any sign not conformable in orthography and style to the authorized usages of the language. Then the ubiquitous over-Websterianism of *metalic* for metallic would disappear. *Butermilk* would be consigned to oblivion and the *cistren* manufacturer would be compelled to take in his marvelous metathesis. It may already have occurred to you that the wonderfully constructed sinistral *s*'s and *z*'s and *j*'s which occasionally stand revealed to your astonished gaze in the schoolroom come from the most observing pupils, and that the supposed idiosyncrasy can easily be traced to some exterior influence like the one suggested.

These are but phases of an inexhaustible subject. Admitting our inexcusably careless pronunciation and our lamentably deficient orthography, what shall we say of the neglected grammar and the abused rhetoric; of the stammering, unmelodious flow of the words and the utter lack of rhythm in the periods of our extempore speech? Let us mercifully draw a veil.

What books as teachers do our pupils read? Many of our pupils are not extensive readers. The old saying of Bacon, that "reading makes a full man; talking, a ready man; writing, an exact man," is as true today as on the occasion of its first utterance, and its terseness and sense will doubtless combine to render its existence as immortal as that of the language itself. But while this apothegm is an excellent one with which to familiarize our pupils, it is incumbent on us as teachers, and most especially incumbent on us as parents, to care for what is read, what is talked, what is written. For what is read, as indicating also what is talked and what is written, the inquirer is respectfully referred to the records of any of our public libraries. From these records it is painfully evident that the character of the mass of reading supplied at these sources is scarcely elevating. It is tolerable only in that it may temporarily prevent a worse waste of time, tho the sequence to thoughts engendered by persistent perusal of the light literature of the day may yet be but another illustration of what is meant by "reaping the whirlwind." While, as already intimated, this is a matter primarily concerning the parents, the teacher cannot altogether shirk responsibility even here. Let him not then refuse, but rather seek opportunities for exerting an influence in the selection of books for libraries, and, true to his calling, let him see that the selections are at least commendable for containing good English.

In the teacher's ambition to secure accuracy the school journals ought surely to be able assistants. A perusal of any issue of many of them suggests merely the blind leading the blind.

One says: "*Scholars* generally do not possess the pen of a ready writer, and need *terribly* all the practice possible to *hasten that consummation*."

Another says: "If *anyone* having a copy of ————, dated ————, will send it to this office, we *will* consider it a great favor, and extend *their* subscription one month."

But why multiply instances? It is only presenting inferior things for our imitation when all error should rather be studiously kept out of sight.

Our text-books are largely amenable to similar criticisms. Even our grammar-books and treatises on rhetoric do not hesitate to violate the laws they lay down. The grammar-book which says that "a preposition is a very improper word to end a sentence with" must have been written by a relative of the school superintendent who is quoted as saying: "'Taint proper to say 'taint!'"

The writer confesses to being a registrar of, but not an "eavesdropper" for, solecisms. He does not, however, register them when occurring in "informal conversation," but only when occurring in the formal public utterances of presidents of colleges and universities, of professors in the same, of superintendents of public instruction, and of principals of secondary schools. No English, however bad, emanating from persons occupying less prominent educational positions than the members of this somewhat limited class is admitted to this my private *index expurgatorius*. Surely this group of educators should be willing to make of themselves fit exemplars for the rising generation. This list is not for publication. In this case the old distich,

A chiel's amang ye takin' notes,
And faith he'll prent 'em,

is entirely inapplicable. Such a publishment should be confined to a round-table meeting for which it was prepared, and not displayed in all its hideousness before others than the members of the inner circle. It is sufficient for the present purpose to assert that we are all more or less guilty. "We have done the things we ought not to have done, and have left undone the things we ought to have done."

But, unfortunately, our delinquencies do not stop here. The pity is that, alas! we have not a proper respect for our own language. We introduce German and Latin into our elementary schools and neglect the English.

Spelling is now regarded as a matter of but slight importance. "It should be learned," to quote one of our prominent high-school principals, "incidentally." It is a matter of great regret that superintendents and principals, who should be burning and shining lights in the educational world, are deluded into taking such a pathway and alluring others into it. Yet it is pitifully, shamefully true that their knowledge of our language, whether in its orthoëpy or its orthography, is too often plainly, not only incidental, but accidental.

The use of good English, the study of technical grammar, and of common arithmetic is alarmingly *uncommon*. It has become so fashionable with educators to hold up to ridicule the topics in arithmetic of multiples and factors, alligation, repetends, evolution, progressions, etc., that teacher and pupil alike are willing to go farther and omit the subjects of common fractions and percentage, and, by some, even division is regarded with horror. To many pupils, and even to some teachers, the old ditty is peculiarly applicable:

Multiplication
Is vexation,
Division is as bad;
The rule of three
It troubles me,
And fractions make me mad.

The same evolutionary process is going on in the matter of English and technical grammar. If pupils are uncertain, as they too often are, as to the subject and predicate of a proposition, it is tolerably evident that they have not been burdened with technical grammar. The formalities thru which we used to go in our grammar recitation were not altogether useless: "The man runs." Man is a noun because it is a name; common, it is a general name; third person, it is spoken of; singular number, it means but one; masculine gender, it is the name of a male; nominative case, it is the agent, actor, or doer; and is the subject of the finite verb runs, according to Rule VI: "The subject of the finite verb is in the nominative case." I am prepared to admit that an interminable repetition of this matter was needless. But no one can deny that its utterance demanded and secured attention, and close attention, on the part of the pupil; and if the habit of attention was thus fixed, cultivated, improved, enlarged, the labor was not in vain.

But we are told that ours is a grammarless tongue, and therefore our strength should be expended upon the Latin. One prominent superintendent says publicly that he would sooner have English grammar dropped from the elementary schools than Latin. He asserts that English grammar can be best taught thru the Latin. The last time that I heard him make publicly this often-repeated statement, he perpetrated, a few minutes afterward, a most egregiously inexcusable pun about *bucks* and *ewes*, and shortly afterward found himself tripping over the little word "which," which he conscientiously changed to "whom." I could not help wondering where in the Latin grammar he had discovered that "which" and "whom" are not interchangeable words, and whether Cicero or Virgil could possibly inform him that the proper feminine of "buck" is *doe*.

The truth is that technical grammar should be insisted upon, and it should be insisted upon in the secondary schools. Our pupils must be taught the things they have not yet learned as to the correct use of the English language. Truism as it is, this statement needs to be made and emphasized. In the elementary schools they are not sufficiently mature to apprehend many of our idioms, or even to appreciate the beauties of our ordinary speech.

I am willing to be classed as an old foggy with Professor Tyndall, the scientist, who, in an often-quoted paragraph, says:

I hold that the proper study of language is an intellectual discipline of the highest kind. The piercing through the involved and inverted sentences of *Paradise Lost*, the linking of the verb to its often distant antecedent, of the agent to the object of the transitive verb, of the preposition to the noun or pronoun which it governs; the study of variations in mood and tense, the transformation often necessary to bring out the true grammatical structure of a sentence — all this was, to my young mind, a discipline of the highest value, and, indeed, a source of unflagging delight.

There is no doubt whatever that the discipline here undergone was

of the highest utility when, in after-years, he was anxious to express himself methodically, lucidly, and truthfully in regard to matters in his own chosen field of research.

With a course in English grammar in the latter part of the course in secondary schools, we are in a position to avail ourselves of all the linguistics our pupils may have already acquired. To know English, we are to know as much as possible of the languages which have contributed to its marvelous resources. Science too often scoffs at linguistics, but the scientific man does not commend himself to scholars in other departments when he persistently disregards the fundamentals of education in linguistics. It we hear a man talk upon a subject wherein we are confessedly ignorant, but with regard to which we would willingly sit at his feet, as at those of another Gamaliel, we lose confidence in him when we find him boastfully ignorant of things we have been taught to believe essential to a correct use of his vernacular. The meteorologist who says, "It looks like it was going to rain," does not command possibly deserved respect in his special department of study. The conchologist who calls *modiola plicatula*, *modioly plicatooly*, or the entomologist who calls the *Tettigidæ* the *Tettiguydæ*, cannot command even the deserved respect of the veriest tyro in Latin.

Some twenty years ago it was revealed to some of us principals of the secondary schools that more literature and less technical grammar would be conducive to the mental growth of secondary-school students. It was also deemed advisable to have our pupils read entire literary works instead of fragments. It is a serious question whether this practice has not now gone far enough, not to say too far. The results have hardly been commensurate with our expectations. Literature has been pushed with ayidity down thru the elementary schools, even to the kindergarten, but its contact has not developed accurate English. The pupil who can pass a fairly rigid examination on *The Lady of the Lake* will continue to say, "He trun a paper at me," and the juvenile admirer of *Ivanhoe* boasts that he is "troo de eight grade."

We can never inculcate a proper respect for anything for which we have not a proper respect ourselves. We have nothing to say to the secondary-school principal who writes that Miss —— had been "*promotted*" to the first class, had studied "*antient*" history, and had read the orations against "*Cataline*." In the face of such example one can hardly find fault with the pupils. Such ingrained disrespect for the vernacular will never make accurate scholars of our pupils. If such are the results of the banishment of the spelling-book and the grammar-book from the schools — and surely no one can gainsay the justice of such conclusion — must we not, in all honesty, restore them to their legitimate places, even if we are branded as old fogies, non-progressive, and no admirers of the new education? Or do you prefer that this education shall be incidental and accidental?

The most illiterate German of your acquaintance will say with accurate judgment and logical power, "*Ich habe nur sechs gehabt*," and will justly wonder at your presumption in pretending to a knowledge of German, if you say: "*Ich nur habe sechs gehabt*." But cultivated professors in our universities say, "*I only had six*," and no one dares object, and possibly some of us fail to notice the incongruity.

Who was the man who, in days of old, rose in the audience to correct the pronunciation of one of the famous orators of Greece? Long may he be revered, and may the orator, who accepted the correction, also be held in lasting honor as an example for others, in later times, whose carelessness is, alas! but too evident.

Spelling should be taught somewhere. If a pupil comes to the secondary school without having acquired this essential accomplishment, something should be done for him at once. He should be made familiar with the *laws* of the language. The rules of English spelling should go hand in hand with all possible information derivable from the language to which it is indebted. A recently issued report of a library in one of our largest cities has occasion to use the word "collectible." Even Shakespeare's reputed little Latin and less Greek should suggest the origin of the word, and our indebtedness to the Latin form should be acknowledged by our carefully avoiding the spelling "collectable."

Some otherwise commendable teachers are inoculated with the idea that good spellers are born, not made. It is doubtless true that even Horace's oft-quoted line is to be taken only as intended by the poet, for even the best poet would hardly succeed in establishing a reputation among his fellow-men without a language in which to clothe, and by means of which to communicate, his poetical ideas. Such remarks from teachers to pupils are not likely to increase the ambition of the latter. Let them rather believe that accuracy is possible and that labor will bring about the desired result. Honorable teachers will strenuously avoid saying anything which will tend to throw disrespect upon our language. How dare any say that it has no rules for spelling, no rules for pronunciation, no grammar? The poor spellers should not for an instant think they will ever have their personal idiosyncrasies tolerated by scholars, even if legislative action should be secured in their favor. By royal edict the present is the first year of the twentieth century.

"*E pur se muove*," said Galileo.

The lexicographer Walker did an excellent work when he succeeded in formulating for use concise rules for spelling, accentuation, syllabication, etc. These rules for many years did yeoman's service in unifying the pronunciation of the ancient languages from an English standpoint, and also in unifying the pronunciation of English. When the colleges and secondary schools put aside the English pronunciation and adopted the one now in vogue, pupils and teachers alike soon lost the skillful

use of this codified knowledge, and doubtless many graduates from our colleges would be at a loss to tell why *v-a-r-i-a-b-l-e* spells *vāriable*, but *v-i-r-e-o* spells *vīreo*. To be sure, these laws can all be found in our English lexicons, but how many pupils are told where to find them? The change of the pronunciation of the dead languages was a pronounced and distinctive loss in the consequent weakness and uncertainty of English pronunciation. Whether the advantages of the change outweigh this great disadvantage is at least an open question.

This leads to my last contention, viz., that teachers should be students. Teachers of science must study to keep abreast of the times. The scientific expert of only a score of years ago would make but a poor showing as a teacher of science in any line today. The teacher of English should as emphatically be a student of English, and not altogether of English as a literature, but English as a language. The biologist and chemist and the physicist cannot satisfactorily perform this year's work by last year's schedule. No more should the teacher of English expect to do so. The teacher of English should know something of the languages to which our English is most largely indebted. His motto should possibly be *non multum sed multa*, for without a cursory knowledge of many contributing languages he can hardly satisfy the moderately inquisitive student. If this ideal is too high for possible attainment, it is at least not too high as an object to be aimed at, and thus there is always something beyond as an object of ambition for the devoted teacher; for the devoted teacher is the devoted student.

DISCUSSION

DR. J. J. BURNS, Defiance, O.—Of all the millions who have used that form of speech which King Alfred said is “Englysse ynemde,” the one who did most, and is yet doing most, to make others wish to speak correct English and to show them how to do it, put it into the mind of one of his fairest talkers to say, “If to do were as easy as to know what it were well to do, chapels had been churches,” and so following. If to have our high-school pupils use correct English were as easy as to know approximately what English they should use, then graduating essays, “good sentences and well pronounced,” would sound to the charmed ear as if written by the brilliant Portia herself.

What is “correct” English? Simply grammatical in the common significance of that term? Properly spelled, capital letters in every coign of vantage, commas and periods in their right places along the line of the writer's forward or devious march? This is well, if, as the good lady said about Christian perfection, “a body doesn't carry it too far.” But is it rank “burglary” to say that clearness and force in the English used by our pupils should be objects of more tender solicitude than careful avoidance of syntactical pitfalls? And a righteous end to aim at, especially in the still air of written English, to be such an arrangement of strong and weak words, of accented and unaccented syllables, as will make the composition easy to read, either aloud or silently, and consequently more pleasant to hear? I need not be informed that this paragraph is not in strictness upon the question, nor reminded that this same rhetorician admitted that it is easier to teach ten what to do than to be one of the ten to follow “mine own instruction.” I meekly return.

Correct English should be free, humanly speaking, from *slang*. I tacked on that semi-parenthesis because of some curious experience-in trying to learn from dictionaries and other reputable sources of information precisely what this horrid thing is, and where the clear line of demarkation may be found between slang and metaphor. A teacher friend of mine, who has been recently and highly promoted, and has found out already that

“ Uneasy lie the heads of all who rule;
His, most of all, whose kingdom is a school,”

wrote me these short Saxon vocables: “ Trouble is up to me ! ” Did he use slang ? If this is slang, will it be so when in a few years it will be met, along with “ from start to finish,” and other echoes from the local reporter’s lowly desk, upon the pages of dignified history ? But, shying away from this interesting and profitable study in language, and leaving it to makers of dictionaries to preserve the one-tenth of one per cent. of the slang of this generation for a tonic element in the literature of the next, I certainly am at peace with those who would have the speech of the young free from the muddy deluge of expressions which fall from the lips of adepts in this art as autumnal leaves strew the brooks in Valambrosa, and elsewhere. And along with these, which sometimes have the merit of being at least striking, I would have banished the falsehoods of this type : “ There is not a dull line in the book.” Such a book, unrelieved by passages of allaying dullness, it has not been my lot to read, and I am sure that no one of us contemplates — to use a local correspondent’s word — the writing of one. Byron did not wish to look upon a midnight all stars.

Worse than these hyperboles, which do little harm, nobody believing them, are the tinsel phrases, emptied of all meaning by frequent and inverted use : “ charming hostess,” “ dainty refreshments,” “ lovely coffee,” “ well-chosen words.” True, it would not be safe always to tell the truth ; but not all hostesses are charming, and coffee cannot be lovely.

If our pupils are to use correct English in oral recitation, in written essay, in conversation with their fellows, by some strategy or other we must make it the fashion, we must capture those who set the pace — I beg pardon — those to whom their comrades look with admiration and unconsciously follow. I have heard correct forms of speech mocked at.

Every class should be a class in English ; every recitation an exercise in good English. Not, of course, would I stop a pupil who is giving a mathematical demonstration to tell him that his unfortunate verb had somewhat failed to agree with his twin subjects “ connected by and ” — a rule in sad need of delimitation — or that his two negatives made an affirmative — which, as commonly taught, they do not do. The main thing now is the integrity of his argument ; but at the close of his recitation it were well to have a class symposium upon the better forms of expression and the sins that so easily beset one who is framing sentences while his whole attention is stretched toward the thing he has to say, not to how he is saying it.

In history or geography the teacher may be more exacting, and if a pupil is marshaling — telling in his own words — the events that led to the siege of Boston, or describing the climate of South Carolina, the clearness and correctness of his *expression* are as well worth looking into as the truth of what he utters.

To have our pupils use more correct English in the higher grades we must have better work done in the reading class, teaching the way to get the thought from the printed page and give it fair expression in the author’s words, and also frequent exercises in silent reading of paragraphs, to be tested by the pupil’s expressing the content thereof in his own best way.

In many schools the only stated effort to teach language is the grammar study. If by “ grammar ” we mean what the old definition pointed out as the path for our teachers to walk in — tho I do not recall that mine ever “ deviated into ” it — “ the art of speaking and writing ” and so forth — it is second to no line of class-room effort or effort beyond the

class. For this prime effort, however, there is little need of a grammar in the pupils' hands except as a book of reference. From the book abundant theory is taught, but this "art" is *practice*. Besides, in this grammar-book work there is a sad waste of precious time over fictions and trifles:

1. The first and second persons of nouns.
2. The gender of the first and second personal pronoun. As well speak of their latitude.
3. What adjectives may be compared and how. Matters of taste, not grammar.
4. The restricted use of the superlative. You must not use it, forsooth, unless you have counted your specimens and find them three; altho if a child have seen but two lions and these of unequal size, one of them is surely the largest lion he ever saw, and fancy the fond mother of two girls introducing you to her "older daughter"!
5. The kind of a word you must not allow a sentence to end with.
6. Grinding the regular verbs, saying the same word a half dozen times and calling the performance inflection.
7. Making diagrams of sentences with the righteous intention of causing the latter to illustrate the former.

If the teacher would admit that in the great file of sentences the correct oral reading is a sufficient analysis, time could be saved for practice in speaking and writing correctly.

There is a science of grammar. Lurking in the back part of some man's brain there may be an intelligible and true definition of *mode*, and a knowledge of the proper sequence of tenses; and up the stream of English there are interesting and illuminating facts waiting to brighten many a cloudy spot in grammar, but the neither mute nor inglorious fathers out in the "unpaved districts" who object to their children's studying grammar in the wonted fashion grumble wiser than they know.

Falstaff observed the "semblable coherence" of Justice Shallow's men's spirits and his; "It is certain that either wise bearing or ignorant carriage is caught one of another; therefore, let men take heed of their company."

This coherence is as semblable between teacher and pupils, if said pupils respect said teacher; and his errors they may grow into even without the condition given; for, reversing the Tennysonian line, we note that things in English heard are mightier than things seen.

One article of my creed expresses the value of the practice of having pupils of all grades persistently intrust to the sacred care and keeping of memory, poems upon which Time has set his stamp of approval, and one reason for my faith is the results I have seen upon the pupils' taste in English and their desire to use it properly.

I know that my time in this discussion has passed into the pluperfect.

Let all our pupils have good exemplars thru all their school years in the fine art of speaking and writing English correctly, and let them have much, very much, more practice in the same.

M. L. BRITTAI, county school commissioner, Atlanta, Ga.—There is one great advantage that the teacher of English has over his fellow-instructors—he is never put upon the defensive, as is the case with those who preside over other departments, Latin and Greek for example. It is true that the teaching of formal grammar is occasionally derided, one high authority going so far as to claim that the English is a grammarless tongue; but of so much importance is it that it is commonly understood that every department must lend it aid, at least to the extent of correcting errors committed in the classroom. There are two main purposes to be derived from the study of English: (1) the communication of ideas—strictly speaking, the material of the grammarian and philologist, and hence falling within the domain of science; (2) familiarity with good literature—rather the department of the literary critic and extending into the realms of art.

Thoughts, no matter how great, are useless to the world unless expressed. This may be done in two ways — in oral or written fashion. For the first, a knowledge of articulation, modulation, and emphasis is required; for the second, penmanship and spelling; while a knowledge of the meaning of words and facility in their use is demanded for both. Hence the necessity for composition exercises, oral and written, and also for formal grammar.

In the earlier years of the child's work he learns largely thru imitation, and here a great difficulty presents itself: how to make the six or eight hours of correct instruction at school overbalance the careless, and oftentimes illiterate, home influence. For there can be no Sunday speech or holiday dress, as is the case with our clothes. The ease with which one slips into slang and provincialism, and the difficulty with which one recovers from early errors, make the task of the teacher at this point unceasing. In his earlier years the child learns mainly thru the ear, and hence the necessity for him to be surrounded by an atmosphere of correct speech. Later, when he drinks more deeply at the well of the world's literature, the ear is aided by the eye.

But oral work is too intangible and elusive; it is necessary to reinforce it with written exercises in order to secure more exactness and precision. The two may be used together with most advantage, after oral narration and description requiring reproduction in written form. These exercises should be criticised at the next lesson, and excellences as well as defects pointed out. Excellences most certainly, for the average boy needs much encouragement with his work. Generally he feels that he has nothing to say, and does not know how to say that. Love for the child and appreciation of the work is the first requisite of a teacher in this department. The pedagog who persisted in seeing nothing but the omission of commas in the teaching of English ought to get out at once. Of course, perfect English is not to be expected in early life; it comes only, when it comes at all, after long years of effort and discipline; and what a subtle delicacy there is about correct and elegant expression! How it delights the soul, like the sweet aroma that comes from the rose leaf!

I have a criticism to make on the arrangement of the course in English in the average high school. Too frequently it is not planned with reference to any sort of orderly sequence or congruity. The pupil is rushed aimlessly from England to America, from Alexander Pope to Webster's Bunker Hill oration, "from the shadowy fascination of *Midsummer Night's Dream* to a rude awakening in the *Biglow Papers*." I do not mean that chronological order should always be observed, but I do mean that the systematic study of English should be substituted for the desultory reading so much in vogue in some of our high schools.

And another thing: it is unreasonable to permit one's patriotism to overbalance the judgment in choosing between English and American authors. American literature is only about a hundred years old, and we, too, are joint heirs with our brethren across the Atlantic to that literature, from Caedmon to Tennyson, that has circled the globe with a music far grander than England's martial drum-beat.

It seems to me that it is not unreasonable to expect the grammar schools to cover the field of American letters, in so far as it may be appropriate to the development of the child, and leave the high-school teacher free to take up the subject of modern English and go backward, proceeding from the familiar to the less familiar. Starting with the writers of the Victorian age, an excellent plan would be to take up different periods, as, for example, the Romantic School, the Puritan period, the Elizabethan writers, and the Renaissance. If the chronological order is not preferred, some other division — as the Lake School, English essayists, nineteenth-century fiction, etc. — may be chosen.

But, after all, the details of method are completely subordinate to love for the child and the work. The teacher of literature whose pulse does not beat quicker before a masterpiece of art — in unison with the "thoughts that breathe and words that burn" — should change his business. To substitute for this passion narrow linguistic drill will only bring

up pupils to hate the name of the grand old masters and to lose all the incentives to conduct and achievement furnished the human race by their high ideas of beauty, honor, duty, and love. For love is the master-passion of mankind and, more than all other incentives, can be used to inspire the human race to action.

*DISCUSSION OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON
COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN JOINT
SESSION OF SECONDARY AND HIGHER DEPARTMENTS*

At the joint meeting of the Departments of Secondary and Higher Education, held at the Citadel Church, Charleston, Thursday afternoon, July 12, in the absence of Dr. A. F. Nightingale, Dr. B. A. Hinsdale opened the discussion on the report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements. Dr. Hinsdale said in substance :

It is necessary, first of all, to understand what the Report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements is. The title is used in two senses. It means, first, the pamphlet of one hundred and eighty odd pages bearing this title, published by the National Educational Association. It means, secondly, the first forty-nine pages of this pamphlet, or so much of it as appears over the signatures of the committee. Like the Committee of Ten and the Committee on Rural Schools, the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements called into its service men who are especially familiar with various parts of the subject, and then published the facts, views, recommendations, and arguments so obtained as information, no matter whether agreeing with them or not. Generally, the committee appealed to existing organizations or societies, as the American Philological Association and the American Historical Association, and did not, like the Committee of Ten, organize special conferences, or, like the Committee on Rural Schools, depend wholly upon individual experts. The material so obtained, making more than two-thirds of the pamphlet, differs considerably in quality, but much of it is of the highest interest and importance. For none of this matter, however, is the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements to be held responsible, save in the indirect sense that has been explained. The committee is to be credited, or charged, with what appears in its own report, no more and no less, except in so far as it may have given formal approval to some of this supplementary material.

The next thing to be explained is the point of view that the committee adopted in its investigation ; or what the committee sought to accomplish in its report.

To approach the inquiry on the negative side, the committee did not attempt to make out a list of entrance requirements for the colleges and universities of the country or for any of them. A majority of the members, and probably all of the members, looked upon that as a vain undertaking. Requirements for admission to college depend upon varying causes and conditions, such as the general state of culture in the community whence the institution draws its students, industrial, economical, and financial circumstances, and the history and resources of the institution itself. Accordingly, such requirements vary more or less, and will continue so to vary. Attempts to bring about mechanical uniformity are necessarily, not only ineffective, but mischievous. No doubt it is very desirable to eliminate some of the divergences existing at present ; but artificial attempts to accomplish that end would be barren of results. So the committee proposed to leave the colleges and universities just as free in this matter, in the large sense of the language, as they are at present.

Passing to the positive side of the subject, the committee sought to do two principal things : first, to set the stamp of its approval upon certain subjects or studies that it deemed suitable to be required for college-entrance purposes ; and, secondly, to provide a

measure or unit to be employed in determining the amount or quantity of such subjects or studies as shall be required by the college of the school.

It will, therefore, be understood that all the subjects or studies formally approved by the committee are, in its judgment, proper ones for the higher institutions to demand of students seeking admission to their freshman classes. This does not mean that these institutions are necessarily to require all these studies; that would be preposterous, owing to the amount of work that the committee approved; it means rather that the colleges and universities should, in the judgment of the committee, choose the studies that they require from the list of studies so approved.

In the next place, the committee adopted as its unit of measure four secondary-school periods, or recitations, a week, running thru an entire school year. If a school is in session forty weeks and assigns forty-five minutes to a recitation, then the total value of a unit would be 160 recitations of three-quarters of an hour each in length. Two units would be twice that amount of work, three units thrice, and so on. The committee insisted that, with two exceptions, which are more apparent than real, no requirement should be made that is less than a full unit. This insistence springs out of the fact that, in the judgment of the committee, the rule now followed in many schools of making small requirements tends to weakness and superficiality in scholarship. To take a concrete case, the committee believes that if a college is to require physics, it should require at least four periods of physics running thru a school year; or if history, it should require not less than four periods of history for the same limit of time. The two exceptions are botany and zoology. Owing to the common qualities or nature of these two studies, in their elementary stages, it was thought that they might very properly be thrown together, making one unit, neither one to be given, however, or at least to be counted with credit, without the other. When one or more full units in any subject have been required, there is, of course, no objection, unless it may be a practical one, to adding fractions, as halves; which will explain the appearance of fractions where they appear in the committee's recommendations.

In the discussions at Chicago it was suggested that the function of the committee was similar to that of a mint, its business being to send out an educational coinage or money in which colleges can measure and students pay their college-entrance charges. Two things are involved—the approval of metals or money-material, and the establishment of a definite unit, which may be called the dollar of this new coin of the realm.

The committee no more supposed that all the secondary schools would attempt to teach all the studies approved than it supposed that every college would demand them all. So there is room for electives on the one part, as there is for alternatives on the other. The great secondary schools may properly attempt to teach all these studies, but the smaller schools will not wisely follow their example; on the other hand, they will confine themselves to the studies that they can teach best, just as the colleges will arrange their alternatives with reference to their own peculiar conditions. Still the committee did not propose to leave the whole matter open to the higher institutions, on the one hand, or to the secondary schools, on the other. It believed firmly that certain studies in certain minimum measures should be found in the requirements for admission to college to be demanded of every student, no matter what institution he may seek or what course of study he may propose to take. The committee expressed its faith on this point in the following resolutions:

“That, while the committee recognizes as suitable for recommendation by the colleges for admission the several studies enumerated in this report, and while it also recognizes the principles of large liberty to students in secondary schools, it does not believe in unlimited election, but especially emphasizes the importance of a certain number of constants in all secondary schools and in all requirements for admission to college.

“That the committee recommends that the number of constants be recognized in the following proportion, viz.: four units in foreign languages (no language accepted in less

than two units), two units in mathematics, two in English, one in history, and one in science."

These constants together make ten units, and the ratio that they bear to the total requirement will be determined by the total number of units required for admission to a given college. Thus the ratio may be 10 to 16, 10 to 18, 10 to 20, according as the college shall require sixteen, eighteen, or twenty units.

Much more than has been explained in this statement will be found in the Report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements. These, however, are the primary idea underlying that report, and so are essential to a proper understanding of it. Examinations will show that some of the recommendations made by the committee, no matter how valuable they may be, are not organically connected with these primary and essential ideas. The report of the committee itself, therefore, consists of two parts, viz., those that are essential to the general scheme or plan that it propounds, and those that are not essential to this scheme or plan, but that stand on their own footing.

PRESIDENT WILLIAM H. BLACK of Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Mo., stated that he considered the Report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements as one of the most valuable contributions to our educational literature. He called attention, however, to Resolution XIII, which he thought susceptible of an interpretation which might lend direct approval to an institution which he doubted if this department is ready to indorse—the so-called commercial high school. It would be possible, under the apparent sanction of this resolution, to quote this department of the National Educational Association as giving its authorization to this institution. The experiment at Philadelphia and the plan adopted at Chicago are not sufficiently worked out to warrant the approval of this body.

The commercial high school is not sufficiently developed to be called an institution, is of doubtful merit, and should not receive the indorsement of this department. Dr. Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard, says that the so-called commercial high schools seldom train anybody for service beyond that of a clerk. He advocates what he calls the "upper commercial school," resting on secondary education. He claims that two or three years after completing the high school might be given to such a course. Dr. C. A. Herrick, in the supplement to the last *Yearbook of the Herbart Society*, cautions the advocates of the commercial high school lest they commit crime in the name of educational progress. Dean Ashley of New York University, before the American Social Science Association, quotes ex-President Dwight of Yale as saying that specialization for youth has become excessive, and that, if the best education is to continue, this tendency must be counteracted. In the *Educational Review* Dr. Jones, of Hobart College, declares that the high-school graduate is not mature, has not developed the power of self-direction, and is unfitted to go without guidance.

These are all sound positions and go to show that this department cannot afford to approve the commercial high-school idea. First, the students in the secondary schools are not mature enough to undertake such studies; second, it is the wrong time and place to undertake specialization; third, the subjects can be taught only by processes of cramming, which is bad pedagogics; and fourth, it will have a tendency to divert the students from the pursuit of an education into the lower forms of non-productive industry. If there is anything in Lowell's statement that the United States is the most common-schooled and the least educated nation in the world, let us beware lest we make matters worse instead of better. I strongly support the report with the above qualification. I am the more free to do this because I do not find the commercial studies discussed in the part of the report in which the secondary subjects are expounded. Hence I doubt if Resolution XIII was very carefully considered in all its bearings.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The first session of the department was called to order in the Citadel Square Baptist Church at 3:30 P. M. by President Jerome H. Raymond. In the absence of the secretary, Oscar J. Craig, of Missoula, Mont., Richard Jones, of Vanderbilt University, Tenn., was elected acting secretary.

President Charles F. Thwing of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, O., delivered an address on "The Satisfactions of Being a College President." Discussion was opened by President James H. Baker of the State University of Colorado.

The second address, on "State Aid to Higher Education in Europe and America," was presented by President Joseph Swain of Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. The paper was discussed by President James K. Powers of the University of Alabama; President James H. Baker of the University of Colorado; Dr. Richard Jones, of Vanderbilt University, Tennessee; Professor I. W. Howerth, of the University of Chicago; and Professor C. C. Thach, of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Ala.

JOINT SESSION OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY DEPARTMENTS

THURSDAY, JULY 12

The joint session of the Departments of Secondary and Higher Education met in the Citadel Square Baptist Church at 3:30 P. M. President Jerome H. Raymond of the Department of Higher Education was elected chairman, and Professor Richard Jones, of Vanderbilt University, secretary.

The Report of the Committee on College-Entrance Requirements was taken up for discussion as per action at the joint session of these departments the year before at Los Angeles, Cal.

In the absence of the chairman of the committee, Dr. A. F. Nightingale, of Chicago, the discussion was introduced by Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, of Ann Arbor, Mich., a member of the committee, and was continued by Principal J. Remsen Bishop, of Cincinnati, O., also a member of the committee, and President William H. Black of Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Mo.

President James H. Baker of the University of Colorado offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Departments of Secondary and Higher Education of the National Educational Association commend the report of the special Committee on College-Entrance Requirements as offering a basis for the practical solution of the problems of college admission, and recommend the report to the colleges of the country.

After discussion by Principal E. W. Coy of the Hughes High School, Cincinnati, O.; Principal J. Remsen Bishop, of Cincinnati, O.; Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, of the University of Michigan; Principal Reuben Post Halleck of the Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.; and President Joseph Swain of the University of Indiana, the resolution was unanimously adopted.

The session adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13

The department met at 3:30 P. M., President Raymond in the chair.

A Committee on Nominations was appointed, consisting of

James H. Baker, of Colorado.

Richard Jones, of Tennessee.

W. M. Beardshear, of Iowa.

The committee reported the following nominations for officers for the ensuing year, viz.:

For *President*—Charles F. Thwing, Cleveland, O.

For *Vice-President*—William M. Beardshear, Ames, Ia.

For *Secretary*—William H. Black, Marshall, Mo.

A paper on "An Ethnic View of Higher Education" was read by Dr. I. W. How-erth, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. President William M. Beardshear read a paper on "The Function of the Land-Grant College in American Education."

The session then adjourned.

RICHARD JONES,

Acting Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE SATISFACTIONS OF BEING A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

PRESIDENT CHARLES F. THWING, WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY,
CLEVELAND, O.

[AN ABSTRACT]

President Thwing spoke of seven opportunities which college presidents enjoy, and which constitute the "Satisfactions of Being a College President." He said in part:

1. The first satisfaction which I shall name of being a college president is the opportunity of living with youth. Youth has at least three characteristics: it is vital, it is hopeful, it is picturesque. Even if the picturesque side of youth should show itself in forms either ridiculous or admirable, it is always interesting.

2. The opportunity of living with scholars and gentlemen. The human environment is of larger significance and gives larger joy than any environment of nature.

3. The opportunity of meeting the best people on their best side. The people who send their sons and daughters to college are, on the whole, the best people in the country. They never show their best side, and their best side is a very good one, better than when they are talking with a college president about the education of their children. The college president is also called upon to associate with teachers of all grades and from many parts of the country, and the teachers of the United States are among the best people.

4. A fourth satisfaction is found in doing a work that unites the

executive and the scholastic, the practical and the theoretical elements. Executive work tends to impoverish reflective and scholarly ability. Scholastic work tends to remove one from humanity. The union of the two types tends to keep one in touch with the great human work of a very human world, and also tends to give intellectual enrichment. If the college president is a mere executive, he becomes intellectually thin. The college president who is, as are most college presidents, at once an executive and a scholar is doing the most delightful work that can be done.

5. Another satisfaction of being a college president consists in the opportunity of transmuting wealth into character. Wealth does not constitute a college; but no college can be constituted without wealth. Wealth is the embodiment of the power necessary for making a college. The college president is to be an avenue thru which wealth flows into the college. Wealth may be transmuted into truth, into righteousness, into beauty, into joy, into human character. In this process of the transmutation of the lower value into the higher the college president bears a necessary part.

6. Another element in the satisfaction lies in the opportunity of associating one's life and work with a lasting institution, the American college. Individuals die and are forgotten. Institutions live. The college president who puts his life into a college is sure of an earthly immortality. Colleges are seldom named after their presidents, but presidents always live in their colleges, and not a few colleges cannot live the worthiest life without worthy presidents. Not to mention the living, one can say that Woolsey's twenty-five years at Yale are to live for centuries in the university at New Haven, and also that McCosh's life at Princeton is to live so long as Princeton lives.

7. The last satisfaction of being a college president lies in doing somewhat for the nation and the world thru giving inspiration, training, and equipment to American youth. The value of the American college to the American youth lies in some five elements: the discipline of the regular studies, the inspiration of friendships, the enrichment of general reading, the culture from association with scholars, private reading, and literary societies. The most important of these elements is the inspiration which is derived from association with men of culture. The college president ought to be the chief of all these personal influences touching the character of the students. He lives in the lives of other men so long as they live, and he lives also in the lives of other men so long as the lives of his students touch the lives of other men.

These seven opportunities represent the mighty satisfactions which the college president enjoys. They help to constitute his work as one of the most interesting and happiest works which it is given to any man to do,

STATE AID TO HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE AND AMERICA

JOSEPH SWAIN, PRESIDENT OF INDIANA UNIVERSITY, BLOOMINGTON, IND.

Higher education has been promoted by the state from the early times until the present. The first university of the world was the Museum of Alexandria, supported from the public treasury under the Ptolemies. The Museum of Alexandria had a great library, zoölogical gardens, a learned faculty, and other equipments, all provided by the state. It rendered an incalculable service to humanity by advancing science, and preserving and handing down to succeeding generations the knowledge and culture of the past; and the fact that the university once existed is even today the chief glory of Alexandria.

State support of higher education became the policy of the Roman empire. It was recognized that if the state would have leaders it must have trained men.

Throughout the length and breadth of the vast Roman empire, whether at Rome, Lyons, or Athens in the West, or at Constantinople, Antioch, or Alexandria in the east, higher education became the policy of the state; to cherish and strengthen it was felt to be among the foremost duties of the emperors; to neglect it was to cripple the empire; for the power of Rome was founded largely on her superior civilization, won by the superior knowledge of her governors.¹

In the Middle Ages there was perhaps no greater man than Charlemagne. His proudest title to distinction was his patronage of all forms of higher education. His quick eye discovered that nothing would so raise his Franks among surrounding peoples, nothing give them such lasting prominence and power, as superior culture. Today, as of old, Charlemagne is honored as highly because he was the friend of Alcuin as because he was the first of mediæval paladins. This work begun by Charlemagne is continued in France today. France maintains fifteen state universities at an annual expense to the government of about fifteen million francs. In addition to these institutions eleven others receive in all about two million francs.

By the promulgation of the law of 1835 the government of Belgium has actively developed and strengthened its institutions of higher learning. The government appropriated to the state universities of Ghent and Liège in 1891 the sum of \$453,154. Each of these institutions has the four faculties of arts, science, law, and medicine.

EDUCATION IN SWEDEN

Education in Sweden is chiefly an affair of the state. The universities of Upsala and Lund are both state institutions. Dr. Lagerstedt, in speaking of Swedish education, says:

¹ J. EDWARD SIMMONS, *Education in France*.

The universities of Europe generally are expected to fill certain requirements demanded by the state. The state requires from its officials and private citizens proposing to enter certain important vocations—that of medicine, for instance—that they give evidences of possessing the knowledge and skill necessary to their special calling. Now, in some cases, the university teaching and the ordinary examinations have been considered as serving this additional public end. In other cases the universities have had to undertake the organization of courses of instruction required by the state for the purpose just mentioned, and the testing of proficiency therein by special examinations—civic or state examinations, as they are called. This part of university work naturally has a less scientific character, it is more elementary, and the object of the examination is to ascertain that the students have attained certain fixed standards of knowledge rather than to ascertain the results of deep scientific study. The practical importance of this part of the universities' work may sometimes offer temptations subordinate to their strictly scientific work, and make the higher examinations, the university examinations proper, by technicalities or regulation, too much like the civic or state examinations. The present regulations and arrangements of the Swedish universities seem to avoid this danger.

EDUCATION IN GERMANY

The regular state appropriations to the German universities in 1891–92 were \$3,606,306. This amount is not exceptional. Liberality is a well-established policy, and the appropriations have increased from year to year with the demands.

No better illustration of the advantages of higher education to the state need be given than the wonderful advances of the German empire in the present century, and these advances are conceded to be due to the establishment and support by the state of her public education. This was shown in a marked way in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870. To those systems of general training, of which higher education by the state is a part, is due the success of Germany in this war.

The achievements of this war are not to be considered the mere result of a levy *en masse* under the command of a great military genius; they are rather an application to military affairs of the whole intelligence of a nation of extraordinary mental and moral culture. They are the result of no qualities that can be drilled into any army in a month or a year; but of those which are interwoven into the very tissue of the nation's thinking and feeling. They come not from the genius of a few alone; but rather from the genius of the few united with the superior training and culture of the many. They are the fruit of an application to military affairs of the actual *character* of the nation.

But what is the Prussian culture of which I speak? In general, it may be answered that it consists of those attainments which are acquired by the universal adoption of the truth that, whether you want a man for war or for peace, for a profession or for a trade, there is no way in which you can make so much of him as by training him, and training him not in parts, but as a whole; and, furthermore, that in all the contests of life, other things being equal, the trained men are sure to attain the highest success. On this theory, not as simple sentiment, but as a solid foundation on which to rear the whole fabric of society, the lawmakers of Germany went to work.¹

Germany's rapid advance to commercial rivalry with England is due in large part to the absorption of university men into the trades.

Oxford and Cambridge have received large contributions from royal favors. The University of Edinburgh has received large support from

¹ CHARLES KENDALL ADAMS.

the British government. Private wealth did early what the state might have done later. The existence of colonial state universities is ample evidence that the English spirit favors higher education by the state.

IN THE AMERICAN COLONIES

To the early American colonists learning was a trust which had been carried across the sea to be fostered and handed down to posterity, and it was sacred alike to the church and to the society of the new community. The first schools in this country were copies of the English schools. The grammar schools of the old country furnished models for the grammar schools in the colonies. Rugby, Eton, and Westminster were patterns for the academies; and the English classical schools which were shaped by mediæval influences were closely followed by Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Columbia, and Dartmouth. But the financial and intellectual forces of the old country were lacking in the new, and the American schools could not rival their foreign prototypes. In this condition of affairs the colonial government came to the support of the schools and furnished an income by means of taxation.

Thruout the colonial period Harvard University was largely dependent on the colonial court of Massachusetts. It has been recently pointed out that the colonial legislature before the end of the eighteenth century made more than one hundred different appropriations for the colleges, on an average as many as one every two years.

The state gave in all \$595,797 to Harvard College, which sum then represented ten times as much to Harvard College as a similar gift today.

Like Harvard in Massachusetts, Yale College in Connecticut received constant support from the legislature of the colony in which it was situated. The appropriations took the form of land grants, taxes, bills of credit, and the like. At the end of the last century the first President Dwight declared that the state of Connecticut had been the chief benefactor of Yale College.

Columbia College in New York grew out of King's College founded in 1754 under the royal government. Both King's College and Columbia College received state appropriations.

CHURCH AND STATE

In the early colonial education the church and state were closely allied. The dominant spirit was benevolence. The whole emphasis was upon moral elevation and the support of religion. Yet the colonial government held it a sacred duty to support schools, and even create them if necessary. This policy was more marked toward higher institutions of learning than toward more elementary institutions. After the Declaration of Independence there was a movement in favor of universities "created, controlled, and supported" by the state. There was a demand for a

political education, "an education of the individual as a sovereign citizen." In the constitution of 1776 Pennsylvania provided for one or more universities, and in the same year North Carolina made a like provision. Many other states followed with similar constitutional provisions or special legislation.

Nearly every state constitution has a section relating to the encouragement of higher education. Several constitutions have provisions recognizing certain schools as state universities, while twenty-four states have established state universities by state laws.

College property, in some cases the property of professors, was very early exempted from taxation. The state not only recognizes the necessity of higher education for the elevation of its subjects, but by exemption from taxation it encourages private and denominational schools as well as state schools. There is now, of course, a wider differentiation of state and non-state schools, a wider separation of church and state in matters of education.

That the state should provide higher education was a doctrine held by Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Franklin, Monroe, and later Edward Everett and all American statesmen of the first order; and such weighty authority has done much to promote public higher education. The belief of Jefferson that the university is as much a public trust as the primary schools is one that is finding practical acceptance in the development of state institutions in the West and Northwest.

THE ORDINANCE OF 1787

From an educational point of view the ordinance of 1787 was one of the most important documents ever penned. This ordinance declares that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and happiness of mankind, schools, as the means of education, shall forever be encouraged." Following the spirit of this declaration, the government, by contract with the Ohio Company, reserved two townships of land for the support of Ohio University at Athens. Later Ohio received another township, which was used to endow Miami University. Altho no general law was passed on this subject, the precedent of the ordinance of 1787 became a national policy. After the year 1800 each state admitted into the union, except three, obtained two or more townships of land for the establishment of a university.

It is sometimes said that the educational provision of the great ordinance refers to the common schools only. This idea is without foundation. Both the prevailing sentiment of the time in favor of the promotion by public aid to secondary and higher institutions, and the subsequent action of the members who adopted the ordinance, justify this statement. The clause in the northwestern ordinance was substantially copied from the constitution of Massachusetts, adopted in 1780, in which chap. v is

entitled "The University at Cambridge and Encouragement of Literature, etc." This new mandate must be interpreted by the evident meaning of the old one from which it was copied. A few days after the adoption of the ordinance of 1787 Congress placed its own interpretation upon it, by making an appropriation for higher education in the territory of Ohio.

Washington regretted the habit in his time of American youths going to Europe to receive their college training. It was that American boys might be educated at home that he gave money to found a national university, and hoped Congress would establish it and adequately support it.

JEFFERSON AND STATE AID TO EDUCATION

Jefferson saw very clearly the necessity for public higher education in the United States. He had observed that never in the history of the world had higher education been successful except when it had been established and, at least during its childhood and youth, been encouraged and supported by all the forces in the state. He saw that colleges and universities had been everywhere established and mainly supported by the church during that long period when the church and the state came to be separated; higher education, unless already adequately endowed by the church, had dwindled wherever it had not been taken up by the state. It was for these reasons that Jefferson not only founded the University of Virginia and provided for its support at public expense, but regarded the service he had thus rendered as one of such importance and significance that he directed the fact of his being the founder of the University of Virginia to be placed on his tombstone, where it may be seen at Monticello. Jefferson was prouder of the fact that he was "father of the University of Virginia" than that he was president of the United States.

Before 1821 it was estimated that more than six million acres of land had been appropriated by Congress to the purposes of higher education.

These gifts have been increased by the Morrill Act of 1862, by the Hatch Act in 1889, and by the Supplemental Morrill Act in 1890. Thus no state has been admitted to the union since the adoption of the constitution that has not received from the general government aid forming the basis of the establishment and support of higher education in substantial accordance with the policy which existed thruout the colonial period.

STATE EDUCATION IN THE WEST AND NORTHWEST

Following the colonial policy and the principles of the ordinance of 1787, the western and northwestern states have developed their state universities very rapidly and continuously. The fact that the idea of state support has steadily grown is sufficiently shown by the illustrations given above. There is another fact that is worthy of consideration, namely, the rapid growth in attendance. I quote the following:

During the years from 1885 to 1895 in the eight New England colleges — Amherst, Bowdoin, Brown, Dartmouth, Harvard, Williams, Wesleyan, Yale — the increase in the

number of students was 20 per cent. In the eight representative colleges of the north central states—Beloit, Carleton, Cornell, Hillsdale, Iowa College, Lawrence, Ripon, St. John's—the increase during the same period was $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; in the eight representative state universities of California, Illinois, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Wisconsin the total number of students in 1885 was 4,230; in 1895 the number was 13,500, an increase in ten years of 320 per cent. Thus it appears that the rate of growth in the state universities has been sixteen times as great as the rate of growth in the New England colleges and universities, and twenty-two times as great as the rate in the colleges in the north central states.

In 1900 these same eight universities have more than 18,000 students in attendance.

The state of Michigan has been a leader and an example to all surrounding states. The management has been excellent and the legislature has been liberal. In thirty years, from 1867 to 1897, the state appropriations to the university have amounted to \$3,018,004. This sum does not include the large sums given to the agricultural and normal schools. The total income of the university last year was \$533,524.

California has given in the aggregate \$1,901,702 to her state university. The total income for 1898-99 was \$485,175. In addition to the direct appropriations, the state of California in the early days gave certain swamp lands for the creation of a "permanent endowment fund." These lands sold for \$811,500. The income in twenty-three years has amounted to \$1,150,000; state appropriation, \$1,901,500; total, \$3,863,202. Thus nearly four million dollars have been contributed by California for the foundation and income of her state university.

The *World Almanac* for 1900 gives the total income of the University of Wisconsin as \$426,663; of the University of Illinois, \$379,424; of the University of Ohio, \$277,593; of the University of Minnesota, \$396,177; of the University of Missouri, \$176,821; of the University of Iowa, \$148,377; of the University of Nebraska, \$287,000. There are not fewer than forty-five colleges and universities supported by the state.

The present year there have been between eighteen and nineteen thousand students in the eight representative state universities. Thus the increase in the past five years in the attendance in these institutions has been greater than the total number in them fifteen years ago.

It thus appears that the policy of state support of higher education has been the accepted policy for centuries in Europe, that it had an independent growth in America, was established as a colonial policy, adopted by Congress, and has been accepted as the national policy of the United States.

DISCUSSION

PRESIDENT JAMES K. POWERS of the University of Alabama said in substance that, in addition to the aid given by the state directly to state institutions for higher education, the state also contributed indirectly to denominational and private institutions in

exempting their property from taxation. In many cases this was a very considerable sum. He further said that there was another point at which the state touched higher education, namely, in the partnership that existed in the matter of conferring degrees and awarding diplomas.

No institution conferred a degree except by virtue of a charter granted by the state. For this reason the states should carefully scrutinize the applications for charters and supervise the courses of study leading to degrees. Diplomas were valueless except in so far as they represent work, culture; and yet, thruout this country, except in a few states, degrees were conferred by institutions that had neither equipment nor endowment adequate for the work. They were in many cases unable to support faculties capable of giving instruction leading to the degrees conferred by them. Of the 480 colleges listed by Dr. William T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, as having the power to confer the bachelor's degree upon men, an examination of those in a number of southern states showed that if the power to confer such degrees were limited to those institutions possessed of property amounting to \$100,000, the list would be reduced nearly one-half.

He cited the board of regents of the University of the State of New York, an organization more than 100 years old, as having done a great work for that state in this matter. No institution in New York was permitted to confer the bachelor's degree unless it was possessed of property to the amount of \$500,000.

The establishment of a standard of \$100,000 as a requisite in institutions would surely be a low standard, and yet it would be far better than the present chaotic condition existing in most of the states of the union. Bills chartering institutions coming before legislatures are oftentimes considered local bills, and as such passed as a matter of courtesy without scrutiny. These bills authorize the conferring of divers and sundry degrees. Such bills before passage should be referred to some careful organization that would see that before passage the institution seeking the charter possessed equipment in the way of buildings, museums, laboratories, and libraries, and an income sufficient to guarantee the employment and perpetuity of a faculty. In this way, and in this way only, can we hope to make college degrees worth what on their faces they represent.

He instanced three cases of offers to purchase degrees from the University of Alabama within the last three years. One came from London, England, and was in substance as follows: "For the degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Alabama at the approaching commencement I will pay to any interest named by you the sum of \$500." Another came from Germany and was similar to the first, couched in almost the same language, except that, instead of fixing the sum at \$500, the writer said that he would give to any interest named any sum not exceeding \$500. The similarity of the language used indicates that these parties had possibly been coached by someone familiar with methods in some parts of this country.

English universities are not open to criticism as to laxness in conferring degrees. But it is said that in some German universities an American can get a doctor's degree on work reckoned as inadequate for the same degree for a German. The third offer was from this country, and offered a small sum for the degree of doctor of divinity, stating that he could get it for much less from another institution which he named. These instances were merely cited to show that there was necessity for vigorous action among the colleges and universities of this country in this matter.

PROFESSOR RICHARD JONES, of Vanderbilt University.—President Powers has spoken of the desirability of some control over the granting of degrees. In the state of New York this desirable result is secured thru the University of the State of New York, or the regents' office. The university has control of all higher education in the state, including the high schools, colleges, law schools, medical schools, dental schools, business schools, etc. The charters for all these institutions are granted, not by the legislature ordinarily, but by the University of the State of New York. The university was

established in 1787, and its permanence is secured by constitutional provisions. The regents are elected for life by the state legislature in the same manner as United States senators are elected. It seems likely, therefore, that this method of state control, not only over the granting of degrees, but over higher education in general, will be permanent.

The university exercises this control indirectly rather than directly; that is to say, the university establishes the standard for the degree of B.A. in the state of New York by establishing a standard for admission to the colleges, namely, a four-years' high-school course or its equivalent. The university also determines the standard for admission to the high schools. Therefore, without directly interfering with the work of any particular institution, the university does in fact exercise a good deal of influence in maintaining a high standard for the degree of B.A. Furthermore, the university determines the standard for admission to all professional schools, which is, namely, a four-years' high-school course or its equivalent. One cannot enter the law schools or the medical schools of the state of New York without first taking a high-school course.

The relations between the University of the State of New York, which is a purely administrative body and not a teaching body, and the colleges of the state, are harmonious and satisfactory. The colleges co-operate gladly with the university in maintaining the standard. The university calls together the presidents of the colleges and confers with them respecting proper standards of admission and of graduation. In this way the ordinances of the university are a legalized expression of the will of the colleges. Those institutions which are established primarily for pecuniary profit sometimes object to the control exercised over them, but the endowed institutions doing a high grade of college work welcome the control over the granting of degrees which is exercised by the University of the State of New York.

PROFESSOR I. W. HOWERTH, University of Chicago.—There is one thought which has occurred to me during the progress of this discussion which may possibly be worth presenting, and that is that the final justification of the demand for state aid in education is not to be found in the nature of the state, but in the character of the education provided. State assistance in education is almost an inevitable result of state organization; for at the very inception of the state a state or national ideal is projected, and education is seized upon as an obvious means of realizing that ideal. It is conceivable, however, that the character of this ideal, which becomes the educational aim, is such as not to warrant the demand for state assistance in movement toward it thru the work of the schools. The ideal of the American people, for instance, is democratic, while that of Germany is imperialistic. If, now, for one reason or another, the ideal fostered by our schools should become un-American, assuming the correctness of our present ideal, we should not be justified in calling on the state to help us along. The function of the sect in matters of education, to use another illustration, is diminishing, because we are outgrowing the sectarian ideal. State aid to sectarian education fails to find justification solely because of the character of the education which the sect provides. It is conceivable that a similar situation might arise with regard to the state.

If, then, the demand for state aid in education is justified only by the character of the education provided, and the character of the education is largely determined by the state or national aim, the important influence of the common ideals of a state upon the work of the schools may be clearly perceived. It is all-important that these ideals be correct.

It may be interesting to notice in this connection that, while state and national ideals should remotely blend into one, they are not now, and have not been, the same. They originate at different points of departure and evolve, in the case of civilized nations, in one general direction. But they are often behind the real requirements of the time. In the past, for instance, the struggle for existence between different types of

states has been so severe that the national ideal embodied only the interests of the national group. Education was justified in fostering an intensely national spirit. Today, however, the struggle between nations has been greatly modified. A different kind of education is therefore needed. Our ideals have not changed *pari passu* with the changes brought about by commercial, social, and scientific intercourse. Much of what we call patriotism in our schools is consequently nothing more than national arrogance or racial hatred. It is possible that the ideals we strive to realize thru the schools may lag so far behind the real demands of the times that a demand for state aid to common-school education would find no better basis than the demand of a religious denomination for corporate assistance in carrying on its work. The danger, of course, is remote, but the point of what I have been trying to say is that the more nearly education fulfills the actual requirements of the state, the more nearly perfect is the justification of the demand for state assistance. When ideal requirements are fulfilled, we should talk, not of state aid in education, but of education by the state.

AN ETHNIC VIEW OF HIGHER EDUCATION

PROFESSOR I. W. HOWERTH, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

The conviction from which the remarks of this paper proceed is that the value, the means, and the methods of higher education, as of all education, can be rightly determined only by constant reference to its effect upon both the individual and the race, and that in all questions pertaining to this subject the present tendency is to give undue consideration to the individual. Suggested improvements of the course of study, discussion of the expediency and limits of the elective system, and attempts to solve the problem of articulating higher and secondary education reveal the fact that the needs and interests of those who are to be benefited immediately by college and university training are the primary objects of concern. The same narrow range of vision is betrayed in much of the current discussion of such questions as, "Does a college education pay?" On the one hand it is asserted, for instance, that the individual profits by it; and, on the other, that it unfits him for business—as if these were conclusive arguments. But such problems of higher education are not primarily economic, and they cannot be settled by comparison of income and outlay. Socially or ethnically considered, a college education may be a profitable investment, even if it does not pay in dollars and cents; and if it unfits one for business, it may be so much the worse for business. No educational question is strictly or chiefly individualistic. None can be finally settled without careful consideration of its bearing upon the interests of the race. Neglect of this consideration is sure to produce error and confusion in educational thought. "Most of the controversies relative to this great question of education," says Fouillée, "seem to me to be due to the fact that we fail to reach a sufficiently general point of view, i. e., the national, international, or even ethnical." We need, therefore, both for practical and theoretical purposes, a new educational orientation. It is with the hope of contributing

in some small degree to this orientation that I invite your attention to an ethnic view of higher education.

Before considering higher education specially, we must glance briefly at education in general. What aspect does the nature and function of education as a whole present when considered from the standpoint of the race?

As soon as we contemplate education from the racial or ethnic point of view, it reveals itself as fundamentally a process of social transformation. It represents the latest and, potentially if not actually, the most effective factor of social evolution. While it deals with individuals, its primary object is the progress of the race thru the improvement of its individual members. The goal of education is, therefore, not a single one, as is sometimes represented; it is double. It lies in the individual and in the race. In the education of the individual the goal is the maximum development of social efficiency. This involves the application of physiological and psychological principles to the development of mind and body. Hence the pedagogical importance of physiology and experimental or psycho-physical psychology. In the education of the race the goal is the successive realization of higher and higher stages of humanity. "Given the hereditary merits and faults of a race," the problem of education becomes, as Guyau rightly stated it, "to what extent can we by education modify the existing heritage to the advantage of a new heritage?" This implies a knowledge of the means and methods of social evolution, the laws and causes of the social process. Hence the importance to the educator of social history and the science of sociology. Educational psychology should be racial as well as individual. The essential fact, however, is that education—elementary, secondary, and higher—is primarily a social or ethnic expedient for accelerating progress. All its problems are therefore social problems.

Another fact which, from this point of view, leaps to the eye, as the French say, is that, contrary to the hypothesis upon which Rousseau and his followers have attempted to found a science of pedagogy, education is not a slavish imitation of nature, but an interference with so-called natural laws. Its sole *raison d'être* is the inadequacy of nature's methods. It is the negation of *laissez-faire* in individual and social evolution. The assistance it has rendered nature in the development of the individual is perfectly obvious, but its possibility as a social factor has only begun to be appreciated. Down to the present time it has acted almost wholly as a socially unconscious or genetic force in the evolution of the race. To be sure, it has long been recognized as a means of social improvement, but there has been almost no attempt to use it scientifically in the development of a people as it is now used in the development of a person. Plato and the Spartans had the idea, but not the ideals and the science. Altho books on education are as thick—and with regard to many of them I

might add, as light — as autumnal leaves, I know of but few worth mentioning which have urged its ordered application as a national, social, or ethnic lever. Its purposive use has not been consciously directed toward a social end; that is to say, educational teleology has been limited to the individual. The time has come, however, when it may be extended to the race. "Through education," says Dr. Dewey, "society can formulate its own purposes, can organize its own means and resources, and thus shape itself with definiteness and economy in the direction in which it wishes to move."

With this comprehensive view of education as a whole from the ethnic standpoint, we may now turn to the consideration of higher education. The first question that confronts us is: How are we to separate it from the work of the common schools, and what is the relation between them?

In the first place, higher education is, of course, a continuation of secondary education, as the latter is a continuation of elementary. They are all a part of the same process. And yet there is a difference, due to the necessary division of labor, between the function of higher education and the function of the common schools, which, altho it may not justify an entirely separate classification, is yet sufficient to enable us to draw a pretty firm line between them. When we consider the work of the common schools, we find that, however clearly it perceives the educational ends, and however ambitious it may be to realize them, it is chiefly limited to the task of transmitting from one generation to another the mental, moral, and physical acquirements of the race. It preserves the racial inheritance. We have reached, for instance, a stage of civilization at which the average man is expected to be able to read, write, and cipher, to possess common morality and a certain amount of knowledge in regard to nature and man. Elementary and secondary education is devoted to the development of the efficiency represented by these acquirements and the assimilation of this knowledge. It has little time or opportunity for doing more than to maintain the average social level. On the other hand, higher education begins at this point and should be expected to raise it. It selects a comparatively small number of individuals, and professes to elevate their intelligence and efficiency to a higher power. Moreover, it has the opportunity to add new increments to the general stock of knowledge. The function of higher education is, therefore, especially that of providing the scientific and personal elements which are to urge the race onward to a new and higher stage of civilization. Elementary and secondary education is chiefly devoted, on account of its limitations, to the preservation of the social *status quo*. To higher education is given a superior opportunity of raising the social level. The one preserves order, the other secures progress. Elementary and secondary education, so far as social progress is concerned, is primarily static; higher education, dynamic. We thus see that there is a certain degree

of similarity between the relation of higher education and the common schools and the relation of imitation and eccentricity or genius in the social world, heredity and variation in the biological world, and the centripetal and centrifugal forces in the physical world. It is not pretended, of course, that the parallelism is exact, but it may serve to throw into stronger relief the essentially dynamic function of higher education.

If the function of higher education, ethnically considered, is above all to contribute the socially progressive elements, then we may judge its present efficiency by the character and the amount of this contribution. The criterion cannot be successfully applied, however, unless we know beforehand what kind of social elements are progressive. This knowledge requires some conception of a goal toward which society should be directed, as well as an acquaintance with the methods of social evolution. It is therefore necessary to take these matters into consideration, and it may be helpful to begin by glancing for a moment at the nature of the evolutionary process in general.

Evolution, like education, is a continuous process, but it may be divided into natural and artificial evolution. As a wholly natural or subrational process it takes place independently of human volition, and is wholly determined by the adaptive force of the organism and the character of the environment. Given an organism, biological or social—that is, something capable of adapting itself—its natural evolution consists in its continuous adjustment to its environment; or, in Spencerian phraseology, the adjustment of its internal relations to its external relations. The goal of natural evolution, that is, evolution not consciously directed, is perfect adaptation to environment, the equilibrium of the forces of nature and the forces of the organism. This goal has been reached in the biological world in the development of the higher animal forms, and in the social world in certain peoples which have apparently reached a stationary state. Its method is the preservation, perpetuation, and improvement of such variations in the organism as tend to perfect its adaptation; that is, natural selection. Now, in such evolution progressive elements must be, first, such increments of force as may be added to the adaptive power of the organism, the *vis a tergo*, which pushes it on and produces its variations; and, second, those special variations in the existing type which, by bringing the organism one degree nearer perfection, are, so to speak, seized upon, preserved, and perpetuated by natural selection. The variations, we say, are spontaneous. They merely happen to take place. They are also innumerable, and the vast majority of them are utterly useless to progress and represent pure waste of vital force. It is only by chance that some of them serve the purpose of nature. Hence it is that natural evolution, biological and social, is a most extravagant and unnecessarily slow process, and furnishes no model for intelligent action in physical, moral, or mental training, or

in any other sphere of action. Observe now the difference between natural evolution and artificial evolution, in which higher education plays a part.

In artificial evolution the goal is no longer fixed by natural circumstances. It is predetermined by man; it is ideal. If the environment is not suitable to the development of the ideal type, the environment is changed. This is all that cultivation in agriculture and horticulture amounts to. Again, the progressive variations of type are not left to chance, but are ideally conceived, and effort is made to produce them. This is illustrated in the breeding of stock. The result is that more is accomplished in artificial than in natural evolution by the same expenditure of energy. Waste is diminished, the ultimate object being its complete elimination. Evolution having become a conscious process, it is ruled by the intellect. The laws of nature are not disregarded; they are counteracted or overruled, just as the law of gravitation is overruled in the construction of an Eiffel Tower. The difference between artificial evolution and natural evolution is the difference between science and empiricism, between intelligently purposive action and fortuity. It may be described in a single word—economy.

Now, as was said before, social evolution down to the present time has been almost entirely a natural process. Christian philosophy, poets, and social dreamers have projected indistinct, or too distinct, goals of social development; but none of them has been made the basis of scientific attempts at social improvement. Social environment has been changed, but not with the conscious purpose of molding the race into any definite and preconceived form. Special energy has been expended upon the development of innumerable variations of types, but little attention has been given to the kind of type that would serve the purpose of natural selection. Many are called, but few are chosen. Under the influence of education the process may become artificial. When this is the case, the number of progressive elements is increased. They will then be as follows: first, socially purposive modifications of the social environment; second, new increments of social adaptive power, or racial virility; third, new increments of knowledge; and fourth, select individual types embodying virility and knowledge, and which, being lifted up by higher education, will draw all men unto them, will raise the social level.

We are now ready to apply the ethnic test to higher education. What is it doing toward contributing these various elements? This, of course, cannot be described within the limits of this paper. All that can be done is to offer a few criticisms in regard to its contribution to each element.

In the first place, then, higher education, instead of encouraging purposive changes in social environment, is a partisan and an apologist of the present order. It is not its function, of course, to introduce these

changes directly. It can only provide the knowledge and the spirit, and leave the initiative to scientific legislation. But academic atmosphere is not healthful to the growth of this knowledge and spirit. Much has been said about liberty of thought in our colleges and universities. It is contended by the authorities that there is complete liberty, and the claim is logical, for they make a careful distinction between liberty and license. Thought is free so long as it is sound, and the authorities have their own convictions in regard to what constitutes sound thinking. While freedom of thought is doubtless increasing in all our higher institutions of learning, and will continue to increase as they become more conscious of their social function, yet it is probably true today that there is not a college or university in the country that would long tolerate an active and formidable advocate of serious changes in the present social order. He would be required to go, and the occasion of his removal would not be avowed as opposition to intellectual liberty, but to his own incapacity, as evidenced by his vagarious opinions. This, to the educational martyr, is the unkindest cut of all. It is his sorrow's crown of sorrow.

Owing partly to the feeling in college and university circles that one is lucky to have been born a conservative, there has been developed a sort of typical academic attitude in regard to almost all questions of serious social importance. In political parlance this attitude is called a "straddle," but the euphemistic phrase is "scientific impartiality." There is a certain type of university professor, for instance, who never expresses his own opinion; claims, indeed, that he has none. In considering a given question, he devotes himself to the accumulation of evidence, pro and con; and, being unable to determine which pile is the larger, he stands as immovable as the traditional donkey between two stacks of hay. He speaks condescendingly of the *οἱ πολλοί*. His contempt for enthusiasm is profound. He insincerely professes to envy the man who can arrive at a conclusion, but as for himself he sees so deeply and finds so much argument on both sides of every question that he is always in doubt. Like Lowell's candidate in the *Biglow Papers*, his

. . . mind's tu fair to lose its balance
And say which party hez most sense,
There may be folks of greater talence
That can't set stiddier on the fence.

This type of university man has done much to give to higher education the reputation of futility. His attitude helps to explain why it is that in the popular mind it is sufficient to condemn a theory or an argument to describe it as "merely academic." It is expected that academic discussion is likely to come out at the selfsame door wherein it went. We recognize, of course, that higher education must encourage impartiality in investigation and conservatism in social proposals, but there is a golden mean. The true scientific spirit, which is so badly needed in every

department of thought, does not imply absence of enthusiasm, but only the restraint of sentiment while investigation is in progress. In matters of social advancement, higher education should be the source of a conservative radicalism.

In regard to the second progressive element mentioned, namely, increase in race virility, higher education may claim to contribute something on account of the prominence it gives athletics. But just how much good the selection and probable overtraining of a few individuals who need physical culture least is going to do the race it is somewhat difficult to estimate. The respect engendered for physical prowess is worth something, and the shouting of the otherwise passive spectators at the games may have its value in raising the average of physical vigor. It is a fair criticism, however, to say that the method would not commend itself to a thoroly self-conscious race as the best means of promoting its progress. Few colleges and universities, with all their interest in the subject, are really conscious of the social value of athletics. The end and aim is not racial culture, but the winning of the championship. As to other methods of strengthening the human stock, they are not so much as heard of. It is too early to talk of a scientific stirpiculture, but higher education might do much toward the creation of a sentiment that will finally bring into operation the law of social selection, or the birth of the fittest. But this is not in its consciousness. So far, then, as contributing to the virility of the race is concerned, higher education falls far short of its opportunity.

When we come to consider the increments of knowledge provided by higher education, they are so numerous and important that it may seem in this respect to be completely fulfilling its function. It would be easy to name a long list of academic discoveries which have proven to be invaluable. There are two criticisms, however, which are at once suggested by an ethnic view of the subject. In the first place, knowledge is accumulated without regard to its possible social utilization. Much of it is, therefore, not appreciably dynamic. All knowledge is valuable, but all is not equally valuable. Higher education seems to proceed on the assumption that one discovery is as good as another. An illustration of what I mean may be found in the doctors' theses of our various universities. Many of them are on such subjects as the final *z* in Chaucer, or the dative case in Sallust, which, however important from a linguistic standpoint, are not of present and pressing importance to the race. Some of them represent toilsome pursuit of insignificant bits of knowledge which, when found, are about as valuable to society as the individual acquirement of the power to balance a straw on one's nose. In the second place, higher education overemphasizes the importance of original investigation in comparison with intellectual organization and distribution. Its rewards are for the investigator. It is almost as much as a scholar's

reputation is worth to undertake to popularize his knowledge. And yet the successful distributor of knowledge performs a vastly more important social service than the average original investigator. Many college and university professors hold their positions, not because they are teachers, but because they have hunted down some more or less important bit of knowledge. This is why some of the worst possible teaching may be found in our universities. Some of us know by painful experience that this is true. These two defects in higher education an ethnic view will tend to remedy.

The last in the list of progressive elements which were mentioned as rightfully to be expected from higher education were cultured personalities specially adapted to the task of elevating the race to a higher plane of civilization. Here, again, much might be said in regard to what has been done. The roll of names of college men who have helped the world forward is a long one. But, after all, this contribution has been largely unconscious and incidental. These personalities have been developed primarily for themselves, and not for the race. Their social utility was accidental. They were, so to speak, spontaneous variations. The spirit of higher education is still individualistic. The 150,000 young men and young women now in our higher institutions of learning are being trained, not primarily for social service, but for success, and if statistics show that the majority of them succeed, higher education is content. But success is sometimes the very opposite of social service. The fact that so many college men succeed may be a severe reflection on our colleges. It may indicate that their students are trained merely to exploit their fellow-men. The race is not interested primarily in anyone's success, but in the manner of his success. Does he produce healthful commodities? Does he increase wealth or illth? Does he promote life or death? Does he make the world a better place in which to live? These are the questions in which the race is interested. It sanctions the exploitation of nature, but it condemns the exploitation of man.

The whole criticism of higher education from the ethnic point of view may be summed up in a very few words. It is loosely organized from the standpoint of social economy. It is too conservative in everything but religion. It grinds out knowledge with almost contemptuous indifference to its social timeliness and use. More time is given, for instance, to the study of entomology than to the study of anthropology, to the study of insects than to the study of men. Domestic science and sociology are of less importance than Latin and Greek. It turns out men and women with highly trained powers, but often without the spirit to use these powers in conscious service of the race. It is significant that the church is expected to provide this spirit by conversion. In evolutionary terminology, the variations emphasized and produced by higher education are socially advantageous only when they happen to be so.

There is too much waste. In a word, higher education acts unconsciously as an ethnic force. It is still under the sway of natural evolution. It illustrates the economy of nature and not the economy of mind.

THE FUNCTION OF THE LAND-GRANT COLLEGE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

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In locating the apex of our American system of education two diametrically opposite views arise. One is that the university is the apex and the common schools the foundation; the other, that the university is the foundation and the common schools the apex. This, like many discussions of great questions, is chiefly a matter of relative emphasis. I am inclined to emphasize the university as the foundation and the common schools as the apex, but this paper is interested in the relative location in this educational column of science and technology with culture and agriculture. It seems incredible that the first general conference ever called to discuss the whole subject of technological education met in Chicago only in 1893, and that the Association of American Colleges and Experiment Stations has had but thirteen conventions. The degrees of incredibility strengthen when one learns in that association that the mechanic arts have had to struggle for proper recognition in programs and topics, and that a man like General Francis A. Walker should find it necessary to say as late as 1893, regarding the relation of technological schools to universities, that

Unless the general spirit of the university be high, manly, and devoid of snobbishness; that if technological students are to come habitually in contact with young men who regard labor as degrading, who look upon the rough clothes and the stained fingers of a laboratory and the workshop as badges of inferiority in character and social standing, that then a technical school will derive harm, and only harm, from such an association.

This impression deepens when you think that only about thirty-five years have elapsed since the first classes for physics in colleges, twenty-five years since the beginning of meteorological laboratories; that industrial chemical laboratories are just beginning; while for certain chairs, as that of dairy bacteriology, we must train a man on the spot. The incredibility grows when you observe in the bibliography of technological education embodied in the history of education in the United States that, with slight exception, topics bearing upon agricultural, technological, and industrial education range within years so recent as 1883 onward to the present.

In most of the sixty-four colleges or departments inaugurated by the act of Congress of 1862 mechanic arts and agriculture have been inseparable. Whether the national appropriation has gone to a department of the university, as in some states, or gone to the establishment of state

colleges, as in many states, it is confined exclusively to the branches specified in the original act, and the executive authorities of the government have thus ruled so frequently that the matter of the direction in which the funds shall be used is permanently settled. The demagogic period of fishing for votes with the names of these colleges as fly baits is pretty well past, and the national government has recently given a classification of these institutions granting the liberality and privilege of each state calling its land-grant institution or institutions by whatever names local influences may have determined.

The scope of study prescribed by national law for the land-grant college in America is

without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and mechanic arts . . . in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life.

The function, therefore, of the land-grant college is primarily to afford a liberal and practical education to the industrial classes. All forms of education are evolutionary, and begin chiefly with the material side of questions. The advantages of secondary education have been denied many of the youths of the industrial classes, and a connecting link must still be made from the shop and the farm with the more advanced courses in the land-grant college. This necessitates for the present short courses of study for a twofold purpose — one, to give practical training to those who wish to return immediately to some industry; the other, to furnish a training preparatory for entrance to advanced instruction. A prominent form of utility in industrial education in the land-grant colleges arises from the experiment station, which is designated in the national law as “a department of the college.” The function of the experiment station is to determine scientifically the many problems that will enable the farmer to make ten acres of land do what one hundred acres used to do, to make 20-cent butter of the same materials as former 12-cent butter. It develops the possibilities of a better soil, a richer plant, a fuller harvest, and a fatter pocketbook; teaches the breeding of better animals and more profitable markets. It harmonizes the points of the plow and the pen. It enriches scientific agriculture by the improvement of plant, animal, fruit, and cereal already cultivated, and promotes this calling by the introduction of new varieties. This experimentation is augmented by other departments of the college, independent of the experiment station, in the testing of clays and minerals, in disclosing the relative merits of building materials, in elaborating all forms of scientific engineering. The limitations of research and experimentation in the mechanic arts are as far-reaching as the application of mechanical principles to the material, industrial, and æsthetic evolution and civilization of the earth. But out of this material and utilitarian side of education in the land-grant colleges are developed

advanced courses of instruction in agriculture, technology, and science that afford a culture of profoundest accuracy and catholic scholarship. Just as the courses of the so-called liberal curricula went thru similar evolutions, thru years and centuries of experience of human affairs, so now, out of the natural affairs of the earth and the universe, are being established standards of education kindred and co-ordinate. The development of the four-year agricultural course is illustrative of this. At first the long course had a great amount of so-called liberal studies, much after the form of the old classical or scientific course, with a little sprinkling of agriculture to give it the name "agricultural." This order is now completely reversed. The best type of an agricultural course composes itself with branches fundamental and formative to an agricultural education, but wisely does not make this so exclusive as to shut out liberal studies.

Of the other great branch of technological education of this country General Francis A. Walker well said :

In the schools of applied science and technology, as they are carried on today in the United States, involving the most thorough and scholarly study of principles directed immediately upon the useful arts, and rising in their higher grades into original investigation and research, is to be found almost the perfection of education for young men.

In engineering the method of education is largely creative and constructive, and technological studies have undergone such an expansion in the past twenty-five years that it requires most strenuous provision to intelligently meet their demands. Experience is showing that the matter of utility in the education of the land-grant college is rapidly drifting to its legitimate sphere of the experiment station, and utility as a chief end in technological education is falling into the same concept with the theories of manual-training departments of colleges and industrial institutions in the first half of our century. In each long college course of the land-grant college a certain amount of purely technical study should be required. In addition to this a range of elective studies can be given, from which the student should be required to fill out enough hours for a complete course. The theory is that a young agriculturist or industrialist must aspire to a liberal education that will make him the peer of any educated or professional man in any calling of life. Justin S. Morrill, the father of the land-grant colleges in America, evidently had this conception in the inauguration of the system. When asked a few years before his death regarding the scope of the land-grant college, he said :

The act of 1862 was intended to give those whose lives were to be devoted to agriculture or the mechanic arts or other industries, embracing much the largest part of our population, some chance to obtain a liberal and practical education. I inclose a quotation from the first act of the law upon the subject, which, you will see, did not proceed from any exclusive idea, but indicated the leading purpose without excluding other classical and scientific education. You will see that it is very broad and liberal.

This higher stage of Mr. Morrill's conception of the land-grant college is gradually, yet surely, arriving. As in agriculture the first tendency is

to misinterpret what is practical, so in the engineering and technological studies the idea of getting into a trade quickly, or at work immediately, is big with the beginner; but as he advances in his work he sees the necessity of greater maturity; that it is not he who first enters his profession that succeeds best; but that he who enters best prepared, everything being equal, comes out first in the end.

There are two great purposes back of the questions just considered that permeate not only technological and industrial instruction, but all education. The first purpose is: How can I hold my own in my trade and calling in order to earn my own bread? and the second purpose is: How much of leisure, culture, and worth can be secured beyond the question of a mere existence? Excepting a few wealthy people, I presume all who thoughtfully seek a higher education first face the problem of bread and a substantial living. The soundest professional man must be more than a lawyer, a clergyman, a physician, or a pedagogue. This rule holds good in a chief measure with the mechanic, agriculturist, and industrialist. While the foresight of Justin Morrill showed wholesome philanthropy in providing a liberal education for the children of the industrial classes, yet all who seek a completer life thru education are moved in large measure by the same spirits, not excepting the literary colleges. So that, when one speaks of the trade side of technological education, it is not such a radical exception to all forms of education as it would at first appear. John Scott Russell, of England, very frankly says:

What I call technical education is that kind of training which will make the new generation of Englishmen excel the new generation of foreigners in this coming rivalry of race and nation. The English live in the midst of an energetic rivalry of competing nations. The aim of our national life should be to do the work of the world better, more ably, more honestly, more skillfully, and less wastefully than the skilled men of other countries. If we are less skilled or less honest than others, we are beaten in the race of life.

Just think, gentlemen, of that term "wastefully" in American industries. Parts of New England and old Virginia, the mother of presidents, have farmed their lands to death instead of to life and prosperity. They worked wastefully—forests of even black walnut, ash, oak, and pine have been burned in vast heaps, regardless of the future, to get a few dollars for today. They wrought with a waste bordering on sinfulness. What millions of dollars in money and good time have been thrown away on razor-back swine, slab-sided cattle, four-pound-fleeced sheep, and on spavin-boned and rat-tailed horses! In the management of crops and the rearing of animals man in America has been driven from pillar to post by the necessities of nature, rather than by the glad joys of intelligence and skill. Upon the dumps of the mines in our western states and territories men are now making fortunes out of the refuse of other years. Like a prodigal, left a millionaire one year and becoming a tramp

the next, many of us as American people have developed the industries of this country.

Then take the vast fields covered by that term "to do the work more skillfully"—the waste of body, the fret of mind, and the loss of billions would feebly serve to measure the consequences. Then that other term, "to do the work more ably," is full of a hint of remedies; and, supreme above all, to do the work "more honestly." Sir John Russell makes his deductions much more concrete in a thrilling candor and patriotism when he emphasizes the acme of industrial education for his countrymen to be

That which shall render an English artilleryman a better artilleryman than a Frenchman; an English soldier a better soldier than a Prussian; an English locomotive builder better than a German; an English ship-builder better than an American; an English silk manufacturer better than a Lyons silk manufacturer; and an English ribbon-maker superior to a Swiss ribbon-maker.

Herein is an emphasis as strong as the body of a sound Englishman. This is that first question for a nation, the same as for an individual. I do not like Carlyle's statement, and yet it is full of truth, that the prime question between two individuals at meeting is "whether I can first kill you, or you can first kill me." In the industrial competition of nations this is still a prime question pointedly put by this Englishman just quoted. As a nation we are feeling it in the crippling of our merchant marine; as a nation we are rejoicing over it in our navy, and in our army in the realization of Walt Whitman's idea of a complete man being able to hit the bull's eye. But it seems to me that question has a broader application in Mr. Russell's phrase, to do the work more honestly, in training our youths to the utmost skill, according to their several capacities, with a view, not so much of making them stronger, better, and richer than a fellow, as to reach the supreme joy of the greatest development of their own hands and character, that in turn they may make richer, abler, nobler, and grander the hands and hearts of their fellow-men.

Now for the second purpose, which has to do with the higher life of man. In the discussions of the educational values of the various branches, two words have become prominent: disinterestedness and culture. It is claimed that a student, in pursuing a course of study like the classical, philosophical, or general scientific, is free from the bias of future intent, and will therefore come to a more thoro acquaintance with the subjects in hand. Much of this requirement seems to be far-fetched. The mind grasps truth most uniformly in an effort to attach it to some other truth. In one sense there is no such thing as a disinterested study. All study should be with a view to securing the truth about some one thing. The mere search and love of learning in the abstract is more speculative than real. Even admitting a personal bias in the pursuit of truth, in order to apply it to a specific end, yet whenever an individual attaches truth to one point in his experience he is in admirable condition to discover its

bearings in entirety. If we judge disinterestedness as we do an animal, on the basis of one hundred points as perfection, eighty of these points would go to integrity and the other twenty to minor virtues.

Channing talks about the "happiness of disinterested sacrifices;" but they must be different from those of God Almighty that made the heavens weep and the skies dark in his sympathetic interest with the matchless sacrifice of his Son. Somehow nature not only loves the number five, but the threes and trinities. We learn that even the north star, the unfailing friend of our fathers amid the danger of the wild wood and plain, is not one, but three stars interlined to a pleasing magnanimity. In education I have been waiting to hear that in addition to the invention of the *literae divinae* or divinities, *literae humaniores* or the humanities, we would have the *literae naturae* or nativities. The humanities of the old liberal education have grown to mostly inclose the divinities. These divinities and humanities have made up the whole solar system of education which we never want to be less, but disturbances have indicated that Neptune still remained undiscovered. These nativities are the Neptunes, and the term "disturbances," as employed with the ignorance of man, becomes, in the knowledge of man, the phenomena of an orderly universe; or better, the divinities, the humanities, and the nativities are interlined stars so situated to the eye and the understanding of man that they pass their light by each other in a combined stream of the eternal pole star of truth. Each may be the sun and the center of a great solar system, but all converge for the culture of a complete race of man. So that a chief function of the land-grant college in American education is a marshaling of the nativities in equal rank with the humanities and divinities in human culture.

Regarding the educational values of the trinities, the humanities bring to man the art, the skill, intellectuality, and beauty of Grecian culture; a knowledge of law and government from the Roman; and the revelation of God thru human inventions. The nativities bring to the student at first hand the surpassing art and learning of matter, the plant, and the animal. They disclose the principles of matter, the exquisite laws of the plant and animal organism in technological and agricultural education. A student takes the teleology of nature and adapts great systems of science, art, and philosophy to these. The discipline of exact measurement by the vernier, the application of the screw in measurements, with its various modifications, like the micrometer screw and its associations, with that of the revolving mirror and other recent inventions, made distinct epochs in the progress of thought, and brought the units of light, heat, electricity, and the subtle forces of nature within the exactitudes of mathematical science, and to the wonderment of primal philosophy. Minutiæ are generally monotonous, but the minutiæ in the magnitudes of the natural and physical sciences and technological studies bear a

constantly thrilling degree of interest. The possibility of a man to discern and measure with precision the one-millionth of a second of time brings him upon the borderland of the finite and the infinite in thought.

An engineer or a student of the sciences underlying all industrial training must employ deduction and induction with a critical judgment of truest accuracy. He must be, not only a skillful practitioner, but an originator. In fact, this brings an educational value second to that of no form of mental ingenuity and exercise. Take in addition to this the purposes that use the laws of heredity, variety, and selection in plants and animals to secure perfection. Observe the design had in mind in the navigation of streams and oceans, the construction of bridges, and the invention of the numberless instruments that make for industry and civilization. These all make for the overcoming of the hindrances of the material world, for the permanent good of humanity, the rapid evolution of man, and the perfection of the globe.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The Department of Normal Schools met in the Sunday-school room of the Second Presbyterian Church, Charleston, S. C., at 3:30 P. M., with President James E. Russell, of New York city, in the chair.

The president of the department made a short introductory address.

President Charles D. McIver of the State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro, N. C., made the first address of the afternoon, upon the subject, "Training of Teachers for White Schools."

President H. B. Frissell of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, Hampton, Va., presented a paper upon the subject, "Training of Teachers for Negro Schools."

Discussion was opened by Hon. G. R. Glenn, state commissioner of education, Atlanta, Ga. He was followed by Principal G. N. Grisham of the Lincoln High School, Kansas City, Mo.; President R. R. Wright of the State Industrial College, Savannah, Ga.; and President Charles D. McIver of the State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro, N. C. President James E. Russell closed the discussion.

Upon motion, the president appointed the following

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

John R. Kirk, Kirksville, Mo.

Charles D. McIver, Greensboro, N. C.

J. F. Millspaugh, Winona, Minn.

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13

President James E. Russell called the meeting to order at 3:30 P. M.

The Committee on Nominations submitted the following report, which was adopted, and the nominees unanimously elected:

For *President*—Charles D. McIver, of North Carolina.

For *Vice-President*—Z. X. Snyder, of Colorado.

For *Secretary*—N. A. Harvey, of Illinois.

The president explained that Professor G. W. A. Luckey, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.; President Livingston C. Lord, Eastern Illinois State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.; and Superintendent Charles B. Gilbert, City Schools, Newark, N. J., who were on the program, were necessarily absent.

Upon motion of A. S. Downing, of New York, the subject of the meeting, "The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools," was recommended to the president of the department for next year for a place on the program. The secretary was requested to report this action to the newly elected president, Charles D. McIver.

Adjourned.

CHARLES BARTLETT DYKE,

Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR WHITE SCHOOLS

PRESIDENT CHARLES D. McIVER OF THE STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE OF NORTH CAROLINA, GREENSBORO, N. C.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT]

We in the South are yet hardly prepared to discuss the question of normal training from an ideal standpoint. When a man lacks a coat and wears ragged clothes, it is nearly useless to consider with great care the style of shoe that will best suit him. The truth is that we lack schools, and while the teacher in some sections can study his profession as a lawyer does his, he cannot do so here in the South; not only must he be prepared himself for all demands arising inside the schoolroom, but he must be an educational evangelist among his people outside. There are certain peculiar conditions to be met with here; of these conditions there are four to which I wish to call special attention: (1) three-fourths of the population live in the country; (2) 30 per cent. are unable to read and write; (3) the country is sparsely settled, and yet the presence of two races makes it necessary to carry on two sets of schools; (4) four decades of widespread poverty are behind us. So extreme has this poverty been that no ordinary tax on property could raise enough revenue to support properly one set of schools, and yet we are called upon to provide two. This is the chief factor in our condition—we are working with universal poverty as a handicap. In the North, it is said, the foreign element is the most disturbing element; but we have that very question in addition to our other troubles. Slavery, followed by citizenship, made the negroes, in effect, a foreign population. For the troubles arising from this condition of slavery the negro is not responsible; no more is he responsible for any troubles flowing from the gift of citizenship. These must not be laid to his charge, and he must be dealt with according to his rights. Other sections complain of trouble between labor and capital; we have not suffered in that respect, because there was no capital here. With capital, if mankind remains as it is, we may expect these labor troubles. So surely are they to come that I regard them as genuine signs of conquest over our present great enemy—poverty. I am glad they are coming, not because I like strikes and lockouts, or that selfishness on the part of capital which sometimes is responsible for strikes, but because this problem seems to be common to all communities where wealth exists. We have not lacked the spirit of education, but we have lacked the means of carrying into effect plans which we were willing to adopt. However,

poor we have been and are, we can escape our present ills only by sacrifices. Individuals may not believe it best, but the public has a right to demand that the coming generation shall be educated. No people has ever become impoverished on account of local taxes expended by the people for local purposes. At present the day schools in the South have very few more days of session than the Sunday schools. What, then, should a normal school do? Under such circumstances a normal school will fail to do its duty if the teachers trained there are not taught the needs of their people, do not make these needs plain to the citizen, and indoctrinate their communities with higher ideals. Our people must learn that the only escape from our present condition is to be effected by self-reliance, and by wisely using our own resources. If half the territory of my own state could be thrown away, and all the present population forced into the remaining section, it would be materially better off. We are land-poor. There is need of better supervision of schools. The arrangement now generally in operation is to have one poorly paid supervisor in each county. The sad truth is that the salary paid is so small that the office cannot secure a competent man for his full time. It would be better to unite several counties and employ fewer men, and such men as would carry with them force and spirit wherever they go. Any improvement in our system must include improvement in all parts of the system. Secure these improvements, provide the means, and then the normal school will do its proper work. In the meantime it must aid in preparing the way for its work.

THE TRAINING OF NEGRO TEACHERS

PRESIDENT H. B. FRISSELL OF THE HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE, HAMPTON, VA.

The question might naturally be asked: Why should negro teachers be trained differently in any respect from white teachers? There have been those who have agreed that there ought to be no difference; that because the negro has a mind and a soul as a white man has is sufficient reason for giving him exactly the same training as would be given any other teacher. This was the thought of many of the northern educators who first came into the South to teach the blacks. The college-bred man with his classical education was too apt to be their ideal.

Fortunately, better methods of training, both for whites and blacks, have been developed within the past thirty years, and much more regard is had than formerly to a man's environment and heredity. Men have come to realize that, while God has made of one blood all the nations of the earth, he has also made differences among men as he has among plants and animals. A horticulturist would be considered insane who should give the same treatment to a tropical plant and one that had had

its birth on the rocky shores of New England, even tho both belonged to the same genus. As we come to study different races, we realize that each has its own peculiarities. The German is said to be phlegmatic, the Frenchman volatile, the Englishman persistent, and the Chinaman non-progressive. If we expect that a "cut-and-dried" course of treatment applied to these differing personalities will develop the same sort of character, and produce the best possible results, we shall be disappointed. While we realize that there are certain qualities that are common to all members of the human race, yet it is absurd to try to make an Anglo-Saxon out of a Latin. The black and white and yellow races have certain characteristics which we are bound to respect, if we would do our best work with them.

We have heard men say that "the only good Indian is a dead Indian," and, working on this principle, they have endeavored to eliminate all Indian traits in their education of the red man. Some of our colleges were started with the thought of making white men of the Indians. They have never succeeded. Many years ago a long-headed Indian chief refused the offer of the commissioner of education in Virginia to give his son a collegiate education on the ground that it would not fit him to endure hunger, to kill a deer, or to build a tepee; and the Indian was right. The white man's collegiate education was utterly unfitted for the red man's son.

What, then, are the characteristics of the negro that require us to adapt our training to his needs? Shut off from lines of commerce in the dark continent the Africans did not develop along the same lines as did their European brothers. Subjected to the enervating influences of a tropical climate, there was but little growth of will-power or of the work habit. Brought to this country as slaves and kept in slavery for two hundred and fifty years, tho they were instructed in many of the industries of the whites and gained much from the contact with them, they yet had but little opportunity to learn the meaning of responsibility, of home life, or of the duties that belong to citizenship. They have not yet come to a point where they can compete with the white race in commerce or political life. Eighty per cent. of them live in the country and ought for many years to remain there. Removal to the city means for them increase of crime and disease, for they are shut out from most of the occupations that are open to other races and are forced to live crowded together in the worst parts of the city where rents are cheapest.

While opportunity should be given to those of exceptional ability to engage in other pursuits, the training of the masses of the blacks should be such as to fit them for the care of the soil. The great majority of the race in the South live in a condition of serfdom. They live on rented land, under the lien system of crops; their labor is unintelligent, and, therefore, to a large degree unproductive. So long as they remain in

this condition it is impossible for the South, which is almost entirely dependent upon their labor, to make the progress that it ought. While the public-school system, to which the southern states have devoted over one hundred million dollars, has been by no means a failure, and no man can tell what would have been the result had millions of slaves been given their freedom without it, it has nevertheless failed to introduce into its curriculum anything which bears directly upon the improvement of the home and the soil. While the countries of Europe have been training their peasantry in agriculture and home industries, so that countries like Norway and Sweden have been transformed within the last thirty years, the rural schools of the South, as indeed of our whole country, have been entirely given up to the literary side of education. The results have been disastrous. Both boys and girls have left school feeling that it was degrading to work with their hands, and yet they were unable to find work of a different sort. The word "education" has become associated in their minds with an entirely different life from that which they have been living. Any training which makes a man or woman dissatisfied with the occupations which are open to them is of doubtful good. Many southern men, seeing these results, have concluded that all education of the blacks is a failure. The mistake was not in giving them education, but in giving them the wrong sort of education. Where teachers have been sent out from agricultural and industrial schools, not only has the migration to the cities been stopped, but crime has decreased and citizenship has improved. There came to the island of St. Helena, not many miles from this city, two refined, educated women, who interested themselves in the uplift of the blacks. They found the people superstitious to the last degree, and still practicing many of their African rites. They could not count their fingers, did not know how to open a book, had never been away from the island, and knew of no city but Charleston. The huts of two rooms had the earth for a floor. In them lived as many of these degraded beings as could be crowded together, and morality was, of course, well-nigh unknown. A normal and industrial school was started on the island, and young colored men and women went out from it into the public schools which were started there. These teachers had been trained to give instruction in agriculture, sewing, and the care of the home, as well as in books. They interested the people in buying land and securing homes. Thirty years passed by. A gentleman who had known these negroes before this school was established, in revisiting the island, said the people did not seem to belong to the same race. "Contented and prosperous, the negro farmers, well-clothed, well-fed, lived in neat, white cottages in the middle of their own well-tilled fields, where corn, potatoes, and cotton flourished." The merchants on the island found the average bad debt small, and two constables sufficed for six thousand negroes. In the year 1893 dreadful floods took from these

people nearly everything that they possessed, but in spite of this terrible calamity, followed by years of drought and low-priced cotton, the island presents today a colony of patient, hard-working people that are a monument to what teachers properly trained for their work can accomplish. Tho there are between six and seven thousand blacks and only thirty whites, crime is unknown, and the fear of it never enters the minds of the northern and southern whites, who live together in the greatest harmony. The story of the colored people of the island of St. Helena is not an isolated one. There are many schools in the South that can show like results of the practical training of teachers of the colored race.

There are certain matters that must be given special emphasis in the training of such teachers.

1. So far as possible, race-prejudice is to be conquered. We sometimes speak as tho race-prejudice exists only among the white people of the United States, but it is quite as strong in other races. The colored people distrust the white man's religion as well as his politics. A prominent Hebrew speaking to the students of a colored school in the South—a member of a despised race to members of another despised race—said that the two things that they must struggle against as oppressed people were race-prejudice and suspicion. An Indian boy, on being asked what he thought of white men before coming to an eastern school, said he thought they were devils. In her essay, delivered on graduating from one of our colored schools, a speaker declared that she had not wished to attend that school because it was controlled by white people. The mother of another student, when told of certain religious truths taught by one of her son's teachers, asked whether the teacher was white or black, and, when told that she was white, said she did not care to hear about what she said, for if she was white she could not possibly have any religion. To overcome this race-prejudice in the minds of the teachers of negro youth means much in a land where whites and blacks must live side by side. "I never knew the other side before," said a colored youth graduating from a school where he had received instruction from both northern and southern white teachers.

That this race-prejudice has been conquered in many cases is proven by numerous examples. When colored teachers have gone into southern communities and have sought the co-operation of southern whites, they have almost invariably secured it. In one place, where a teacher was anxious to help his people to buy land, a southern man not only sold him land at reasonable rates, but worked with him most patiently to get the negroes settled, and helped them to buy more land, giving up nearly his whole time to training them in habits of thrift and industry. A prominent southern banker has acted as treasurer of a negro school and issues appeals for its assistance from his counting-house. A prominent southern lawyer is treasurer of another negro school, and helps the colored

man at the head of the institution, who has received industrial training, to get contracts for work. In each of these cases the teachers had been trained to expect the best things from the white people, and race-prejudice died a natural death. It is in the normal schools that the germs of race-prejudice should be destroyed.

A very important need of the colored race is the creation of the work habit. Slavery forced the black man to labor, and the revolt against it that accompanied emancipation was to be expected. An enthusiasm for manual labor is of vital importance in the education of teachers of the colored race. Manual and industrial training, therefore, should have an important place in the curriculum of a normal course for colored teachers. There appeared in a recent number of the *Review of Reviews* an article entitled "Learning by Doing," in which the work of a certain school was illustrated. In that institution the whole emphasis is placed upon *doing*. The students are made to feel that the workshop, the farm, and the kitchen are as important as the class-room. Instead of making the industries stepping-stones to the school's academic department, they are placed at the top, and before a boy or girl is allowed to begin a trade, a certain amount of academic training is required. It is especially necessary that the relation between "education and vocation" be established in the case of the negro. General Armstrong once said :

The negro is more successful in getting knowledge than in using it. To him, as to all, knowledge comes easily, but wisdom slowly. He has more genius than gumption. Knowledge is power only as it is digested, assimilated. His mental digestion is weak.

Another need of the colored race which its teachers ought to help to meet is a sense of responsibility. Because the race has been so largely dependent upon others, it has failed to develop this characteristic. They came out of slavery a race of children. Instead of being surprised at their mistakes, we should wonder that they did so well when thrown suddenly upon their own resources. On account of this lack of a feeling of personal responsibility there is an imperative need for the right sort of leaders among them, and their teachers ought to be their leaders. In order to develop this capacity for leadership they must gain the power of self-government and learn how to control others during their school life. The more a normal school can be made co-operative, therefore, the better. The more the student can be made to feel a sense of responsibility for the good conduct of the institution, the better ; and the more he is made to work for his own support and to help others, the better. Self-government and self-support ought to be prominent features in every colored normal school. Nothing should be given that the student can earn. The power of initiative that belongs to Mr. Booker Washington could only have come thru a training which placed heavy responsibility on the individual. Not only did he work his own way thru school, but during his school life he had much to do with the government and

instruction of his fellow-students. He was trained in an institution that was a sort of industrial village, where he had a taste of the duties and responsibilities of actual life.

Inasmuch as more than 80 per cent. of the colored people live in the country, it is essential that the majority of their teachers be interested in the soil and in plant and animal life. Most of the leading institutions devoted to the colored race teach Latin and Greek. Certainly no one would wish to deprive the negro of classic lore; but a knowledge of the needs of the soil, a love for nature and animals, and an understanding of the great principles that underlie all life, are essential to a liberal education. A knowledge of things is much more necessary for any man, white or colored, than a knowledge of words. In one southern institution for colored teachers the students are sent into the laboratory for three months before they are allowed to use books. After they perform experiments they talk about them, write about them, and finally are allowed to read about them. In this way they are weaned from their idolatry of books, and come to understand that they are to be used only as tools.

A colored normal school ought really to be a school for civilization. The negro race knew little of home life during slavery, and has come but slowly to the true idea of it since that time. The church has been too long the social center of the negro race. The teacher ought to be trained in matters which have to do with the improvement and beautifying of the home. Domestic science ought to enter into every curriculum. Cooking and sewing should be taught to every girl in the public schools of the South. Our work is never secure till it terminates in home life, which, as General Armstrong very truly said, "is the point of departure of civilization." Without it schools and churches can do but little. Many heathen may be converted to the truth, but so long as they live like savages, no matter what they profess, they attain only a low standard of morals and easily backslide. There is more and more need of giving prominence to domestic science in normal courses for negro teachers, because they belong to a race which has an alarming death-rate, which seems to many to threaten its extinction. Since freedom, the negroes have lived on poor food and have been huddled together in poor houses. In some of our normal schools the students have made careful investigation of the homes of the colored people in their vicinity. They have studied their food supply, their method of caring for their children, and their domestic arrangements, endeavoring to bring about needed reforms. They have tried to make the people feel the need of fresh air, of personal cleanliness and purity, and of suitable clothing. In some cases they have taught them how to raise and prepare wholesome food of a kind that will help them to resist the diseases to which they are liable. In connection with this work in domestic science, they are able to make

sociological studies of the communities in which they live. They are taught to study the church life, the schools, the industries, the local government; they are sent out to care for those of their own race in the jails and poorhouses; they teach in the Sunday schools; they read the Bible and sing to the poor and aged; and they mend the cabins of the destitute. In this way they not only gain a knowledge of their neighborhood, but they come to have a real interest in helping those around them. Teachers who confine their work to the schoolroom and are interested mostly in their salaries are of little value to the negro race. A normal school that fails to create a generous enthusiasm for helping in every possible way the communities into which its students go is of very little real value. The teachers of the negro race have an opportunity such as is not given to white teachers. They stand at the beginning of the real life of their people. They ought to influence their social, industrial, and religious, as well as their intellectual, life, and their school training should prepare them to do this.

In order that young people may learn the proper relations of the sexes, co-education is important. It is not enough to talk to students of either sex as to what their relations should be to the other. They must be taught by actual experience to respect one another, and right relations must be established. To take a young man who has been guilty of ungentlemanly conduct away from a table in a school dining-room, where he has had the privilege of meeting young women, and place him at a table where there are only young men, means more than a year's lectures on morals and manners. In all the training of colored teachers it is important to remember how limited has been the experience of the race in all that has to do with civilized life. As Mr. Charles Dudley Warner says, in a recent paper read before the American Social Science Association:

The evolution of a race, distinguishing it from the formation of a nation, is a slow process. We recognize a race by certain peculiar traits, and by characteristics which slowly change. They are required little by little in an evolution which, historically, it is often difficult to trace. They are due to the environment, to the discipline of life, and to what is called education. These work together to make what is called character, race-character, and it is this which is transmitted from generation to generation. It is this character, quality, habit, the result of a slow educational process, which distinguishes one race from another. It is this that the race transmits, and not the more or less accidental education of a decade or an era.

When we come to understand, then, what the education of a race means, we shall understand that normal training for an undeveloped race like the blacks of our own land must be more than usually comprehensive, and will be successful only so far as it brings them in contact with real life. In a recent number of the *Southern Workman*, Mr. Hugh M. Browne, a colored instructor at Hampton Institute, speaking of the difference between the white and colored races of this country, says:

The white race has been questioning nature for centuries. This wonderful civilization of the present day is the result of their wrestling with nature as Jacob wrestled with the angel. I read only a few days ago of Edison importuning nature for three years and putting to her 6,600 questions to ascertain one fact. The history of the negro race is well-nigh destitute of such talks with nature, and our development is deficient to the extent of this destitution.

As Mr. Browne says, the white boy in his home, and the homes of his playmates, gathers a most abundant stock of known facts with which he may commence his investigation. Of these the colored child is deprived. So far as possible, then, the normal as well as the public schools for colored children should give an all-around training which will, to some extent at least, make up for defects in home conditions.

In an address delivered before this association in 1872 General Armstrong said :

What the negro needs most and what he needs at once is an elementary and industrial education. The race will succeed or fail as it shall devote itself with energy to agriculture and the mechanic arts, or avoid those pursuits; and its teachers ought to be men inspired with the spirit of hard work and acquainted with the ways that lead to material success. Power, character, manhood, is the ultimate end of education, of experience, and of life.

The negro race needs leaders—earnest, practical men and women who shall devote their lives to the material, intellectual, and spiritual uplift of their people. These leaders our normal schools ought to develop. For men and women of this sort there never was a more important field of usefulness. Their work will receive recognition from both the white and black people of our land.

DISCUSSION

HON. G. R. GLENN, state commissioner of education, Atlanta, Ga., said that the ideal of normal training which these good gentlemen have presented shows that the normal schools are not doing what they should do. The normal schools have not acquainted their graduates with the real conditions in which the people live. We are not yet able to secure from the normal schools teachers who can command the situation. The normal schools have not yet reached that measure of growth where they can make men see all that can be developed from a child. Our normal-trained teachers know books enough, but put in the face of a situation they cannot meet it. We want as a product from the normal schools, for both white and colored schools, men and women who can command the situation—men who can do things as well as learn them.

The part of the brain controlling the sense of touch is several times larger than that controlling any one of the other special senses. This sense, then, should receive a much larger proportion of cultivation than each of the other senses. The child should be thrown into contact with things—he should be a doer. If you can teach these people as they ought to be taught—to be producers—we shall close up our jails and prisons. The marvel is that these colored people have not fallen into more ditches than they have. We must make a new people out of the coming generation. If education will not solve this problem, then there is no solution for it.

PRINCIPAL G. N. GRISHAM of the Lincoln High School, Kansas City, Mo., said that our colored normal schools are still in the stage of giving subject-matter; they have not yet reached the point where strong professional training is given. He believed the process of educating a negro's brain is not different from the process of educating a white man's brain. But there must be some different methods because of different environment.

PRESIDENT R. R. WRIGHT of the State Industrial College, Savannah, Ga., emphasized the disadvantages of the dual system of schools. We do not get proper supervision, and it isolates the colored people. A white teacher can visit white and colored schools alike, can profit by their example and avoid their mistakes. The colored teacher is barred the privilege of visiting the white school. The dual system also prevents the white people from knowing anything of our social life. Under this condition how can a county superintendent select the best teachers intellectually, morally, and religiously for the teaching of our children?

PRESIDENT CHARLES D. MCIVER, in reply to Hon. G. R. Glenn's argument that teachers are not properly and completely qualified in the normal schools, said that it is not the function of the normal school to give all the theory and experience that only years of active teaching can give. It is the function of the normal school to give teachers the right start and to introduce them to the profession, as is the case in law and medical schools.

PRESIDENT JAMES E. RUSSELL closed the discussion by showing most admirably the difference in aim between the normal schools of the South and those of the North. The South needs men and women with a well-rounded development, teachers with initiative who can go into city and country and lift the people to a higher plane of living. Too often, in the North and West, the normal schools prepare men and women to work in a great machine, a great system of schools—to be cogs in a great wheel. In the South teachers are going out from the normal schools with a spirit of service to lift mankind. I assume, said he, that this must become the normal-school aim in every part of this country.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUAL TRAINING

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The meeting was called to order in Thompson Auditorium at 3 P. M. by the president, Charles H. Keyes, of Hartford, Conn.

The president delivered an address on "The Relations of Manual Training to Trade Education." It was discussed by Vice-President Charles A. Bennett, of Bradley Institute, Peoria, Ill.; Secretary L. A. Buchanan, of Stockton, Cal.; and Principal B. A. Lenfest, of Waltham, Mass.

A letter bearing upon the subject from Charles H. Warner, principal of the Mechanics' Arts High School of Springfield, Mass., was read by the president.

It was determined to refer the subject of the president's address to a committee, to make a full study of the question and report to the department at its next annual meeting.

Colonel Francis W. Parker, of Chicago Institute, Chicago, Ill., then delivered an address on "Character, Content, and Purpose of the Course in Manual Training for Elementary Schools." The discussion of this address was opened by Mr. Bennett, who was followed by Superintendent W. B. Powell, of Washington, D. C.; Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, of Baltimore, and others.

The secretary called attention to the excellent and comprehensive exhibits, illustrative of the two leading topics of the program, which had been secured by the president of the department, with the active support and co-operation of the Charleston Citizens' Committee. He spoke especially of the exhibits of Porter Military Academy of Charleston; of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn; of the Teachers' College of New York; of the Gustaf Larson Training School of Boston; of the Hartford High School; of the Millersville (Pa.) Normal School; of the city exhibits of Newark, N. J.; Dayton, O.; Yonkers, N. Y.; Passaic, N. J.; and Stockton, Cal. These exhibits and others were installed in the large hall just back of the Auditorium stage, and were open to visitors at all hours save those of the general morning sessions of the National Educational Association.

The president then appointed the following

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, of Baltimore, Md.

Miss Hattie M. Gower, of Los Angeles, Cal.

Superintendent W. B. Powell, of Washington, D. C.

The following resolution was then offered by the secretary, and, on motion, unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, Great interest has been manifested in the relation of manual training to trade instruction; and

WHEREAS, It has been suggested that trades should be taught at public expense; be it therefore Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the president to investigate the subject during the coming year and report at the meeting of the department next year.

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12

The meeting was called to order by the president, and the Committee on Nominations, thru Chairman Van Sickle, made its report, recommending for officers the following:

For *President*—Charles A. Bennett, Bradley Institute, Peoria, Ill.

For *Vice-President*—B. A. Lenfest, Manual Training High School, Waltham, Mass.

For *Secretary*—L. A. Buchanan, Supervisor of Manual Training, Stockton, Cal.

Upon motion, the persons named were duly elected officers for the ensuing year.

The subject for the afternoon, "The Character, Content, and Purpose of the Course in Manual Training for High Schools," was presented in a paper by Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, of Baltimore, and one by Principal B. A. Lenfest, of Waltham, Mass. The general discussion was opened by Miss Hattie F. Gower, of California, who was followed by President Bennett.

Mr. Bennett was followed by a number of speakers, after which the officers-elect were formally installed, and President Bennett announced as the Committee to Study the Relations of Manual Training to Trade Education:

Supervisor Charles H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn., *chairman*.

Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, Baltimore, Md.

Principal George A. Merrill, San Francisco, Cal.

Dr. H. H. Belfield, Chicago, Ill.

Principal Charles F. Warner, Springfield, Mass.

The department then adjourned *sine die*.

L. A. BUCHANAN,
Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

TEACHING TRADES IN CONNECTION WITH THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

CHARLES F. WARNER, MECHANIC ARTS HIGH SCHOOL, SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

I suppose it will not be questioned that there is a general feeling thruout the country—at least in the foremost educational centers—that, if possible, manual-training high schools should do something to meet the growing demand for education in the trades. There certainly can be no doubt about the demand for this teaching. One needs only to ask his next-door neighbor, if he be a manufacturer, to be told that the situation in industrial quarters is alarming, and is steadily growing worse. The country is flooded with inferior workmen; but the skilled mechanics are few in number, comparatively speaking, and are, for the most part, advanced in years. They were trained under the apprentice system which, in this country, is practically gone. There are no young men under training to take their places, and the conditions in the industries are such, at present, that there can be no adequate provision for supplying the need which was formerly met by the apprentice system.

I will pass over the causes which have brought about this condition of things, but they are not far to seek. It is sufficient to state the fact—and I think it cannot be doubted—that the promise for the future of the better order of handcrafts in this country is nothing short of alarming. More than a hundred manufacturers have confirmed this statement; and they go farther and say that, so far as they are able to see, the *only* solution is to be found in the education of youth. To one who has not

looked up this question it may seem a little strange that boys cannot secure employment which may give them a similar teaching to that which was supplied by the old apprentice system, but such are the facts. Formerly a boy was bound out as an apprentice for a term of years. At first he could earn nothing for his employer, but was himself the gainer in the knowledge and practice he secured. But he soon acquired sufficient skill to be somewhat of a producer for his employer, and, being still bound as an apprentice, he was in this way compelled to return at least an equivalent for what his employer had given him. In recent times, however, as soon as boys are able to earn anything for the corporation for which they work, they are, in many cases, put upon piece work, with the intention of keeping them there indefinitely for the profit of the corporation, which has no interest in allowing the boy to learn other operations and thus complete his trade. In other cases the boys, not being bound by any agreement, leave their employers as soon as they are able to earn a small wage, thus resulting in a clear loss to the first employers.

This is an incomplete statement of the two principal evils of the industrial shop education of recent times, which has come to be recognized as an absolute failure. It cannot be called a poor system, for that would imply that it might be improved; it is simply a nuisance. Scores of manufacturers have told me that they wouldn't, under any consideration, have a boy in their employ; but they are looking forward to the time when manual-training schools can turn out graduates who are really proficient in some line of work, and able and willing to join forces with their employers as producers.

It must be admitted, of course, that the tremendous development of machinery has practically destroyed many of the trades, or at least has reduced the number of expert workmen required in certain lines to a comparatively small number. This is true of cabinet-making, carpentry, shoemaking, etc. Machines are employed for probably nineteen-twentieths of all the operations which were once among the handicrafts. The men or women who control these machines, altho in many cases they need expert training, cannot be classified among those whom we expect to reach by our courses in the trades. We must confine ourselves to those who are to work, for the most part, by hand with the aid of tools, tho not altogether without machines. With this limitation as to what may be properly called trades, it will be seen that there are comparatively few which can be taught. This disposes at once of one argument which has been urged against the teaching of trades, namely, that if we teach any trades, we must teach all of the hundreds—or thousands, it may be—of different trades. We really need to consider only the comparatively few trades which are, from their very nature, safe from annihilation by machinery.

There is one other limiting condition which ought to be considered. Every community has its special lines of work, and it will be found in practice that the few trades which will never be supplanted by machinery can be cut down to a still smaller number. In Springfield I find that there are, at the most, five for which there is any reasonable demand, named in the order of importance—tool-making, machine-shop practice, drafting, plumbing, pattern-making. We shall not need to teach all the existing trades, but only such as each community demands.

But the most difficult question connected with this whole matter is how to connect instruction in the trades with the established work of manual-training high schools. One who advocates such a connection will probably be stigmatized as a deserter from the ranks of true educational manual training. In the early days of these schools we used to hear much said by our opponents on this very subject of teaching trades. Manual-training schools were then characterized as trade schools, and as having no business to class themselves among educational forces. But these schools, altho they have been favored by the general demand for the practical in education, have still defended themselves on the highest educational principles, and have won just recognition on these grounds. Now, are we to recede from this position of educational manual training and teach merely trades, after all? This is the question in about the form which will be given it by those who are critics of this movement. But it doesn't seem to me that we are forced to accept such a dilemma. It is, to be sure, not an easy matter to map out a course in one or more trades which shall correlate with the essentials of academic high-school studies after the plan of the ordinary manual-training high schools; and yet I believe that this may be worked out in time. Some increase in the length of school time will have to be assumed, I think, in order to get in an amount of practice which is at all comparable with that which was formerly given under the apprentice system; and probably it will be many years before we shall see the teaching of trades carried to the perfection which was possible under that system in its best days. But certainly, if boys really wish to learn a trade, they must be willing to spend double the amount of time that they would give to ordinary school work.

I cannot go much into details, but I will call your attention to a statement of the courses of instruction as outlined for the Mechanics' Arts High School of Springfield. I refer to Special Course B, which approaches as near to a course in the trades as we have yet been able to reach in our day school. You will notice that considerable attention is given thruout that course to the essentials of English, mathematics, science, and history; and yet an unusual amount of time is allotted to mechanic-arts practice; and I will add further that, in my judgment, the time given to mechanical work will need to be largely increased, without infringing upon the

academic work, in order to give the necessary thoroughness to the teaching required for the trades. I see no reason why students of a trade course, at least in the last two years of that course, should not work eight hours a day. In our Evening School of Trades, which is an entirely independent school, we give no academic instruction; it is simply a school of trades.

CHARACTER, CONTENT, AND PURPOSE OF HIGH-SCHOOL COURSES IN MANUAL TRAINING

B. A. LENFEST, PRINCIPAL OF MANUAL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL,
WALTHAM, MASS.

A word of preface as to the ambiguity of the term "manual training" seems necessary, in order that we may narrow the subject within the time limits imposed by the association.

A careful scientific analysis of the work classed as manual training, both from the historical and the psychological standpoint, leads to the inclusion of not only the mechanic arts or shop-work, and drawing, both free-hand and mechanical, but all scientific manipulation in the laboratory, whether of chemistry, physics, biology, or engineering. The blacksmith shakes hands with the professor of chemistry or engineering, and each pledges himself to labor for a truer perspective and for a more sympathetic appreciation on the part of the public of the content of manual training.

I am impelled to confine the discussion to manual training in the popular, tho narrow, sense, as including free-hand and mechanical drawing, working in wood and metal, cooking, dressmaking, millinery work, clay-molding, printing, and so on, together with such consideration of academic work as existing or proposed courses require. This separation is, I am aware, artificial. The historical basis of secondary manual-training work, so far as this country is concerned, is easily traced to the mechanic arts school of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (now abolished). It was a close copy of the shops of the Imperial Technical School under Della Vos. These Russian shops at Moscow were equipped solely that specialists (engineering students) might, by actual trial, have some appreciation of practical processes more or less closely interwoven with the theoretical instruction of the rest of the school.

Only as Dr. Runkle opened the Boston school in 1876 to others than students in engineering courses do we see the unfolding of manual training in a way worthy of the popular support; that is, as a thing of itself, and no longer as an appendage hanging on, as best it may, to the theoretical engineering work. In 1879 Dr. Woodward at St. Louis elaborated the secondary school of manual training.

There are three modifications to be noticed when comparing the best of our present secondary schools of manual training with the old Boston

school of 1876, and yet one is surprised that the difference is so slight, for the twenty-four years have shown but slight change from the plans of Dr. Runkle and others.

Sweden, thru Salomon and our own Mr. Larsson, has helped us to clearer perception of the value of interest thru the useful model. However, as far as my observation goes, the sloyd system, as embodied in the Naas models or in the Boston sloyd series, is not as well adapted as the Russian exercise system to produce skill in tool manipulation and careful workmanship in the high school. This is perhaps the reason why sloyd has been of little help to the secondary teacher of wood-work, and less to metal-workers, for it has not developed beyond wood-working. A third element, only in its infancy, but destined, I believe, to exert a profound influence on not only manual training, but on the very structure of society, is the æsthetic element. We gladly welcome as a fellow-worker the art teacher; indeed, the future will demand that the artisan in wood or metal be an artist; and echo answers, the artist must be an artisan.

Naturally enough, "as art is long and time is fleeting," the best development of artistic models and models of art is seen in the manual-training high school, where the art teacher co-operates with each shop-work instructor as directed by the more than academic principal.

There is a crying need for more sympathetic co-operation between art teachers and teachers of shop-work; too often professional jealousy blocks the way for reform. One has only to glance at the ugly models contained in the collection from the Moscow school, and compare them with the product of the manual-training high school, to see that our modern crusade for drawing in the public schools is bearing fruit. All honor to our faithful supervisors of drawing for that, and, while the most artistic models are the product of schools where art departments co-operate with the shops, yet it is not hard to find artistic work developed by the shop-work teacher possessed with a keen love of the beautiful.

But what do we find in looking over the field of secondary manual training? It falls into four groups: (1) the trade work, combined with a meager amount of academic studies; (2) the manual-training department added to the existing departments of the high school, all under the direction of a classical principal; (3) the manual-training school independent of the high school, but relying on it for academic instruction; (4) the separate manual-training high school. There are two courses involving manual training offered in these groups (barring the first), called, for want of better names, (*a*) the technical (or scientific) and (*b*) the general course; the former intended to satisfy the entrance requirements of technical schools, and the latter offered as a preparation for life-work.

The failure of trade schools, and the discredit that has come upon

them, are I believe, due to a neglect of the founders and promoters to recognize that the boy needs liberalizing studies, especially as the trade work tends to machine results. The skill which makes our machinery the best is of little avail without the power of adaptation that good courses in English (in the broad sense), ethics, civil government, and commercial law insure.

There is a growing demand on the part of the public, as a perusal of current literature shows; on the part of the engineering profession, as is evident from the unusual interest in and duration of the discussion of Mr. Higgins' paper on a half-time school, read before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers; on the part of leading educators, as shown by Dr. Dutton's recently published book, and by Dr. Balliet's latest reports, that there must be more attention paid to education for vocation. In short, trade schools, at the public expense, are to come; else we may see our industries crippled and the country flooded by English- and German-made goods. Already the wisdom of the German system of trade instruction is apparent, for German hardware is sold in markets once open only for English goods—even in Birmingham and Sheffield, and in this country. It appears difficult to defend the commercial course in the high school on one hand, and object to trade instruction on the other, without becoming ridiculous.

Massachusetts has a law requiring cities in that state of 20,000 inhabitants and upward to offer suitable courses in manual training to pupils of high-school age. The law, not having a penalty attached, is violated by a few cities, such as Quincy and Newton; but most of the cities have obeyed, and it is here that we find the most extensive illustration of the second group, i. e., of the classical high school with a manual-training department. An educator in one of these cities said that they introduced manual training to obey this law and to give the subject fair trial. One or two instructors were appointed, and the department was put under the direction of the high-school principal, not because he knew much about the subject, but perhaps because he needed to learn. This method of making the secondary work in manual training a department of the classical high school is, tho the most popular and best adapted to please the economical taxpayer and the ambitious high-school principal, a poor plan, and should be put away with other childish things as soon as public opinion will permit. A business concern will not prosper unless a superintendent or director who knows his business thoroly is in charge; and shall we any the less demand that the studies which in the high school develop character as no other studies do be not placed in inexperienced hands? One of our brightest department teachers of manual training, in a discussion recently, said that his principal left him to his own devices, frankly admitting that manual training was out of the principal's line. Would, that more classical principals were thus wise.

But is this any defense of the plan? In what should a director's duty consist, and is he not negligent if *all* departments of his school have not a fair and proportionate share of his time and energies? A further objection to this method is due to the class of instructors commonly chosen. The smaller cities and larger towns, where alone this plan is developed, have but little to pay for a manual-training director, and the development of manual training is hindered, or even blocked, by superannuated artisans, half-trained sloyd teachers, or even, in some cases, by the narrowly trained specialist from the school of engineering. I fear that the grand possibilities of motor education are for a time destined to be obscured by this unfortunate mistake.

The third plan, that of an independent director of manual training, who calls on the high school for academic instruction, is to my thinking a much better plan for the small city than the departmental scheme. The director is apt to be put in charge of all manual work, and can thus plan for a continuous, progressive scheme of instruction covering twelve or thirteen years of school life. He is a more valuable man than the department head, and the city can afford to pay him more, for he does double duty. Thus the work is sure to be of better quality, for Garfield's definition need not be narrowed to Mark Hopkins, and inspiration is derived from many a humble teacher.

There is one serious difficulty inherent in both the departmental and the separate-shop plan. The best results are not to be reached unless there is a closer relation between shop and recitation-room than we find existent. Wrapped up in this question is the relation of technical to general courses. But, for the reason that the most progressive work is found in the fourth group, let further discussion pass on to a consideration of that plan.

A separate manual-training high school is termed a luxury, only to be tolerated in the larger cities, and not uncommonly comparisons are drawn going to show how much more it costs per pupil in the manual-training high school than in the classical one in the same city. While such figures are probably reliable, it must be remembered that a new enterprise needs time for development; that the per-capita cost is lessening with these schools, and, on the other hand, is increasing in the classical schools; that it takes more to train a technical student than one in college; that the education offered by the state is not weighed in dollars and cents, but is, as in more concrete matters, weighed by the formula that the best is none too good. Is there reason to believe that a superior education is available in the manual-training high school? It seems to me there is. An examination of results from the Elmira Reformatory, and similar institutions offering manual training as a corrective and reclaiming agency; the fact that truants and bad boys sent from the schools of Cambridge, Mass., to their manual-training school are returned reformed, where but a

few years ago they went to the reform schools direct ; the fact that boys, and girls too, rejected and dismissed from classical high schools, have, to my personal knowledge, done more and better work in manual-training high schools ; finally, the fact that a large percentage of the pupils, some 35 to 40 per cent., leave school for work or for idleness near the end of the grammar-school course, together with this unexpected fact that manual-training high schools, when introduced in cities where the classical high school was crowded and in cramped or poor buildings, have not relieved this burden to any great extent, but have drawn from the class which leaves school in the grades ; all these facts go to show that there is a value in the work offered in such a school not to be found elsewhere.

With the objection of the parent or pupil that the average high school gives little of value to help in the coming struggle for existence I have considerable sympathy. Nor will the cry for mental discipline or general culture drown the demand of the citizens who are waking up to the need of vocational studies. To say that a boy or girl is out of place in a public high school when the pupil or parent desires his attendance is a confession of the weakness of such a school, which the public is bound to investigate sooner or later. It would not be fair to dodge the objection made that a separate manual-training high school deprives many scholars in classical high schools of much needed training in the shops. This is a more fancied than real objection, for it is easy to offer such work as an elective to classical scholars, thus combining in one school the separate-shop plan and the separate manual-training high school.

There is much to be said in favor of extending the work of the shop to all pupils of high-school age, both from a socialistic and an ethical standpoint. A retrospective glance will explain to the investigator why there is still a distaste for manual work, and a feeling among scholars that the classical scholar is a finer creature. We find that the slave or serf did the manual work ; idleness was the prerogative of the lord and master. Even we read of the Man who spake as never man spake, that on the sabbath day Jesus taught in the synagogue in his own country, so that many were astonished, saying : "Is not this the carpenter, the son of Mary, the brother of James and John, and of Judas and Simon ?" Nineteen hundred years have not been sufficient to give honor to our carpenters nor to dignify labor ; but it is the function of motor education to change all this, not at the expense of classical education, but in co-operation with it.

One can but be pessimistic when trusts or monopolies on one hand, and trades unions on the other, threaten the very national perpetuity and well-nigh shake our belief in republican institutions. But even as education was the bed-rock of the republic, an extension of its scope to include a training in and appreciation of the manual arts will, on the one side, give the capitalist of the next generation a sympathy never before

attained; while the wage-earner, thru the interrelation of manual and liberal studies, will put himself in the other's place.

I believe that a carefully arranged course in manual arts and liberal studies is to be the most potent weapon available to break down the barrier between the masses and the classes, and insure the future welfare of the republic.

But what is to be offered in this secondary school for manual training, and have we any such schools in operation? is asked.

The schools having the broader aims in view can be counted almost on the fingers of one hand, for there is rubbish to be cleared away. There is, for example, a too common custom of intrusting the manual-training high school to an academic principal whose knowledge of the shop-work is attained by exercise at the family wood-pile, or in some such way as the historic tramp who went thru Harvard College by entering one door and suffering ejection at another. The school is foredoomed to failure, unless its head knows both sides, and can as well don the blue jeans and direct a class in forging or in machine-work as discuss the problem of moral freedom or the question of duty in the class in ethics.

Again, the secondary school of manual training is too dependent on the technical school, perhaps as much so as the classical school on the college.

President Patton has recently written of the approximation of the high-school curriculum to college-entrance requirements. A recognition is imperative on the part of secondary teachers of the fact that the general mental discipline which fits a boy for college is the best mental discipline also to qualify for the work of life. Leaving the classical man the task of answering, we should in technical courses deny that this is true; a subtraction is essential, more particularly in elementary mathematics, and much enrichment is needed in science, higher mathematics, drawing, and English studies.

I offer a course of study for boys for your criticism, not that it is the best possible arrangement, but because it will be easily applicable either to a manual-training high school or to a department of the classical high school. The limits of the paper forbid any extended consideration of the course.

FIRST YEAR				SECOND YEAR			
Subject			Hours per week	Subject			Hours per week
English	-	-	4	English	-	-	4
French	-	-	4	Economics	-	-	4
Geometry	-	-	4	French	-	-	3
Physiology, physiography, and botany—				Algebra	-	-	4
take two, one half-year each	-	-	3	Chemistry	-	-	4
Drawing	-	-	4	Drawing	-	-	4
Joinery, carving, wood-turning	-	-	8	Pattern work			
			—	Molding			
			27	Pipe-fitting	-	-	8
				Plumbing			—
							27

THIRD YEAR							FOURTH YEAR										
Subject							Hours per week	Subject							Hours per week		
English	}							5	English	}							5
Civil government									Ethics								
German	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	German	-	-	-	-	-	-	3		
Trigonometry with surveying							3	Applied mathematics or reviews							4		
Physics	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	Advanced physics, electricity, and me-									
Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	chanics	-	-	-	-	-	3			
Smithing	}								Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	4		
Sheet-metal work								8	Machine work	-	-	-	-	-	8		
Chipping and filing																	
							27								27		

The manual-training high school is not complete without a course for girls, and the present uncertainty as to the best work for them, together with the transitional condition of the whole work, would, to my mind, call for a committee from this national society, which should report at a future meeting on the whole matter. Does not the importance of the subject warrant more attention than the association has bestowed on it?

MANUAL TRAINING FOR THE ORDINARY HIGH SCHOOL

JAMES H. VAN SICKLE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BALTIMORE, MD.

Ten years ago manual training in the high school was an open question, and its desirability a matter of debate. Now its cost is considered as legitimate an item of public expense as that of any of the traditional subjects. Some of the questions with regard to high-school manual training now are: What shall be taught? For how long a time? How freely shall it be offered (that is, in every school or only in special schools)? Shall it extend to the teaching of trades?

Not only on account of its value in general development is it highly desirable that all pupils should have manual training thru the elementary grades, but, as long as the tendency to differentiate high schools prevails, it is also essential to bring all pupils in the elementary schools into contact with the greatest possible variety of activities, including that which manual training furnishes, so that by the time they are ready for the high school they may know in what direction their tastes lie. Otherwise the choice will depend upon proximity to the school, rather than upon tastes and aptitudes.

As the means of general development manual training should be one of the subjects offered in every high school. Experience proves that even classical pupils will gladly devote from two to four periods a week to this work in excess of the regular requirements. They are the better for it, physically as well as mentally. I have not attempted to say what modifications, if any, should be made in courses of well-equipped manual-training high schools, but only to show what may be done in an ordinary

high school. The course here outlined assumes that the boys have already had bench-work in wood, and that the girls have taken sewing or cooking, or both, but have not had bench-work. This they are to take before they begin carving. The course occupies not to exceed four periods per week, and should be on the same basis as other unprepared subjects. Drawing is not mentioned, as it is presumed already to form an important part of the work of the school. It must, of course, precede every kind of work mentioned in the outline.

Printing, a subject not given in the outline, might well be included on account of its historical value, in addition to the manual element, as well as on account of its helpfulness in English.

The outline is not presented as ideal. There is no reason why other lines of work may not be substituted for some of those given. It merely sets forth a list that has been used successfully.

COURSE IN MANUAL TRAINING FOR THE ORDINARY HIGH SCHOOL
TIME, NOT TO EXCEED FOUR PERIODS PER WEEK

YEAR	HALF	Boys	Girls
I	1 ¹	Turning and pattern-making. Turning between two centers. Patterns requiring no lathe-work.	Bench-work. Similar to that in the grades.
I	2	Turning and pattern-making. Face-plate turning; chuck-turning and mandrel-turning. Patterns involving turned work.	Carving. Indenting and stamping, and groove-carving.
II	1	Molding in sand, modeling in clay, and casting in plaster. Pattern-making. Core-patterns and other complex patterns of lathe.	Modeling in clay and casting plaster. Turning and carving. Turning between centers. Chip- carving and flat carving.
III	1	Relief-carving.	Relief-carving. Girls may not take up third-year work unless they have had bench- work.
IV	1 ²	Advanced turning and carving.	Advanced turning and carving.

The models made in the course in turning are afterward used in pattern-making. This saves much time. It saves an outlay of money for lathes and space for the pattern-makers. The pupils make patterns for a complete lathe. This involves all the elementary, as well as a number of the more difficult, principles of pattern-making.

In the course of carving no fixed set of models is used. The different kinds of carving are taken up in the following order: indenting and stamping, groove-carving, chip-carving, flat carving, low relief, high relief, and carving in the round. Each pupil makes his own design.

¹ Only those who have taken I, 1, may take I, 2.

² Turning ornamental work and carving the same. Work of fourth year limited to those who have had a year's work in manual training.

Of course, he has some instruction and sees some examples. He then decides, first, what he will make; next, its size and shape; then, what parts are to be ornamented. Knowing the size of the space to be ornamented, he proceeds to make the design, and later to work it out.

The casting in plaster is done by the boys by making molds in sand from patterns made in the pattern-making course, and by the girls from objects modeled in clay.

In high-school work there need hardly ever be two models alike. The course should depend, not upon models, but upon exercises. The pupil may make any model he chooses, provided it involves the exercise which we wish him to learn.

The idea is not entertained that such a course in manual training is equal to that given in manual-training high schools. It furnishes, however, an amount that will, together with other subjects studied, give a fairly well-balanced development. It does not include work in iron with machines. That may well be reserved for the separate manual-training high school. It cannot include chipping and filing, or forging, without giving more prominence to the subject than its importance, merely as a factor in general education, warrants. To do more would require more time than can be had in connection with a four-year high-school course which includes the ordinary subjects. The above amount is gladly taken in excess of regular work. Such work can be carried on in a school of 400 or 500 pupils, with an equipment costing not to exceed \$2,500. If a city has several high schools, the problem is simply one of repetition. If one of these is a manual-training high school, it may still continue to serve the purpose for which it was established by educating in a more strictly technical way those pupils whose tastes lie strongly in that direction. By eliminating pupils not possessing special tastes in technical lines the manual-training high school would be able to advance its standard and reduce the time usually consumed in such schools by at least a year, thus saving the time of the pupil and giving him a more vigorous habit of work. The final or fourth year, possibly part of the third, might then be devoted to such work as is given in the early years of institutes of technology. Then any boy could, in his home city, fit himself to enter, with advance credits, such an institution, or to enter at once upon a remunerative calling. At present we give him a broad foundation from which to specialize, but there we leave him. If he can get a chance to do just a little more for himself, his services will be in demand. I am in favor of this higher work, but the opportunity to take it should be based upon manifest aptitude.

From a social point of view the making of manual training the exclusive function of one school, classical education of another, and commercial education of another, is open to criticism. It fosters the caste spirit. It is undemocratic. It trains up a generation divided into

groups less capable than former generations of entering into sympathetic relations outside of the group. It fosters in those not manually trained contempt for labor with the hands.

The girl who has learned the theory and practice of cooking, and who can make her own garments, will be a better woman, more sympathetic, more tolerant, because of such knowledge and skill. From a social standpoint all should have equal opportunities for manual training. The boy who studies Greek and who is going to college has as much need, physiologically and psychologically, of this training as has the boy who must early earn his own living, and society is equally concerned with both cases. Those not manually trained cannot appreciate the thought and skill that enter into the material things contributing to our comfort. On the frontier there are no class distinctions. It is possible to know one's neighbor. There the cowboy and the millionaire are not far apart. To know is to sympathize and to appreciate. The Rough Riders had not all the arts and graces of social circles, but they knew their leaders. Wood and Roosevelt knew and respected them, tho in many particulars they had little in common. The nearer we get to the centers of population, the greater is the distance between man and man. It is greater in Chicago than in Denver, greater still in New York, still greater in the crowded cities of the Old World. When this barrier between rich and poor becomes high the result is misunderstanding and suffering. When people give you up you feel like giving up too. The rich lose as much as the poor. They lose the finer life of sympathy. Personal intercourse is at the foundation of all successful charity movements. There must be direct contact with problems before there can be any solution. The best architects have had carpenter's training. Physicians must know the work in the hospitals. Theological students are now sent to study the slums.

Present social conditions are aptly illustrated in the following paragraph from the pen of Edward Everett Hale :

A strong and pathetic article in the London *Times*, some thirty years ago, represented a lady of high social rank from one of the fashionable squares at the West End of London, as she would appear at the day of judgment, as it is described in the gospel of Matthew. It depicted her as bravely replying to her Judge when he said : "Inasmuch as ye did it not to one of the least of these, ye did it not to me." She said to him in reply that he was quite mistaken if he thought she had ever seen such people as he described. She explained to him that poor people, hungry and thirsty, strangers, naked or sick, did not live in the part of London she lived in. She explained to him that she neither walked nor drove in the region of the Seven Dials or Whitechapel. She told him that the police of London were quite too well regulated to permit such people to show themselves as beggars in Belgravia or Grosvenor Square. And he was quite wrong, she said, if he thought she had refused to minister to them, for the truth was that she had never seen any of them, and had had no such opportunity as he supposed.

The separation into classes has gone far. The public school should not encourage this separation. It should be a unifying force,

DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The meeting was opened in South Carolina Hall, at 3:30 P. M., with the president, Miss Frances E. Ransom, of New York, in the chair.

Miss Azalea Willis, of the Charleston Art Club, received the Art Department with an address of welcome, which was responded to by the president in a few remarks introducing her presidential address.

Colonel Francis W. Parker was then introduced, and gave an address on "Art in Everything."

Miss Estelle Potter, of Boston, not being present, Mr. Fred J. Orr, of Athens, Ga., read his paper on "Picture Study, Its Relation to Culture and General Education," which was discussed by Miss Gertrude M. Edmund, of Lowell, Mass. The discussion was then thrown open to the house, and Miss Bonnie Snow, of Minneapolis, Minn., and Mr. Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts, took part.

The following committees were appointed:

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Langdon S. Thompson, of New Jersey.

Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts.

Fred J. Orr, of Georgia.

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Miss Gertrude Edmund, of Massachusetts.

Mr. James M. Stone, of Massachusetts.

Miss M. A. Woodmansee, of Ohio.

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12

The second session met in the South Carolina Hall, at 3:30 P. M., Miss Ransom presiding.

Miss Bonnie Snow, of Minneapolis, read the first paper of the afternoon. The subject was, "Relative Value of Pencil-Drawing and Water-Color Work in Public Art Instruction."

A short discussion followed, in which Fred J. Orr and Henry T. Bailey took part.

A paper on "The Relation of Nature Study to Drawing in the Public Schools" was then given by James M. Stone, of Worcester, Mass.

A short discussion followed, in which several took part, and then the business meeting followed.

The first committee to report was the Committee of Ten, represented by the chairman, Langdon S. Thompson. The report was still in an incomplete state, owing to the impracticability of convening the committee and of procuring necessary funds for expenses. Mr. Thompson thought another year would enable him to give a more complete and satisfactory report, and asked that another year be granted before giving the full report.

A motion prevailed to extend the time to 1901.

The next committee to report was the Committee on Resolutions, which submitted the following :

Resolved, (1) That the hearty thanks of the Art Department of the National Educational Association are due to the Charleston Art Club for its interest in the work of the department and its preparation for the entertainment of visiting members.

(2) Especially are thanks due to Miss Azalea Willis for her kind welcome; to the Misses Alice and Caroline Smith, and to Mrs. Robertson, for the decorations of the hall; and to Mr. Pinckney, of the Committee on Halls, for his kind attentions and preparations for the convenience of the department.

(3) That the secretary express the most cordial thanks of the department to Mrs. Rogers and to Mrs. Robertson for the charming reception given to its members on Wednesday evening, July 11—a reception which has not been equaled in its cordiality and good-fellowship during the whole history of the department.

(4) That the appreciation of the department is hereby expressed to Miss Ransom, the outgoing president, for her untiring efforts to arrange a helpful and inspiring program for the meeting.

HENRY T. BAILEY,

FRED J. ORR,

Committee on Resolutions.

The election of officers then took place. The Committee on Nominations reported the following :

For *President*—Miss Bonnie Snow, of Minneapolis, Minn.

For *Vice-President*—Henry T. Bailey, of Boston, Mass.

For *Secretary*—Fred J. Orr, of Athens, Ga.

The report was unanimously adopted, and the meeting adjourned until 1901.

M. W. WOODMANSEE,

Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

MISS AZALEA HOWARD WILLIS, OF THE CHARLESTON ART CLUB

Friends from the North, the South, the East, and the West, on behalf of the Charleston Art Club, I greet you. We are proud to meet and to know so able a body of art lovers and art instructors as is represented by you, the members of the Department of Art Education of the National Educational Association.

Charleston opens wide her gates to receive you. This river-embraced, sea-swept city possesses many points of historic interest, and there are picturesque nooks and corners which will appeal to the eye artistic. Go down to our Battery—where good Charlestonians go when they die, it is said—when the moon is flooding the bay, softening the stern outlines of Fort Sumter known in song and story; see how the forms of the outlying cotton islands have melted into the sea out on the dim horizon.

The old buildings and the churches, the quaint narrow streets, the overhanging balconies, the fragrant shadowy gardens, are all transformed and mellowed by the wand of this enchantress. Truly “she poetizes everything!” Look at the tiled roofs of bygone days when the sunshine falls upon them and converts them into silver. Watch the swaying of a palmetto tree—the emblem of our state—and listen to the wind-melodies thru its emerald fans. Do not these form subjects enough to stir

one's impulse to paint? Alfred Stevens declares that "painting is nature seen through the prism of an emotion." You who transfix upon your canvas a sunset of purple and gold, or the soft mystery of the silver haze of a gray day, can understand the full force of this. No great and good work is ever achieved unless the fibers of a man's being are moved to their very depths.

"The hand that rounded Peter's dome,
And groined the aisles of Christian Rome,
Wrought with a sad sincerity;
Himself from God he could not free;
He builded better than he knew;
The conscious stone to beauty grew."

Altho you come among us today, many for the first time, we do not think of you as strangers, but as friends. There is a strong bond of sympathy between us by the very nature of our work. You are striving to lift the thoughts of the youth of our land to an appreciation and love of the good, the true, and the beautiful. You are teaching them the ennobling and uplifting influences of art, and that "a thing of beauty is a joy forever." We, in a modest way, are pursuing the same lines in Charleston by the precepts of our art teachers and the semi-annual exhibitions of our Art Club. We can clasp hands in a friendly grasp, in full accord each with the other's aims and aspirations.

We trust that your visit to us will be a happy one, and that you will never regret the cry that sounded at Los Angeles one year ago: "On to Charleston!" The days spent among us, we hope, will in after-years come to you as some sweet musical strain, or the delicate fragrance of some loved flower. When you have returned to your respective homes, after your sojourn in our quiet southern city, we pray you to paint our portraits to hang in memory's gallery with the brush of

"A flattering painter who made it his care
To draw men as they ought to be, not as they are."

RESPONSE AND PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

MISS FRANCES E. RANSOM, DIRECTOR OF DRAWING, NEW YORK TRAINING
SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS, NEW YORK CITY

Miss Willis of the Charleston Art Club, Ladies and Gentlemen:

It gives me the greatest pleasure to respond to the cordial welcome extended to us by Miss Willis on behalf of the Charleston Art Club.

The southerners have always had the reputation of being the most hospitable entertainers in the world, and Charleston has lived up to this reputation, for she has opened wide her portals and bidden us enter and enjoy all things to the fullest extent.

We shall take great pleasure in seeing the beauties of this interesting city, in becoming acquainted with its people, and in carrying away pleasant memories and inspiration for our coming year's work.

We are gathered here in the South today from the far West, the North, and the East—gathered together to listen to those who will give us the most advanced thoughts along the lines of art instruction for the public school.

The larger part of the membership of this department shifts and changes each year, depending largely upon the territory in which the meeting is held. This is more or less true of every department, but decidedly so of the Art Department, because of so many local associations meeting during the year and taking in certain sections of the country. For instance, the East has the Eastern Drawing Teachers' Association, the West has the Western Drawing Teachers' Association, and the South has several of these gatherings during the year.

Yet year after year, when this department holds its sessions, we discuss the question asked by Herbert Spencer some forty years ago—that old question which, when it was first asked, created such a sensation, but which, as time goes on, we take as a matter of course, and use as a rudder in determining the drift of our work—the question: What knowledge is of most worth?

The time was when the question was asked of us: Should art instruction have any place in our public schools? Time and results have solved this problem of self-preservation, and now we come to the second principle of life—that of self-expansion, and the question becomes: What particular knowledge in our subject is of most worth and will lead to the greatest expansion?

As we stand on the threshold of 1900 and look back and see what has been accomplished within an incredibly short time, we feel great encouragement to look forward and build high hopes for the future.

We need the united intelligence and experience of all practical educators to make the work more of a unified whole. And to be practical workers we must not isolate ourselves from educational workers in other subjects, since the same educational principles govern both, and we should be able to understand our work in relation to other branches if we would get the true placing of our own in the life of the individual.

That knowledge is of most worth which becomes a part of our life. If this is true, then it becomes necessary to eliminate all nonessentials; for any knowledge not applied or translated into life weakens the acquisitive powers. The brain power, then, should be given only to those things which make life fuller and richer.

There is no subject in our course of study which has the term "fad" applied to it so often as that of drawing. This is largely due to the amount of experimenting that the subject has undergone in order to

reach its present stage. There is still much experimenting going on, and as the years go by we learn to keep the good and eliminate the worthless. But as long as there is growth there will be more or less experimenting. We have swung around our triangle of construction, representation, and decoration again and again, each year changing the comparative length of the sides. At present the tendency is to lengthen the decorative, or space-art, side, at the expense of the representative side, while construction, which for some time has been the shortest side, is now growing in importance because of its relation to the space arts.

We hope to get some light on the proper balancing of these three sides of the question during this session of the National Educational Association.

We, as Americans, must work out this question by ourselves, as no other country has ever experimented with public art instruction; and as we are the only people who have dared to go into new and untried fields, so are we the only people who give to each and every one the opportunity of developing his individuality to the highest possible fulfillment.

Art is an expression of the individual—of his thoughts, his hopes, his ideals. Our work is fascinating, and at times such as to lead us to forget this and to lose ourselves in the work itself, and so mistake the means for the end.

But we are always brought back by the reflection of the individual in his work—brought back to the fact that the individual is always greater than his work; that after all we are modeling life, not clay, and in the words of Kipling we cry:

Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget, lest we forget!

ART IN EVERYTHING

PRESIDENT FRANCIS W. PARKER, CHICAGO INSTITUTE, CHICAGO, ILL.

Our educational problems are comparatively new ones. Hitherto we have used the principles and methods of the old world. Its greatest problem is the education of willing and obedient subjects, which is necessarily a truncated education. The subject must not look beyond the necessities of fixed forms of government, and therefore the principles and methods of such education all tend toward that one ideal. The paramount duty of America is to educate its children into the highest type of citizenship. Our destination is either self-government or anarchy. We must choose between them. The great task of the schools is to decide whether the realization of self-government is possible. "Put into the school that which you would have in the state," is an old and sound maxim. It has been rigidly followed with comparative success by rulers

who wish to maintain a fixed form of government—I say comparative success, because education into final beliefs has sidetracks toward freedom.

Our American educational ideal must be an everlasting evolution into higher life, into a vigorously growing state of society, into the elimination of wrong and the institution of righteousness. In place of the training of subjects, as is the case in the Old World, we have the problem of the education of the citizen for sovereignty. The weakness or strength of central governments is found in police or armies; in America it is found in individual character.

We had no other way at first than to take the means and methods of aristocracies to guide us in educating a democracy. When we began there were no fundamental principles and worked-out methods for the education of a free people. We took by necessity that which mediæval times offered us. The conflict between the antipodal ideas is now on. We have been accustomed to call the common school “the bulwark of liberty, the foundation of a free government.” These high-sounding phrases have been to us little more than glittering generalities. We have made a slight beginning in a study of the relations of the school to the state.

Sociology, it is true, is vigorously working its way toward a science. Its connection, however, with elementary education is exceedingly slight. We recognize the fact that “the child of today is the citizen of tomorrow,” that “the school is society shaping itself.” Still, the learned sociologists of the universities, busy in a discussion of the present state of society, have not reached the central problem—the education of the child into the citizen. The bonds, the terrible bonds, of tradition are hard to break. Tradition makes us blind to the real situation. We do not yet clearly see that the guide of all education is the present state of society and its needs. We must put into the school that which we would have in society. A wrong-interpretation of this maxim brings disaster. For instance, elementary training for a trade or vocation means human predestination, which is the crippling and deforming of the individual. Self-choice is the essential element of liberty.

Only that to which the whole being eagerly and cordially and permanently responds should be chosen as the ideal in education. Character read in terms of true citizenship includes and comprehends every quality and qualification of true manhood. Education into citizenship demands self-choice all along the line; demands initiation, creation, imagination, and reason; it determines the subjects of thought; it also determines the skill in expression which the individual must acquire. In fact, education into citizenship is the one guide in making courses of study and in the adaptation of subjects of study to the individuals.

Vocation is the fundamental means of putting personality into life. The community-value of a vocation is that which it gives to society for

its good and growth. The personal value of a vocation is found in the best one can do for all. The quality of needed work done is the best for both society and the individual. Doing the best demands the highest motive. We will all grant that one of the fundamental weaknesses under which society suffers is careless, shiftless, and indifferent work—work that falls short of its intentions. A valid arraignment may be made in a few words. It is difficult to state the worst or to comprehend the boundaries of shiftlessness. Bad cooking, stomach-destroying, liver-hardening comestibles head the list. More human beings are killed or doomed to lives of hopeless misery thru bad cooking than thru whisky. To be sure, indigestible food does its work more quietly than alcohol, but its very quietness seems to be its greatest source of peril. There is no good reason why the fatal effects of a greasy doughnut should not be shown in pictured text-books by the side of the evil effects of alcoholic intoxication.

The category of bad work is a long one. Build a house, employ an architect, make a contract, employ a superintendent to watch the contractor, watch everything yourself, and then thank God if the first heavy rain does not penetrate the roof. Put the health of your family into the hands of a plumber, and have him defy all the laws of hygiene and sanitation—pipes on the cold side of the house, traps that leak, filling the house with deadly sewer-gas. These are the common experiences—common not only to the trades, but to the professions. One per cent. of the lawyers do the main business of law. The ignorance of the average physician is appalling. We search the world for ministers to establish genuine life-saving stations. And as for competent teachers—it behooves me to say little. If you need a first-class teacher, try to find one! Am I wrong in declaring that the world is filled with incompetents, with persons who have never learned to do real, genuine, honest work? You may, of course, point to the many exceptions—so can I; but they only prove the rule.

Who is responsible? What is responsible? Not the schools alone. Such an indictment would be terrible, if true; but it is not entirely true. There are other causes. But this is true: the common school is the one place where the whole people can engage in remedying the terrible evils of shiftlessness, carelessness, incomplete work. "The home has much to answer for," you say. Yes; and where are the home-keepers trained? "The church does not do its whole duty in calling attention to the divine words, 'He that doeth righteousness is righteous,'" you say. Yes; but where are most of the Sunday-school children educated? Inefficient work is immoral: its main stimulus is money, reward, or fame—generally money. Genuine work must have a high, noble incentive—an incentive that means putting something really good into human life. Work for a low motive is always drudgery. The best work, however difficult, carries with it enthusiasm, exhilaration, strong interest. It is a

truism that an ideal determines everything that goes into its realization. Most of the children in the schools work or drudge for the lowest motives—per cents, rewards, promotions, degrees. They are thus systematically trained into selfishness. Working for per cents and degrees means, generally, short-cuts to the goal—a goal that is worthless in itself. Millions of children struggling for paltry rewards and millions of men shortening the line between themselves and the money they work for! Is one the cause and the other the effect? If not, what relation do they bear to each other?

The needs of the school are the needs of society; the needs of the school are the needs of the individual. The human body is the product of countless generations of evolution. Heredity is ancestral environment begetting ancestral activities. The agents of expression and the physical agents of perception have been evolved by expression and perception. Shall this evolution of countless generations continue moving upward to higher planes, or shall nerves and muscles become weakened by disuse? Shall the arm, for instance, with all its possibilities of development, remain unused in expression while the brain is stuffed with useless words? The physical agents—nay, the whole body—demands expression of all kinds and that continually: its inner growth and development depend upon all-sided thought-manifestation. Every nerve-center, ganglion, and nerve has its evolutionary history by specific activity. These agents of thought-power were created by activity for activity. Knowledge cumulates and culminates in expression. The manifestation of a thought means knowledge changed to nutrition—knowledge that is memory and power at the same time. Expression focuses brain, mind, and motive. Motive is thought-direction. Thought, knowledge unexpressed is stagnant, incomplete, useless. It is safe to say that most children are starved in school for lack of knowledge made nutritious by expression.

The modes of expression—gesture, voice, speech, music, making, modeling, painting, drawing, and writing—have been developed by expression, each of its kind and in its kind. The co-ordination of muscles, the growth of nerves, are the physical evolutions thru expression. Each mode of expression has its special and peculiar function. In its reaction upon consciousness, in the development of nerve-power, and in the evolution of moral qualities, all the modes, each and every mode in turn, have a mutual relation to all the others—in unifying and strengthening mental and moral power. All the modes of expression are one in developing motive and morals, in reaction of thought, and in making the body an expression of the will. But there may be a continuous expression of thought and skill, and yet little or no education.

Physiological psychology has brought us some great truths—truths that are reconciled to the soundest common-sense. I know of no more important pedagogical truth than this: the quality of expression

determines the quality of growth of the nerve-centers used in expression. We now take it for granted that mind-action depends upon physical nerve-action; that there is the closest relation between the two. Conscious action that does not move into expression is retarded and weakened. Take an image in consciousness for the initiatory; that image has a strong tendency to move outward, manifest itself to others. The quality of the image determines the quality of the nerve-action, if the image is expressed. The quality of the expression determines, also, the quality of the physical agent in expression. Then with this physical basis of nerves we have the expression thru physical agents. The educative value of thought expressed is determined by the motive of the expression. The higher the motive, the better the thought, the better the nerve-action. Education, then, from first to last, means the best that one can do.

Art is doing the best under the highest motive of which the doer is capable. Art depends upon quality of thought and expression. Like beauty and taste, art can never be defined except from a personal standpoint. It is entirely a personal matter. It means one's selfhood; it reveals one's best thought and emotions to others. Art is best doing in every way, and best doing depends entirely upon motive. The best may be a daub, a blotch, a shapeless mass of clay, a discordant cry, but it is art if it is the best. When that best is felt by others, when it reveals the selfhood of the artist, when it tells something to the observer of the inner nature of the one who expresses thought, then it is fine art. All the steps up to fine art are thru art. Fine art is the highest plane of art.

From these facts we may get some sound pedagogical principles:

1. Expression should always be educative art.
2. All the modes and agents of expression should be brought into the fullest and most complete action.
3. There can be no expression without thought or knowledge behind it. The bare technique of modes of expression has little that is educative in it. The real education springs from the expression of growing thought, which has its sources in the study of man and nature.
4. Expression should always be the genuine reflex of the pupil's thought. The moment it ceases to be this genuine reflex it degrades itself into mere imitation.
5. Opportunities of expression spring from a close and careful study of man and nature. All knowledge thus gained becomes thru expression nutrition, and each mode of expression has its particular reacting function.
6. The quality of expression determines its educative value. Expression is educative movement.

The results of education are all found in the growth of the individual; in the growth of muscle, brain, mind, and motive. The

expressed product is the one means by which this growth can be watched and criticised.

7. Doing the best always arouses enthusiasm, earnestness, and courage on the part of the doer. It stimulates persistence and opens a vista of better things before.

PICTURE STUDY—ITS RELATION TO CULTURE AND GENERAL EDUCATION

FRED J. ORR, SUPERVISOR OF DRAWING, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, ATHENS, GA.

As I have thought of this subject, pictures in the schoolroom seem to have two general values, namely, cultural and technical; cultural, as they have to do with the training of mind, morals, and taste; and technical, as they may aid in the use of one or another medium of pictorial expression.

The question of the relation of picture study to education calls into debate the province of art. If art creations have no higher purpose than to chase away sadness, as Pericles put it; or merely to give pleasure, as a modern German expresses it, then art has not served its highest calling, tho it may perform in either or both these spheres and do well.

One definition of a work of art is that it is "the manifestation of some essential or salient character, consequently some important idea, clearer and more completely than is attainable from real objects." This means that the artist must possess the power to suppress and select to such a degree that his finished work presents only the concentrated essence of the matter in hand. If this is true, we may arrive quickly at the conclusion that a work of art is always a medium of interpretation. It is the distilled product of a master's skill. It is "man added to nature;" as in the case of Leonardo—"through whose soul, as through a clear glass, the bright figures of Florentine life, only made a little mellowed and more pensive by the transit, passed on to the opposite wall." Hence, when we come before the canvas, it is with another's eyes that we behold. And thru this borrowed vision we may see beauty as a "transformer of the crude wealth of material goods into things of spiritual value."

So, a master's picture may be an interpretation of ideals: ideals of intellectual life; of moral life; of beauty and the sense of fitness; and of all these combined. The art of the Greeks was an embodiment in marble of the ideal of physical manhood which, for four hundred years, they had endeavored to realize. And Lessing states that "these beautiful statues, fashioned from beautiful men, reacted upon their creators; and the state was indebted for its beautiful men to its beautiful statues." It is the reflex influence of the best qualities of character represented in art that is to benefit those who study pictures; and the benefit will come, either in giving form to a poorly defined ambition, or by inspiring a desire and

love for higher things, which did not exist before. The "pure ideal" within many a breast dies for a want of development. And I believe the lowest and poorest can be made to look upward if we but find the instrument which is strong enough, and yet simple enough, to fix the gaze. A picture attracts most strongly thru the simplicity of its appeal. The lesson which a poet-artist with his superior insight has extracted from nature is before us in plain and beautiful terms—easy and delightful to understand. Thus, such a picture as Millet's "Angelus," with its simple landscape and two figures, may teach, as Drummond says of it, love, work, and worship; or a Bastien-Lepage may inspire purpose and patriotism by his peasant Joan; or a Da Vinci may show us in a single face, according to Pater, ten thousand experiences and all modes of thought and life.

And so, dormant impulses and sleeping activities may be aroused by a revelation of what is worthy and what is worthless; we may discover, not only what we like, but what is worth liking; taste and duty may be harmonized, and beauty made interpreter of goodness and truth.

Concerning the technical values: I quote from Emerson that "man is only half himself, the other half is his expression." And most frequently the latter half is painfully unable to give utterance to itself. The separation between abilities of conception and perception, and those of expression, is wide. As someone has said:

The thought that most thrills our existence is one
Which, before we can frame it in language, is gone.

In order to sharpen the tongue or make facile the pen, to every youth is given, for study, examples of masters who have excelled in the use of written and spoken language. And, to appreciate musical composition and harmony, we are trained to repeat the melodies of a Bach or Wagner. In like manner, to render practical the powers of pictorial expression, the mind must be saturated with the excellencies of a Raphael and an Angelo, a Rembrandt and a Millet. Ruskin wrote that "the more extensive your acquaintance is with the works of those who have excelled, the more extensive will be your powers of invention; and, what may appear still more like a paradox, the more original will be your conception." William Morris Hunt has said practically the same thing.

Now, intimacy with products of brush, crayon, or pencil can in no way be so well cultivated as by the effort to reproduce. This does not mean to argue for one moment that servile copying is healthful. The benefit lies in the study of methods, and, as above, the borrowing of another's eyes for a while to give training in the task of elimination and selection. To see what another has done, and thereby in some degree to understand the range of possibilities, and the manner of their accomplishment, is of immense value to the amateur.

An urchin of Phil May's or Edith Farmiloe's, to illustrate vitality in a line; a reproduction from Gibson, to show deftness in handling; a study

of Ross Turner for flowers and foliage ; of Pennell for a street scene. Or we may study a Millet for composition ; a Rembrandt for light and dark effects ; the Japanese for their beautiful arrangements in notan ; or a Michael Angelo for magnificent lines. And so the student finds here a bit of concentrated expression, as it were ; there an effect of texture ; in this, vivid sun effects and atmospheric qualities ; in that, a lesson in perspective.

Or, again, the same instruction may be had from reproductions in other fields of art, as : to gain ideas of good proportion from a picture of the Parthenon ; or of graceful line from a Gothic arch, or from a Greek "Victory ;" or of space arrangement from a Venetian façade or Giotto's Tower.

Picture study is therefore valuable in placing before young minds the teachings of great men who have been able to present their lessons in simple and attractive form, easily understood and gladly studied. Their delineations of great themes inspire thought and a desire for truth ; their outlines of figures and faces shine with goodness and spirituality ; and their combinations of line and space, shade and shadow, satisfy the yearning for that which pleases and delights the eye.

It is also practical in the union of the beautiful and useful, in the combination of the theory and practice of æsthetics, and in exciting a desire to create as well as to copy.

It is in a double sense cultural and educative.

THE RELATIVE VALUE OF BRUSH AND PENCIL AS MEDIUMS OF EXPRESSION

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There has been during the last two or three years a great wave of enthusiasm for the use of the brush and color, which has swept over the educational world and whose influence has been felt in nearly every city and town where drawing is included in the public-school course of study. Teachers and pupils alike have caught the infection. The school exhibits displayed in educational conventions during the last two years have been almost entirely in color. Old courses of study have been neglected, and many principles of drawing formerly considered fundamental and of great importance have received recently little or no attention because of the emphasis given to the new medium. No one can doubt, in the face of such overwhelming evidence as to the delight of the children in this new work, that it possesses immense educational value. No one who has experienced its phenomenal development, its influence on the attitude of the children, not only toward their work in drawing, but in many instances

toward their whole school life, can question its right to a large place in the adjustment of our curriculum.

However, without becoming unduly critical, it will do no harm to take a calm and retrospective view of what we have been doing for the last year or two, with a view of determining whether or not we have been carried too far, thru our love for color, and whether we have held fast that which is good in our effort to prove all things.

The Minneapolis exhibit of pupils' work which hangs in an adjoining room may properly be considered an illustration of half of the subject announced—the value of the brush as a means of expression. It may also be taken as typical of the character of work resulting from this wave of enthusiasm for color and the brush. It bears witness to the intense interest taken in the new medium by children and teachers, and it also stands as a living example to be pointed at by the more conservative of our friends who are lifting a warning voice against what seems to them the overwhelming predominance given to the brush as a tool in the hands of children, and who loudly regret the passing of the pencil. While it is possible, and very likely probable, that our enthusiasm for color has carried us too far away from the standards, the methods, and the instruments of the past, we must remember two things:

First, to fall very much in love with an idea, to be greatly influenced by it, to be what is called entirely carried away with it, is not in itself a bad thing; it is a very good thing, even if, while under the spell and charm of this idea, we are not always as coolly judicial as when the fire of enthusiasm has died down. Time, tide, and the resistless influences of passing events can be depended upon to correct extremes. It really is better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all; and, if we can still love without losing, surely 'twere a consummation devoutly to be wished.

Second, we cannot but perceive that the objections to the too exclusive use of the brush come mainly from those interested in the publication of drawing-books and from the manufacturers of pencils. The inference is obvious. We do not say that the objections come solely from these sources, or that such objections are not without foundation. We believe that they contain something more than the elements of truth, and it is the purpose of this discussion to look at both sides of the question, to admit the weaknesses and omissions of the work of the last year, and earnestly to seek for that which will strengthen it and make it more complete. We must remember, however, that it is not really the brush or the pencil, water-color or charcoal, pen or pastel, which is of the slightest consequence, except as they concern the happiness and well-being, the usefulness and open-mindedness, the proper culture and development, of that most interesting organism in the created world—the little child. Let us especially remember, then, his interests and desires—his needs, his

difficulties and dangers—and be sure that whatever is best for him is best for the course of study which he shall pursue, is best for his community and for his race.

Scientific people tell us that a child is a very different sort of human being from a man. He has a very different nervous organism, and he uses very different sets of muscles. We know that he requires food of a very different nature; that certain faculties of his mind, as well as functions of his body, are not developed in early life. We are discovering that certain occupations which require the exercise of large muscles are better for him than those which force the action or growth of the smaller and finer muscles. For instance, he may throw balls, pound nails, model in large masses of clay, or write on a blackboard with a large piece of chalk, employing in all these activities the larger muscles of the hand and arm. He must not write with a pen, or set fine stitches with a cambric needle, or string tiny beads upon a tiny thread. He must do things in a large way, and out of this largeness and generosity will come in time a love of beauty in a more finished state, the desire for skill and perfection, attainable when the proper time comes, because of flexibility in mind and muscles which have not become deformed, stiffened, or cramped by misdirected effort. There is a time for all things, but the time for technical precision, for accuracy of form, for beauty of line if you like, is not in the earlier years. We all admit the theory, but we are sometimes unwilling to stand by the outward and visible results of the free and untrammelled expression of little children. We want them to draw better, forgetting that an ounce of honest and heartfelt expression is worth several cartloads of accuracy which is the result of imitation, or which lacks the flame or fire of an ardent interest. I have an artist friend, a man of ability and sincerest purpose, trained in the Old World schools, an academician in the fullest sense. He is very much interested in art, but he has not an intimate knowledge of the workings of the child-mind. He visits our school exhibitions annually, and, with a ludicrous expression of interest, mystery, and doubt, gazes at the marvelous life-drawing of the youngest pupils in the illustration to some such idea as this:

“Forth into the forest straightway
All alone walked Hiawatha.”

He is greatly troubled because Hiawatha is so much bigger than the trees, and because, tho unmistakable action is expressed as Hiawatha walks with decision and boldness, the length of his forward limb is out of all proportion to the rest of his anatomy. My friend begins to criticise, to analyze. “But what of that?” we say. “Are you not teaching them to draw?” he asks. We tell him we hope and believe that we are, but at this particular stage we are doing our best to fill him with a desire to express, and we have faith that as a natural concomitant to this desire and its attempted expression will come, not only the willingness, but the eagerness for more

accurate knowledge concerning proportions and forms. It is a part of the teacher's office to lead children to become dissatisfied with their ideals, and to furnish the necessary ways and means for more definite and particular study, when the proper time comes.

Drill and emphasis upon line and form are extremely valuable and absolutely necessary in later years, and it is here that the pencil has a value that should not be slighted or overlooked.

It has not been our experience, however, that our emphasis of the brush and color has detracted from the average of accuracy in the representation of form, proportion, character, or growth. Rather, I think, has the reverse been true. The nature-drawing has never been so satisfactory as since the introduction of color as a medium. We have tried to impress upon the children the truth that the lesson with color or ink-wash is no less a drawing lesson because of the fact that the brush is used. The people who insist that drawing pure and simple is injured by the too exclusive use of the brush must remember that nowhere is there such refinement, such feeling, such absolute truth and simplicity of line, as with the Japanese, and with them the brush is the almost universal medium or tool. Probably this is because the brush most readily responds to the slightest pressure or emotion of the artist. It has been called the most sympathetic medium, recording as it does the almost unconscious feeling experienced by the worker. That medium which offers the least resistance, which places the slightest barrier between the child and his expression, seems most desirable.

However, it is extremely convenient and necessary to know how to use the pencil, particularly in a utilitarian sense. The carpenter must needs be familiar with its manipulations, in hastily and accurately sketching his working drawings upon a pine board. The illustrator must wield his ready pencil, notebook in hand, in catching a likeness, a fleeting expression, or in recording an important arrangement or situation. The traveler or the cultivated "tramp" cannot conveniently be burdened with colors, brushes, and palette. The dressmaker makes more easily a simple sketch with pencil giving her idea of the proposed "new creation."

That the pencil is a convenient, a useful, and an extremely practical medium, no one will for a moment question. That it is capable also of great artistic possibilities, witness the sketch-books and studies of Raphael, of Millet, of Sargent.

Certainly it is an excellent and convenient medium for use in schools, but because it is good in its place, and because it is convenient, are not sufficient reasons for its exclusive use. It is generally found that the truth lies in neither extreme of a proposition, but abides in the vicinity of a point half way between. It seems to me that the question for debate should be, not, The brush *versus* the pencil as a medium of expression, nor even, In what grades should the brush be used? but rather, Under what

circumstances is the brush more fitting than pencil, pen, or chalk as a medium of expression? I can more easily discuss this form of the question if you will allow me to refer to the course of study pursued in the schools where I find my field of labor.

In Minneapolis, altho the work of the department of drawing is in many ways carefully graded, and is controlled almost entirely by means of grade teachers' meetings, still it is true that to a large extent the same subject-matter is presented to all pupils. They do the same things at the same time of the year in many instances, altho, owing to the importance of relating as nearly as possible the drawing lessons to the other studies, there are of course numerous exceptions to this rule. But in the fall, for instance, we emphasize first the landscape, with all the beauty and vividness of autumnal coloring. Never is the sky so beautiful, the trees so brilliant, the soft brown grass with patches of green now and then so attractive, as in October's bright blue weather. What medium so irresistible then as color, from the youngest artist in the baby-room to the proud and haughty senior of the high school? Do you think the landscape too ambitious a subject for little minds and little fingers? Try it! Children draw with delight and vitality—and therefore with success, so far as results are concerned—those things in which they are greatly interested. They love the

“Great wide wonderful beautiful world,
With the wonderful water around it curled.”

It is big and beautiful and full of interesting things; why should they not express it? Who so appreciative as children of the glory of the sunset, the beauty of the rainbow!

“My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky.
So was it when my life began,
So is it now I am a man,
So be it when I shall grow old—
Or let me die.”

They can be taught to “drop in” a cloud effect, to notice and to express the harmony existing in nature between the local color of the sky and that of the water beneath it. The “placid lake” is never “deeply blue” when under a leaden sky. Shall they, when so intensely interested in the changing color of the season, or in the tender green of returning spring, be restricted to the colder, less responsive, and more formal medium suggested by the pencil and its kind? No one would say so. But even when interested in the landscape, we need not miss the value of the pencil in its proper place, for we are quite apt to say to the older pupil: “Take your pencil and make a line composition, using this charming bit of landscape as a motive. Notice the curve of that hill, that interesting mass of foliage in the distance, and the poetic quality of the shore line of the lake.” And so the older intellect reduces, as it were, the

beauty of the landscape to its lowest terms, rendering it in a more abstract form without loss of value. But the young child depends on mass and color and wholeness for his expression, and hence the brush is the better tool for him.

In the representation of flowers, grasses and plants, insects and animal forms, we use a variety of mediums. Sometimes, when the shape is strongly characteristic, as in the heads of grasses, the forms of small insects, etc., we are glad to employ the brush and ink, making what children call shadow-pictures or silhouettes. This work is valuable because, color being eliminated from consideration, the child has nothing from which to produce beauty except the representation of absolute truthfulness of growth, of proportion, and of characteristics. A spray of maple may, if properly selected and truthfully represented, present a most interesting arrangement of various shapes or masses. The interest of the whole is lost if there is wrong proportion, faulty growth, or undue accentuation of details. Perhaps there would be danger that a glow of color would hide faults of this kind. Therefore it is unfortunate to work entirely in one medium in any grade. Different characteristics suggest different ways of expression. A certain type of man suggests a fine subject for modeling or sculpture. Another of different mold would better be perpetuated by means of the painted portrait. So it is with objects, both animate and inanimate. It is certainly necessary for children, at the proper stage of development, to come to a definite understanding of the principles of perspective. Such principles can best be presented by means of objects of simple form, without distracting any individual variety of detail. Type-solids are good for such studies. It would seem natural to sketch from such forms in pencil, where accuracy and precision and something of mathematical understanding are necessary. No one would think of representing such things in color. Again, in planning a design or composition, it is best to make a pencil outline as a study, correcting and changing such an outline until the requirements are reached. But when the study is arranged, how natural and desirable to "wash in" the interesting tones of color! In the whole world of industrial art the pencil is beyond question the most convenient and practical tool. Without doubt it has a place with the other mediums employed. We shall always value it and use it, but its artistic value is admittedly less than the artistic value of the brush, and tho I grant that we must not disregard the utilitarian and industrial side of drawing, I do insist that the greatest value of that branch of education which this department represents, nay, more, that the greatest benefit of all branches of education, lies in the development of those faculties which operate most directly upon the soul of man; that help him to become cultivated, and show him how best and most completely to enjoy, not himself, but those things outside of and higher than himself.

I believe, for example, that the studies of literature and art are of vastly greater value than the study of arithmetic, altho I would not deny the necessity of some study of the last named.

It seems to me that the use of a variety of different materials or mediums under proper conditions is eminently desirable. One likes to exercise one's choice, and later one's judgment, in the selection of the study and the manner in which its character and "personnel" shall be expressed. The wider the acquaintance with various mediums, the larger will be the experience and the greater the delight on the part of the children, in choosing. Acquaintance with a variety of mediums also adds greatly to the power of children in expression generally. "We grow," says someone, "not by virtue of what we receive, but by virtue of what we create and do."

Mr. William I. Crane, in the March number of the *Philistine*, had a most interesting article on the manual-training idea. He calls what he has written "A Plea for the Education of the Hand." Among other good things he says that every man's value to society is exactly proportioned, not to his thinking power, but to his expressional power, and he shows how many and varied are the forms of expression, as evinced in the world about us. Napoleon expressed his power by means of gigantic schemes of conquest, Christopher Wren thru magnificent buildings, Shakespeare in his delineation of human life and human passions, Beethoven in sweet symphonies. And common people and common life express their power, or its limitation, no less strikingly. The blacksmith expresses his ability, or its lack, when he shoes your horse, the merchant when he operates in the world of commerce, the lawyer when he pleads your cause. The expression is great if it proceeds from a great man; is ignoble if the man is ignoble. Ruskin has the same thought when he says:

A man may hide himself from you, or misrepresent himself to you in every other way, but he cannot in his work. There be sure you have him to the utmost. All that he likes, all that he sees, all that he can do, his affection, his perseverance, his impatience, his clumsiness, clearness, everything is there. If the work be a cobweb, you know it was made by a spider; if a honey-comb, by a bee; a wormcast is thrown up by a worm, and a nest wreathed by a bird. A house is built by a man; worthily if he is worthy, and ignobly if he is ignoble.

There is more than a suggestion of the same idea in Emerson: "For all men live by truth and stand in need of expression. In love, in art, in avarice, in politics, in labor, in games, we study to utter our painful secret. The man is only half himself, the other half is his expression." What better can be done for a man than to put him in possession of himself and his God-given faculties? If he thinks and feels, he is bound to express. The important thing, then, is that he thinks and feels—or, rather, let us reverse the order and say that the important thing is that he feels, for if he feels rightly it really doesn't make so much difference what he thinks, nor how he expresses himself.

But to get back to our topic—the relative value of brush and pencil as a means of expression. In educational assemblages of this kind it is usually settled, I believe, that everything depends upon the teacher; and, supposing that it be admitted that the more varied and interesting be the channels and the mediums of expression, the stronger and more complete becomes the development of the child, still it remains with the planner of the course of study to see that the proper means of expression and the proper exercises are presented at the proper time. We are looking for such a course. We are looking toward such an end. Many suggestions come from many sources. From the things that are known we must choose those that seem to us vital.

The Minneapolis exhibit is lacking in exercises along industrial and utilitarian lines. It is not that we do not appreciate our lack, or that we regard as unimportant that form of expression that will be useful in the trades and occupations. But we have felt so keenly the importance of the other side; we have believed that, somehow, the bread and butter would be procured; and we desired so much to influence our embryonic bread-winners, that there should be something in their lives besides bread and butter.

We know that a taste for the beautiful once awakened will never be silenced. Do you think that the sunset, or the rainbow, or the graceful head of waving grass will ever be without meaning to the rough child of the streets who has once been made to feel their beauty, and to create for himself something of that beauty? Let us cling, then, to that richness and life which has come into our work, avoiding the charge of extreme sentimentality on one side, and the graver charge of strict utilitarianism on the other. I myself think there is small cause for alarm in the infection which has been spread abroad in the land. Rather, I think, is it a matter for congratulation, for this is the reward for him who would, but for this new acquaintance with nature in her most beautiful dress, dwell in darkness—

that the ideal shall be real to thee, and the impressions of the actual world shall fall like summer rain, copious, but not troublesome to thy invulnerable essence. Thou shalt have the whole world for thy park and manor, the sea for thy bath and navigation, without tax and without envy; the woods and the rivers thou shalt own, and thou shalt possess that wherein others are only tenants and boarders.

Thou true land-lord! Sea-lord! Air-lord! Wherever snow falls, or water flows, or birds fly, wherever the blue heaven is hung with clouds or sown with stars, wherever are forms with transparent boundaries, wherever are outlets into celestial space, wherever is danger and awe, and love, there is beauty, plenteous as rain, shed for thee, and though thou shouldst walk the world over, thou shalt not be able to find a condition inopportune or ignoble.*

* EMERSON, *The Poet*.

THE RELATION OF NATURE STUDY TO DRAWING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

JAMES M. STONE, SUPERVISOR OF DRAWING, WORCESTER, MASS.

Tho I shall speak to you from the point of view of the artist and drawing teacher, rather than from that of the scientist or psychologist, yet, as a practical teacher, I recognize the necessity of basing all our courses on sound pedagogical and psychological principles. Some important subdivisions of our drawing and certain interesting features of our nature study will not be touched upon at all. I shall confine myself to such parts of the two subjects as are related, interdependent, and mutually helpful. What I have to say will be said chiefly in the spirit of suggestion. I wish to tell you what we are doing in the Worcester schools, to point out some of the things we are emphasizing, and to indicate what we may reasonably hope to accomplish. We have carefully planned courses both in drawing and in nature study. The course in drawing, tho intended to be elastic, is quite closely followed by the teachers. The nature-study course, on the other hand, is followed rather in spirit than according to the letter. The teachers would gladly do more in this direction, did time and "the three R's" permit. Our aims are to make the school a place the children become genuinely fond of, to make their labor a labor of love, to elevate school life, and thus to elevate life in general.

If there be any one thing upon which we, as teachers of drawing, are well agreed, it is that drawing should be taught as a language, that it should be made an integral part of the curriculum, and be used as a means of expression. Let us inquire here in what ways nature-study drawing aids the regular school drawing. In form study one only half knows a thing until it has been drawn. The mind has a far clearer perception of form, and retains it longer, after representing it with clay, pencil, or brush, than after merely looking at it. Agassiz, who admitted to his classes only those who could draw, said: "A lead-pencil is an excellent microscope. The young observer will not see the peculiarities of the natural object, nor its graceful beauty, until he attempts to draw it with his pencil." Drawing in nature study is the means of recording observed facts. In drawing, the pupil finds a language by which he may express these facts, by which he may suggest the variety of local colors, the beauties of light and shade, the grace of movement, and the delicacy of modeling. His attention is directed to the polished surface of the plum with the bloom upon it, the fur of the cat, the rough texture of the squash, the delicate petal of the flower. Each requires a distinct method of treatment, but the qualities of the work are common to nature study and pictorial drawing, and so far as they are attained in drawing from nature the benefit to each is equal. Technical skill is materially strengthened

by the constant practice of nature-study drawing. In order that the child shall reap the greatest benefit from this work, he must acquire such a mastery, he must by intelligently guided practice become so proficient, that he can express with his pencil a thought embodying form with the same freedom and readiness as he would express an idea in a written sentence. And, as drawing is helped by the study of nature, so in turn nature study is aided by drawing. Drawing in nature study is an interpretation, a translation of certain facts, aspects, and qualities into another language. In addition to being a means of expression, it adds an important pictorial feature to the work. In many observations of physics and biology the illustrations form the most important part of the record. Indeed, it would be impossible to make a complete record without the illustrations.

In our nature study we do not try to make excursions to the stars, we do not try to penetrate the unknown; but the teachers are advised to take desirable examples of nature just as they find them, near at hand, and do the best they can with them. It is surprising to see how much the children will discover, even those living in the most densely populated parts of the city. The spring is the season for preparing the tree, bird, and floral calendars; for gathering frogs', toads', salamanders', and fishes' eggs, for observation in the schoolroom; and it is the time to observe and draw the swelling buds, the expanding flowers, and the growing leaves. The schoolroom may be made to reflect the season in its myriad activities and in the pulsations of its new life. The objects collected may be arranged in their proper environment for development and observation. Some of the interesting details of early spring work are the formation of bird clubs, the members of which watch for the new arrivals, interest themselves in the protection of the birds, make and put up bird-houses, and put out twine and cotton for the birds to use in building nests. The most favorable season for studying the birds immediately follows, when they are mating, nest-building, and raising their families. It is difficult to get wild birds as models to draw from. When tamed or caged, it is seldom that the children can draw from them to advantage. As a result, in the bird study, most of the drawings are copied from colored prints. This is, of course, unsatisfactory, but it assists in interesting and familiarizing the children with the birds. In the autumn, after the summer visitors have left us, the nests are gathered, identified, and drawn.

In connection with our study of birds, pretty incidents are constantly occurring, one or two of which I must tell you. A teacher in one of our suburban schools was interested in birds, and so the children became much interested also; and for three successive years there have been two birds' nests in the grounds, not more than twenty feet from the building. Last June a family of young robins was raised on a rail of the fence,

where every child in the school could go and see the eggs and the young birds every day. Last year a pair of vesper sparrows raised a family under a tuft of grass close beside the schoolhouse; the year before a pair of chipping sparrows raised their brood on a little rose bush, the nest being not over two feet from the ground; and for a number of years a pair of orioles have built their nest and brought up their young on an elm in front of the schoolhouse. A not uncommon scene, in the case of the sparrows, when the young birds were still in the nest, was the children seated in groups on the grass and tossing crumbs from their luncheons to the mother bird, who would fly to and from the nest, feeding her hungry offspring.

The observation and drawing of the germination of seeds, such as the seeds of our common trees, at different periods of their development, are a pretty exercise for children, and may be conveniently begun in the schoolroom. Dr. Hodge, of Clark University, often in springtime takes a bag of chestnuts, peach, plum, or cherry stones, and visits a number of schools, offering the seeds to such scholars as will promise to plant them and care for the young trees. These nuts are swelled and started in earth put into small boxes in the schoolroom, where they are watched in their growth; notes and drawings are made at various periods of their development, until they reach a height of six or eight inches, when they are taken home by the children, set out, and taken care of. Children are asked, when eating fruits, to save the seeds and plant them, each child being urged to choose from among the various kinds of trees, plants, shrubs, or vines the two he is most fond of, and to study them thru the year. This study consists in observing the tree, plant, or vine regularly, making notes and drawings at various periods, especially at the time of the development of the leaves and flowers, and again at the time of the maturity and distribution of the seeds. Our common garden plants, annuals and biennials, are studied in this way, until the children become familiar with their ways of life, as they are with the *Mother Goose* melodies. In some of our schools the pupils have been interested in finding all our native shrubs and setting them out along the fence on one side of the school yard, on another side collecting and setting out all our native vines, on a third side all our best fruit trees, and on a fourth all our evergreens.

If typical phenomena are selected from the immediate environment of the children, they may be set to work watching these phenomena and recording their observations without realizing that they are doing anything but enjoying themselves. Insects that pass thru a metamorphic stage, such as the butterflies, moths, dragonflies, and beetles, are interesting to children if their life-stories are followed to the end. In many schoolrooms in the spring and early summer you will find every child has a small bottle on his desk containing a little branch with fresh green leaves and young caterpillars feeding on them. If you ask the children what

they are doing, they will tell you they are studying the life-history of the tent caterpillar, and if you ask how far they progressed, they will refer to their notebooks and show you notes and sketches illustrating their observations up to date. Or, in other schoolrooms, you will note some jars standing on the window sills, and partly filled with water, in which floats a gelatinous substance; and if you ask what that is, you are told it is frogs' spawn, or toads' spawn, or fish spawn, as the case may be; and if you inquire how these different spawns are distinguished the one from the other, your attention will be called to the peculiar forms of the substance in the jars, and very likely a boy will step to the blackboard and draw a sketch of a mass of toads' spawn in order to make clear its distinctive characteristics. I think you will agree with me that to have the real fish present in the aquaria is a vast improvement on the methods of the German teacher who during a lesson makes a drawing of a fish on the board, and has the scholars make copies of his drawing. For under our system the children are able to examine the fish for themselves, making their own notes and drawings at first hand.

The classification of parts of plants and animals according to similarity of form, character, and function, and the study of these in groups, may be made a profitable and pleasant part of the nature-study course. Some of the things to be thus observed are oak and maple leaves, the various kinds of grain, garden biennials, spring and autumn flowers, seeds, the teeth of carnivora, eyes and claws of the cat family, feet of swimming birds, etc. Drawings can and should be made from nature in most cases. In all these studies the children are taught that the drawings are as important a part of the record as the notes, and they are made in the same spirit.

One of the charming results of nature study is the familiarity which children acquire with the many kinds of animal life from which they are apt at first to shrink. For instance, do you suppose the little girl who has seen on her own desk and on her companions' desks the moth pass thru its metamorphic state, from the egg to the devouring caterpillar, from the caterpillar to the dormant chrysalis, and from the chrysalis to the perfect moth, will cringe, shriek, and go into hysterics if a caterpillar crawls upon her? Oh, no. It is no uncommon thing to see the caterpillars crawling around on the children, who pick them up and set them on their branches, and make no more ado about it than they would about picking up a handkerchief or wiping a pen.

This familiarity, the interest in and kindness toward the life about the children, we believe, cultivates a better temper, kindlier feelings, and a gentler spirit. And this is our aim, to make school life a pleasure, to cultivate an interest in the beautiful and interesting things of life, and by these means to bury the unlovable qualities of the child so deep that they will not in after-life come to the surface,

In our design work the children are taught to go to nature for everything, and every design has a purpose. Many of the things decorated are common things, such as the children see about them daily, and such as have pleasing associations connected with them. In ornament and design everything depends upon the spirit in which the decorator goes to nature. He may treat his *motif* in such a way as to be quite in the spirit of nature study; and, on the other hand, he may make a design in quite the opposite spirit. A design from nature may be realistic or it may be decoratively treated. In Egyptian ornament taken from plants we recognize the perfect individual plant and where it grew. The floral parts of Gothic ornament which were taken from nature were copied in much the same spirit. The most naturalistic type of ornament is that of the Japanese. They start quite frankly from nature, copying natural forms as closely, apparently, as their skill and the conditions under which they work will admit. Ornament must never run wild. There must be a manifest restraint, an order, even in the midst of apparent confusion, producing restfulness and dignity. In good ornament everything is inspired by nature, but it is compelled into ornamental form, and is made to conform to the necessities of decoration. The principle of selection must be adhered to. One can hardly conceive any *motif* which is not more or less modified by considerations altogether apart from literal description of the natural forms. In all applied designs there is something, let us say, not contrary to nature, but non-natural. The perfect example is what is required as a model; it must then be designed into its place, conventionalized, and adapted to its purpose. In this process the subject or example loses its individuality. Thus decorative design is the exact opposite of nature study. But in the lower grades, where the decorative work consists of little more than arranging natural forms to produce decorative effects, these two courses need not conflict. As long as the student aims at the perfect thing, he remains in harmony with nature-study principles; but as soon as he acts according to the prerogative of the decorator, selecting, arranging, and adapting, he parts company with nature-study principles. As soon as the scholars in the higher grades study historical ornament and the principles of decoration, they must understand that they go to nature for decorative elements in a different spirit from that of nature study. It is the function of the teacher to lead the child to nature as the great storehouse of material for his use, and to show him how to use it in diverse ways for the varied purposes called for by society.

Education in color we regard as very important. Color as a source of enjoyment opens up new avenues of pleasure; it is an essential element in decoration, and is an important feature in drawing and nature study. The aim in the lower grades is to educate and refine the color perception. In the higher grades the theory of color is taken up. But

everything is based on nature, both in practical work and color theory. We make autumn the special season for taking up the color work. The country is then teeming with color, and nature is dressed in her gayest attire. The analysis of the colors in plants, birds, and insects is then full of interest. The harmonies based on the relation of colors to each other, or the order in which they occur in the solar spectrum, form an excellent basis for a scheme of study. This, with some knowledge of principality, and the light and dark effect in design, supplies the elementary principles. In teaching the theory of color the drawing teacher finds himself at a disadvantage, because there are no fixed standards generally accepted by educators. Artists and scientists are at variance as to the primary colors. Certain French painters are working on pseudo-scientific lines, accepting the ray-of-light theory, but it is too early to predict whether this movement is destined to result in the general adoption of the scientific theory of color. It seems safe to assume, however, that the color teaching in the public schools is not likely to be affected by it for a long time to come.

While we aim to correlate drawing with every other branch of study, a specially intimate association of it with nature study seems desirable. In every large grammar building a room should be set apart for the purposes of art and nature, thus enabling the teachers to have departmental instruction more successfully carried on. This room may become a general receptacle for things of beauty and interesting specimens from nature. All drawing material, works of art, potted plants, aquaria, vivaria, and breeding cages, etc., would here be stored. Such a room, with its collections, would furnish a vast amount of material for the drawing as well as the nature study.

In this work of drawing we have a variety of materials. In the lower grades the pupils use clay, drawing-pencils, charcoal, and colored pencils. In the higher grades water-colors are added to the equipment. For the rendering of form, clay is by far the best medium. Many things can be very satisfactorily represented with the common drawing-pencil and colored pencils. Where large masses of color are required water-color will be found most satisfactory.

It is a mistake to do only one kind of art work in a school, as it is also to try to do all kinds of work with one kind of material. In New England, during the last few years, we have witnessed some amusing oscillations of the fads; drawing teachers have swung swiftly from one extreme to another, at one time casting aside all books, whether for teacher or pupils; at another time holding high carnival in water-color painting. Just now some of the drawing teachers are recovering from a severe attack of Japanese notan. The prospect ahead is serene, and, if the faddists present nothing very alluring, we shall have an opportunity to devote ourselves to the highest interests of the children. Many have

already discovered their errors, and have adopted the broad course of making drawing correlate with every study possible, vying with language itself. We in Worcester still continue to teach clay-modeling; we have not thrown away our type-solids; drawing-books are still used by the children, and drawing manuals are found convenient by the teachers; and we still find the lead-pencil a good tool with which to draw.

And now, in conclusion, let me quote the words of President Hall of Clark University, in relation to nature study. "Cast out," he says, "the things you hate and fear, and develop the things you love and are interested in." I would that we might respond to this great human note. I would that we might attack these subjects in a real joy-seeking, fear-destroying spirit, teaching the children to love and protect the useful and beautiful, and perhaps destroy the noxious. In preparing our courses, let nature and art pervade them. The great diversity of life to be found in nature appeals to the young with all-absorbing interest. Let us recognize their natural interests, let us enlist their finest sympathies, let us cultivate in them the spirit of artistic appreciation, let us lead them to an intelligent discrimination between beauty and ugliness, between hateful things and things lovable; and thus we shall make the schoolhouse, not only a place of learning, but also a place where the very finest human interests and instincts are fostered. The awakening of the child's higher spiritual powers, the opening up of new avenues of enjoyment, the wise development of the sense-activities, will lead to enlarged observation of beauty in nature and in art, and the cultivation of better possibilities of usefulness to others.

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The department met at 3:30 P. M. in Circular Congregational Church, with President Herbert Griggs, of Denver, Colo., in the chair.

Corporal David Cross sang a baritone solo, "The Palms," accompanied by the First United States Artillery band under the leadership of Professor Gustav Koitzsch.

A paper on "Common-Sense as an Aid to the School-Music Supervisor" was read by Sterrie A. Weaver, Westfield, Mass.

Music—a cornet solo, "Because"—by Sergeant M. Sullivan.

Mr. Weaver's paper was discussed by N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, O.; C. H. Congdon, of Chicago, Ill.; Professor Ransom, of Charleston, S. C.; B. C. Davis, of Atlanta, Ga.; N. L. Glover, of Akron, O.; A. J. Gantvoort, of Cincinnati, O.; and President Griggs.

The following Committee on Nominations was appointed:

Sterrie A. Weaver, Westfield, Mass.

A. J. Gantvoort, Cincinnati, O.

Miss Mae E. Schreiber, Madison, Wis.

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12

The session was called to order by President Griggs at 3:30 P. M.

Miss Annie Hanley, of Charleston, S. C., was introduced, who sang a solo, "Asva," by Rubinstein.

C. H. Congdon, of Chicago, Ill., read a paper on the affirmative of the question, "Should Music in the Public Schools be Taught from the Song to the Exercise?"

Mr. Waitt, of Charleston, sang a baritone solo.

Superintendent W. B. Powell, of Washington, D. C., opened the discussion of Mr. Congdon's paper, supporting the affirmative. Superintendent Aaron Gove, of Denver, Colo., followed in a negative argument. C. H. Congdon, A. J. Gantvoort, William B. Powell, N. Coe Stewart, and B. C. Davis joined in further discussion.

The Committee on Nominations submitted a report recommending the election of the following officers:

For *President*—A. J. Gantvoort, Cincinnati, O.

For *Secretary*—H. W. Gray, New York, N. Y.

The report of the committee was adopted, and the officers named declared elected for the ensuing year.

Adjourned.

H. W. GRAY,

Acting Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

COMMON-SENSE AS AN AID TO THE SCHOOL-MUSIC SUPERVISOR

STERRIE A. WEAVER, WESTFIELD PUBLIC SCHOOLS, WESTFIELD, MASS.

Many a frog, hard pressed for breath, and perhaps tired of swimming, has been lured by a sunlit stump to emerge from the water and, squatting upon the projection, voice his contentment in a guttural song. Alas! for the enjoyment of that frog. The small boy comes along, and, recognizing his inalienable right and pious duty to throw stones, ejaculates, "What a shot!" and proceeds to stone the frog. It is useless to read that strange animal called a boy a lecture upon the cruelty of stoning frogs, and just as useless to tell the frog to stone the boy. But the frog can slide off into the water and thus shield himself; next time rising to the surface for breath in a more secluded spot. In fact, might he not as well stay under water and die for want of breath as to come to the surface and be stoned to death?

A certain percentage of small boys grow to be large boys, yet the irresistible impulse to throw stones when they get a good shot never leaves them. Perhaps one develops into a first-rate musician, and, plodding the paths of his professional duties, sees a good shot and shies a stone. Ever and again he is sure to find a capital shot in someone who has tired of the common walks of life, and has thought to arise to the surface, and has secured the much-coveted position of school-music supervisor. When such a school-music supervisor fails to get results from his work he becomes a good mark for the musician's sarcastic criticism or out-and-out attack.

The supervisor who is thus attacked, and cannot defend himself by proving the accusations of his enemies false and undeserved, would display common-sense to slide off from his public position and seek seclusion in the private walks from which he came. The disposition of so many school-music supervisors to show the white feather, and appeal to the public for sympathy which they do not deserve, exhibits more weakness than common-sense. Seldom, indeed, is the attack upon their lack of knowledge of music, but upon their dearth of sense. Would that a supervisor's exchange might be set up where they might barter knowledge of music for a reasonable amount of common-sense. If some large doses of the emotional and the æsthetic could be exchanged for the power to reason and employ practical common-sense, the results from school music might be larger.

It has been insinuated; if not broadly asserted, that some supervisors have no more sense than frogs. If the insinuations and accusations are unjust, so much the worse for their author; if true and well deserved, let the guilty members of the profession tremble. Justice and right will eventually prevail. The senseless manner in which school music is handled must go to the wall, and with the downfall will go the school-music supervisors who are wanting in common-sense. If music is so poorly managed that it brings little or no lasting results, the methods, or lack of methods, must and will be supplanted. The school-music supervisor who hears this paper and has not in mind an instance of one or many supervisors held in the clutch of some baleful influence that tends to the fattening of his salary at the expense of the best interests of the school children is blissfully ignorant of the machinations that predominate in school-music circles today.

The battle is on, and tho the men and women of ability, fixedness of purpose, lion hearts, and breadth sufficient to lead the van are few and far between, God will raise up more of this sort, and school music will be emancipated. The fight for every vacancy will not be made by everyone who hears of it. Church solo singers, pianists, violinists, and orchestra leaders will discover that they need special training for the supervision of school music, and must not compete without the necessary preparation. Common-sense will prompt those within the circle, who mean to remain, to change their course and apply a small amount of this scarce commodity to their teaching. At this particular moment, could you have the opportunity of talking back, someone might inquire: "What do you mean by all this? At whom are you hurling these remarks?" They are intended for whomsoever they fit.

Let us inquire into the reasonable expectations and the actual results of music in the public schools. Hundreds of thousands of dollars are paid for the support of music teaching in the schools. This would be cheerfully done, and as much more appropriated, if results were apparent. In the aggregate the amount of precious time devoted, supposedly to the study of music, is something appalling, when it is realized that it gives so little in return. Compare music with other studies: Children come out from their school lives with the ability to read, write, and figure; with a knowledge of geography more or less extensive; and to these are added many accomplishments. When 90 per cent. will prove their ability in all these directions, will not the same percentage assure you that they cannot read music? Would not plain common-sense prompt every supervisor to shudder upon discovering that the results in his special line were so far below the average? It is something fearful to contemplate.

Full well I realize how roughly the heavy sleeper must be shaken if he is to be awakened. In fact, the majority of school-music supervisors seem to be in a sleep so deep that they are virtually dead. We well know

that it is God's prerogative to awaken the dead. Our hope lies in arousing those who do not sleep so heavily. If the men and women who make up the rank and file of school-music supervisors will rub their eyes and make a desperate effort to arouse and take an honest look at the method which they employ, or realize the lack of method in what they do, and the utter lack of results from their work, things will change. The shackles which many a supervisor has allowed some undue influence to bind upon him will become too galling, the blanket mortgages will become irksome, and the profession will make a mighty effort to emancipate itself. School music will sing a new song; a song of redemption from senseless teaching. Wherever music is taught in the public schools, results, and mighty results, can be obtained. It need not take years to show the results of common-sense teaching. When common-sense is allowed to aid the supervisor, the parents—even the children—will display enough common-sense to recognize a change for the better, and will enter upon a new era.

Musicians outside the ranks of school-music supervisors will hail the improvement and stop throwing stones in order to use both hands in congratulating the supervisors for the preparatory work done in the school-room, thus lightening the task of advance teaching along all lines. Until such time as the general run of school-music supervisors employ common-sense, music will languish. The only substantial hope of America ever becoming a musical nation lies in educating the masses thru the public schools.

The foregoing arraignment of the profession is based upon results actually obtained. To leave the matter in this way is simply to have uttered words of bitterness which only stir up strife. The very heading of this paper assumes that the root of the evil is a lack of common-sense in teaching music in the public schools. Its author begs leave to show some of the things commonly done that are utterly devoid of common-sense, leaving the decision with you.

Attention is first called to the senseless use of books and charts. Does any teacher need to be told that the chart exercise, or song from the book, loses all its virtue as soon as sung thru a few times? Is it any wonder that supervisors meet in convention and discuss the problem of how to keep up the interest of the singing classes? How many singing lessons in the public-school room amount to more than a number of pages which are sung over by the class while the supervisor sings with them and for them, lugging them over all difficulties, then leaving these same pages to be sung daily until his return? Why was this particular lesson given to the class? Alas! simply because the pages designated were the next in regular order as given in said book. If the lesson be given from a chart, can any plausible excuse be given for the constant use of a pointer to lead the class along? Are the children learning anything but to lean

upon the strong, never-failing voice of the teacher and the point of that stick? Is it not combination of children's voices and teachers' brains?

Oh! that a huge bonfire might be made of the thousands of sticks, or pointers, or indexes—call them what you will,—that are employed in pointing the notes, or in pounding the schoolroom desks to keep the time for the class. They might well be called “independence killers.” Is it a good principle to lug rather than direct? As to the vital interest of the class in the lesson, can a class be expected to have a keen interest in the song that has been sung until it is worn threadbare? Where the same set of books is used from year to year hundreds of children come up to the room with songs all stowed away in their memories. How long would the grade teacher be able to hold a position who was unable to give countless illustrations of the subject in hand? How about the supervisors, to say nothing of the grade teachers under their charge? How many supervisors, with a lofty air of mock modesty, will tell us they “make no pretensions as composers; hence they never write exercises for their classes, but select music from the masters”? Is it necessary for such modest supervisors to explain that they should not pretend to be teachers? Nothing in connection with school music looks so utterly ridiculous as to see the pious way in which supervisors purchase books containing rows of figures representing the notes of simple exercises, these to be transferred to the blackboards for daily drill. Think of a grade teacher who buys a book containing mathematical problems like, $2 + 2 = 4$, $3 + 3 = 6$, and uses it to copy from. Would not a grain of common-sense suggest to supervisors that they prepare themselves so well that their minds will be storehouses of apt illustration, and prompt them to fit the grade teachers to write correctly and rapidly?

And now a reference to the subject of time. Here we find a condition of long standing, which, if squarely faced, should make music teachers, whether in or out of school, so astounded that they will lose their senses, both common and uncommon.

Ask a hundred music teachers the greatest difficulty they ever met in teaching music, and they will all tell you, “The time.” In fact, many a music teacher will tell certain pupils that they have no natural sense of time and can never learn to keep time.

Shame on such teachers! I should honestly suppose they would be afraid to go to bed in the dark. When we realize the indisputable fact that a sense of time is as natural as breath, yet admit the difficulty of making the pupil sense the notation, thus interpreting the meaning of the notes, it would seem as tho common-sense would get a hearing and common-sense methods of teaching time would prevail. Nothing stands so squarely across the pathway of every music pupil, in his early stages, as the enigma of time, yet the methods of instruction commonly employed only serve to make utterly dark that which was not clear.

Nothing in connection with teaching the rudiments of music so much demands a common-sense change of method as time-teaching. The teacher who attempts to analyze a ten-year-old boy into an appreciation of the fact that two eighth notes equal a quarter ignores the fact that this same boy at two years of age easily imitated the motion of these notes as drummed by the father upon the child's toy drum. The supervisor who employs a stick to point the notes, or to pound the desk, and imagines that the children are learning time, is easily fooled. Pupils of private teachers are being finished off, prepared to fill positions as performers or teachers, sent out to battle for themselves, with ability to read music and to execute, but having been distinctly taught that they have one weakness that will haunt them forever; that is, no correct time-sense. Do you know of such cases? I do. How shocking to hear an ambitious man or woman, who has spent years in the study of music, tell of teachers of national repute who told them they could not learn to keep time! Asylums should be founded for musicians who are constitutionally weak in time, and the teachers who tell their pupils such twaddle should constitute the first class to enter such asylums.

Tune is taught by imitation, but time is largely taught by analysis. Why not teach time as we teach tune? One learns to read his mother-tongue by grasping the endless variety of groupings of letters upon the printed pages, and all learn to read.

Musical characters are always to be read in groupings which are governed by rhythmical swing. The fingers of one hand will count the sum total of the different groupings.

Rhythmical swing is as natural as breath; still many a pupil is told that he cannot learn to interpret the notation. He never will as long as the interpretation is never taught. The teacher carries the pupil over all rough places and mistakes imitation of the song for the sensing of the printed characters.

With an honest belief that all the matters thus far touched upon are teeming with faults that forbid the rapid growth of school music, I leave them to touch upon a stupendous blunder which has been made, is being made, and, alas! for the lack of common-sense on the part of the school-music supervisors, is going to be made for some time to come. In the aggregate, how many millions of lessons in sight-singing have been given, not one of which gave results of value to the majority of the class? To expect results from a class lesson is as senseless as to expect the Almighty to controvert his unchangeable laws and have the heavenly bodies pause in their orbits.

It is God's decree that everything grows by individual effort; yet school-music supervisors seem to think that God's laws will be suspended in the matter of teaching school children to sing. The few who have acknowledged the necessity of individual singing have rendered an account

of their stewardship by making pleas like the following: "No time during the singing period;" "Children never have sung alone;" "Children are nervous and easily frightened;" "Large boys are ugly and would refuse to sing alone." Some supervisors go so far as to say that the ability to read music is not worth the cost; that it is of more importance that children should develop the emotional, should study the artistic, should learn to sing with deep expression, and so on.

It is trying to listen to such senseless argument; yet we hope that eventually such supervisors may be awakened from their deep sleep, or be pronounced dead and be given a speedy burial. Who dare affirm that 25 per cent. of their school children, after nine years of chorus singing, can read ordinary, plain music at sight? More than 75 per cent. can learn to read music at sight, and no more time be given to singing than is now allotted for its study. This is no fairy tale, for it is being demonstrated every day in public schools where individual singing is compulsory.

To have individual singing is simply to apply the same common-sense to music that is applied to every other study. The old complaint of inability to keep the children interested will lose all its force, and the next generation will rise up and call supervisors of school music blessed.

The masses will not, as formerly, say, "Our school-music supervisor was a fine musician, but we did not learn to read music;" but they will say, "Our supervisor had a fund of common-sense which prompted him to give his pupils a thoro rudimental training, and we learned to read music when in the schools."

With the masses able to read music, the interest in music will be a vital part of life in America.

SHOULD MUSIC IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS BE TAUGHT FROM THE SONG TO THE EXERCISE?

C. H. CONGDON, CHICAGO, ILL.

I shall not attempt to prove that every music lesson should conform to the set process of first singing a song by rote and then a related exercise by note.

The philosophy of music teaching in the public schools is not usually presented in a single lesson. It takes a series of lessons to reveal the object for which we are working. Lessons are oftentimes only fragmentary parts of a complete plan. I desire to prove that in music, song is the basis of the child's study. It first arouses his interest, and then fills his mind with musical forms and melodic concepts, which are the necessary foundation to his musical growth.

Sight-singing is largely an act of the memory. The reader discovers, thru the notation, melodic progressions with which he is already familiar. The notes suggest to the mind musical concepts already

acquired thru practice and experience. These concepts must primarily be acquired by rote. In order to fill the mind with melodic types of the most desirable quality, the learner must have a vital experience with the highest forms of melody. After a rich song experience, the child should be brought to a closer observation of the constructive elements of melody. This can be done by calling his attention to typical forms with which he has already had an unconscious experience, so far as the constructive elements are concerned. This unconscious song experience may be likened to his first experiences with his mother-tongue. A child learns to talk before he can begin to learn to read. A great deal of the knowledge acquired by children thru their perceptive faculties remains at first in the subconsciousness, and later on this knowledge becomes more definite and useful; but many of these subconscious impressions are the most firmly fixed in the memory. While practice in reading simple language prepares the child for the more difficult exercises, his first efforts in reading are based on the knowledge of language he has already acquired. This knowledge was acquired thru vital experience, and in no other way. When a child is learning to talk his efforts are always preceded and inspired by thought which is born of the little experiences of his daily life. Whatever practice or drill he gets is always directly associated with this thought. The thought and the experience come first, and the practice comes afterward, and is based on the thought and experience. Now, every successful teacher knows that this principle is applied in teaching the child to read. The words or phrases requiring special drill are always selected from sentences presenting some thought in which the child is interested.

The philosophy which I am trying to uphold cannot be narrowed down to a single lesson. The teacher who can only comprehend processes as such, and utterly ignores the natural laws which underlie all correct schemes of education, would go back to the old way of spelling out words and requiring children to read meaningless sentences for the sake of practice; he would ask the pupil to study outline maps, and memorize the names and location of rivers, mountains, and cities, regardless of their history or significance; he would require the learner to commit to memory rules in grammar before he could read the language intelligently; he would have the student of manual training drive nails in a block for practice in hitting the nail on the head; he would require children on Sundays to read books about God instead of allowing them to commune directly with the Creator thru his marvelous works of nature; in short, he would reverse the laws of nature and train the child by beginning with abstract principles and constructive elements, with a view to reaching the desired end later on.

No one questions this philosophy which I am trying to present as applied to language. Descriptions of modern school readers are couched

in language similar to the following : "Bright conversations and noble poems about the trees, the birds, and the flowers form the exercise out of which the pupil is led to discover the first rules of language and to apprehend their reasonableness."

So far as I am able to understand the new education, it means the renaissance of art, music, and literature for the children. It calls for a better understanding of child nature, and of the things best suited to his proper development; it means freedom from dead processes, and the emancipation from cut-and-dried methods; it is the natural growth and unfolding of the child's faculties thru wholesome effort stimulated by a vital interest in the things that influence him for good.

The first thing to do in the beginning of any subject is to arouse an interest. This cannot be done in music by presenting to young children theory disassociated from song. Such a course kills interest. Oftentimes the teacher, and not the subject taught, is the object and source of interest to the children; and it matters little to them what is in the book, so long as the teacher, with her strong personality and power to interest and control, is before them. It is of great importance, however, that the children be inspired with a love for music, for music's sake, and that they be influenced by the spirit of the art until it becomes a part of their lives. This can be done only thru a study of real melody. So let me here sum up by a statement what I have already said: A child must think and have experience before he can talk; he must be able to talk before he can learn to read; and when he begins to read he does not stop talking. All teaching should be at first concrete; that is to say, it should be object-teaching; and the object in music is the song. This is in accordance with the accepted philosophy of modern education. All up-to-date progressive teaching is based on this principle. A child who acquires a love for singing thru efforts dominated by the true spirit of song, and by studying form as a part of concrete melody, will far outstrip the one who has spent his time delving in dry technicalities, for the sake of learning to read the song later on.

The plan of leading up to the study of song thru many graded exercises, thus using cheap tunes as stepping-stones to good ones, is a direct violation of the principles already set forth.

A great many people have a wrong conception of the word "drill." Of course, drill means reiteration. The drill process is a legitimate one, but, as I have already stated, it must be a part of the more important thought which precedes it. Drill exercises should not be a divergence from concrete of the highest order, but they should be deduced from such melodies, and form a part of the concrete whole. It must be borne in mind that there are two kinds of drill necessary in teaching sight-reading. The first I have already described; that is, the singling out of one

or more of the constructive elements of a melody that is being studied, and reiterating it for the purpose of fixing it in the mind. The second kind of drill is more general. It means the general practice of reading music at sight. This kind of drill involves the use of simple progressive melodies, and the important thing to be looked after is the use at all times of the very best that can be selected from musical literature. I claim, therefore, that it is not necessary, as a rule, to use large numbers of commonplace melodies made for the occasion, so long as there is an abundance of beautiful tunes written by the great song writers in moments of inspiration. Such tunes form the ideal stepping-stones to further progress. Of course, there are a great many things that require drill in music. Style, expression, phrasing, enunciation, quality of tone, and many other things, require the careful attention of the teacher. But when we speak of drill work in public-school music, we more often refer to the processes that develop in the children the ability to read music. Now, if drill means the frequent repetition of certain musical forms for the purpose of fixing them in the mind, it stands to reason that such forms should be of the highest quality in order to make the strongest impression upon the mind of the learner. Furthermore, drill exercises should be parts of complete melodies, in order that they may be observed in their true relation, and that the melody as a whole may give the learner a more perfect conception of its constructive elements. The petal of a rose is more easily understood if it is presented as a part of the flower.

Uninteresting tunes which are usually called sight-reading exercises, are not, as a rule, made for practice in vocal gymnastics, because the children do not have the least difficulty in performing them, so far as their vocal organs are concerned. These exercises are designed for drill in the elements of music, to fix in the mind of the child these musical concepts which are necessary before sight-reading is possible; but they defeat the objects for which they are designed, because they dull the musical sensibilities of the child by requiring him to grind out uninspired tunes; and because of their uninteresting character they furnish no aid to the memory, and the facts usually learned in this manner are very soon forgotten. This is why in so many cases, after the children have passed thru several years of this so-called drill work, they seem to know so little about music.

Before a child can remember what he studies, he must be moved by the spirit and truth of the subject that demands his attention. No one can deny that honest drill holds an important place in education, and that wholesome exercise or practice in the thing to be attained is not only desirable, but necessary. We must remember, however, that the spelling-book is a thing of the past, that there is a great difference between drawing and mechanical drawing in the public schools. Teachers are beginning to learn that children can read about caterpillars as

well as about cats; that nature is not graded for children; on the contrary, she uses her most sublime effects for the unfolding of the immature mind.

It may seem like honest drill to solve difficult problems in mathematics, but it must be remembered that the problems that give the best drill are based on actual experiences that are exceedingly interesting to the student. A tune that does not possess the charm of inspiration—that subtle quality that makes melody music and poetry literature—cannot claim the interest of the child any more than the tedious process of adding long columns of figures for the sake of accuracy and facility.

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION. — THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1900

In the absence of the president and the secretary of the department, the meeting was called to order in Irish Volunteer Hall by Professor A. L. Stokes, of Charleston. Mr. Allan Davis, of Washington, D. C., was elected acting secretary.

Addresses of welcome were delivered by Professor A. L. Stokes, on behalf of the business schools of the South, and by James M. Seignious, of Charleston, on behalf of the business-men of the city. A response was made by Professor D. W. Springer, of Ann Arbor, Mich.

A paper was read on "Content and Educational Value of the Curriculum for a Secondary School of Commerce," by Dr. Cheesman A. Herrick, department of commerce, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Professor Woodford D. Anderson, of the University of South Dakota, read a paper on the subject, "Should Our Colleges and Universities Educate Men Especially for Business?"

William E. Doggett, of the Commercial High School of Brooklyn, N. Y., read a paper on the "Commercial High-School Course." Discussion followed by Allan Davis, of Washington, D. C.; Edward W. Stitt, of New York; and D. W. Springer, of Michigan. A paper on "The Advantages and Difficulties of Introducing the Commercial Branches in Grammar and High Schools" was presented by Dr. H. M. Rowe, of Baltimore, Md.; and a paper on "Profitable Publicity," by President Willard J. Wheeler of the Business College of Birmingham, Ala., which was discussed by Mr. G. M. Smithdeal, of Richmond, Va.

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION. — FRIDAY, JULY 13

The meeting was called to order at 3:30 P. M. by Acting President Stokes.

Dr. Edward W. Stitt, of New York, presented a paper on "School and Business Arithmetic," and Mr. F. L. Haeberle, of the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, N. Y., one on "Essentials of Modern Business Penmanship." The latter paper was discussed by W. W. Frye, of John B. Stetson University, DeLand, Fla., and others.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

For President — William E. Doggett, Brooklyn, N. Y.

For Vice-President — Willard J. Wheeler, Birmingham, Ala.

For Secretary — Edward W. Stitt, New York, N. Y.

The department adjourned.

ALLAN DAVIS,
Acting Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

CONTENT AND EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE CURRICULUM FOR A SECONDARY SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, DIRECTOR, COURSE IN COMMERCE, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

I. In the United States at present we are confronted with a new educational situation. Progress comes from the successful dealing with new situations, and we ought neither to lament that the good old times are no more, nor to decide the present issues of our educational life solely by the experiences and the precepts of days that are gone. Certainly I do not regret that the commercial idea of the present is stamping itself on education, no more than I regret that for half a century science and industry have so stamped themselves until they fairly rank with the classics and literature as phases of educational thought and activity. First we find science and industry influencing education, and then education contributing to the advancement of science and industry.

Scientific and industrial education have won their battles; we need not discuss them; but a new claimant now presents itself for educational recognition—a claimant that offers a new vocation, that seeks to apply science and culture to another set of social activities. Public education for business life—and I use the terms in a broad sense, meaning both *education* and *life*—is just now awaiting the statement of its case. What are the aims of education for commerce, what are to be its instruments, and how shall the instruments be so utilized as to realize the aims? How much of the old shall be retained in what we propose as the new?

The curriculum of the secondary commercial school is the *crux* of this question for secondary education, and the secondary school as a whole is the boundary line of the contending elements in the situation. It seems to be fundamental to our present thought that higher education may deal with any subject, from Arabic to electricity, and trade and commerce are being readily admitted into the sisterhood of college and university studies. We are also agreed that the element of vocation should enter very slightly, if at all, into the elementary school. But we are not at one as to the true function of the high school—whether it should do one thing or many things; to what extent it should recognize future vocation; how it should articulate with the education that is below it, and with that which is above it. To discuss commercial high schools rather adds to an already much-confused question; but may not the new element, when correlated with those already in the situation, contribute

to a conclusion that will be as universally accepted as is the doctrine of the function of the elementary school, or of higher education?

II. Certain principles seem fairly evident. There is no best scheme of high-school education, commercial or otherwise, either for all people at any one time or for some of the people for all time. No one can hope to devise a plan of studies that shall be universally recognized as the *best*. We are beyond the stage when psychology, or the so-called formal training, shall be the chief factor in curricula. Education should recognize the capacities and limitations of those who are to be educated, and the demands of the social world in which the educated shall move; and as capacities, opportunities, and demands vary, plans of study must also vary. A secondary school of commerce in a great center of international trade needs a different curriculum from that needed by one in an interior manufacturing or mining city; just as one in such a city should not be made the rule for a school in a town in which the business is largely local retail trade. But commercial education may universally set for itself certain ideals, such as the cultivation of intellectual power, and, what is quite as difficult, the acquiring of the ability to apply one's power to the matter in hand. We shall agree that schemes of instruction, while they may train powers, do not render the greatest service unless they make sure that the power trained shall be turned to account. We know that judgment in one set of life's relations does not necessarily mean judgment for all other sets. Memory and imagination may be stimulated only to certain ends. If "sharpening of the wits" were the sole end of our instruction, then no better instruments could be devised than the ancient game of chess or modern whist. Schools of commerce everywhere may give themselves to the cultivation of those intellectual powers that will be used. Their training will have the double service of making the subjects of instruction more practical, and the practical affairs more intellectual. We have long had two inherited educational ideals that have existed side by side, but have not intermingled—the scholastic and the apprenticeship ideals. The former has given formal culture—the classical school; the latter, utilitarianism in education—the workshop. But already the old division of studies into educational but not useful, and useful but not educational, is fast disappearing. The useful is found to be intellectual, and much that has hitherto been thought to be educational only has increasing usefulness.

Wherever schools of commerce are established, whatever their local problems, their supreme aim must be the production of those who have the ballast of integrity of purpose, whose ships of life shall be ever on the even keels of strict morality. More than a hundred years ago the world was startled with the declaration that in international trade both sides might be gainers. We recognize this at present as true for nations, but hardly so for individuals. Gain is popularly regarded somehow as illicit; if one party to a transaction has a profit, then it is felt that the other must

have a corresponding loss. A generation of business-men must be trained that shall see in business neither the giving nor the taking of advantages, but instead a social service for which one may expect compensation. Business education universally must be moral as well as intellectual; and this for the good of society at large, and the welfare of business in particular.

Again, commercial high schools are not to degenerate into the formalism of mere routine. When technical work is introduced there is the danger of all finding permanently the dead level of the technical. May schools of commerce be saved for all time from being intellectual nurseries, asylums, infirmaries, or hospitals! Let us put into our curricula subjects of difficulty, and get out of them a ruggedness of training that shall stamp our work as of superior educational value. And just here please remember that one's training in a subject is not always to be measured by the hours he dawdles over it. Impossible tasks for a school of commerce might give slight educational return, even if they were completed. Education comes from activity, but not all forms of activity contribute equally to education. In the light of some of those general statements let us regard the subjects of study for a commercial high school.

III. 1. *English language and literature.*—English subjects in themselves should occupy a foremost place in schools of commerce; and, in addition, accurate, forceful, and graceful expression, oral and written, should be aimed at in connection with all other subjects studied. As a minimum the English should include composition writing, with attention to spelling, sentence and paragraph formation, more extended essays, an introduction to the history of English (including American) literature, critical and interpretative readings of the masterpieces of the English language, and the best English translations of world-literatures in other languages. In the earlier years the compositions should be brief and of frequent occurrence, to be followed later by more extended essays. Two considerations should be regarded: the correlation of English with other subjects of study, and reading extensively, in class and out, of the best literature. Once for all, let us settle that good English form is not to be put on and laid off as one's garb, a particular thing for certain hours, or for special social functions. Good form, to be of value, must be one's stock in trade, for daily and hourly use. Great will be the economy of both teacher and taught, incalculable will be the gain, if we shall make every exercise an English exercise, until accurate expression becomes habitual. It is feasible to have English and history taught by the same instructors. Much of the reading in English is illustrative of historical conditions, and history is in part literary, and descriptive of the background for literary production. Both English and history gain from such a combination, and there is no undoing of results, no re-traversing of the same ground. Too often the arrangement of subjects in curricula makes the progress of the pupil like the

movements of an army that advances to a certain point, and falls back, only again to advance and fall back. But English thru other subjects is possible elsewhere than in history. The school of commerce should train for fluent, natural, oral expression, either in single sentences or in connected discourse. Business does not need elocutionists, orators, or debaters, but it does need those who can talk — and to train men to talk, elegantly, and convincingly to the matter in hand, is an important work in the commercial school. Above all, let us keep boys free from the notion that they are to make speeches, that they are to conduct controversies based on inadequate information; instead they should be led, naturally and informally, to present information acquired. And reading, reading, reading — reading of great works in school, reading of great works outside of school for report — is second in value to no task which may be set. The best of our mother-tongue, and the best foreign translations into our mother-tongue, should be drawn upon. There is nothing in the nature of the case that should make the educational value of literature in a school of commerce lower than is its value in other schools. Indeed, such a school will have distinct advantages from the beginning, in not attempting the impossible.

2. *Languages other than English.*—"He who knows one language only knows none." Somewhat extended study should be made of at least two modern tongues in addition to English. Local conditions, local demands, will fix what languages are chosen. In Philadelphia we have held to one year of Latin grammar as introductory language study, following this with German and French or Spanish. Students come to us without much notion of formal grammar; we need something on which to build, and the question is whether the grammar drill shall be in Latin, in German, or in a general review of the English grammar. The latter may be the proper solution of our difficulty, such study to be supplemented at once with the German grammar. A wave of popularity has set toward the disciplinary value of modern languages, shown in recent foreign reports, and in the expressions of our own language associations. Repeatedly are we favored with opinions, based on observation and experience, that the educational value of modern languages can be made comparable to that of the ancient languages.¹

Dr. R. P. Scott summed up a discussion before the London Chamber of Commerce Conference on Commercial Education with the statement:

There seems agreement that it is possible to have a modern education drawn entirely upon modern lines, out of which can be got the same discipline of mind and the same discipline of conduct that can be got out of the old classical languages. They have found that true in Germany, and I am convinced we can find it true in England, if only we can set ourselves to work out the different types of secondary education that this nation should have at its command.²

¹ London Technical Educational Board, *Report on Commercial Education*, p. 5.

² *Proceedings*, p. 185.

The advantages of beginning the study of a foreign language with a living and not a dead tongue have long been urged, and such recommendations may well be regarded, even by those who aim at a familiarity with the latter. For schools of commerce modern languages should, in my judgment, be studied as living languages, that is, (as far as practicable) thru the medium of oral discourse, thus cultivating the ear as well as the eye. In German schools boys ask and answer questions in the language studied, and English and French visitors are surprised to find that not only are they invited to speak to the students in their native tongue, but that the students follow them.¹ Foreign-language instruction, to be of value, must have a wider outlook than business correspondence, commercial terms, etc. One can sympathize with the expression of Mr. H. W. Eve before the International Congress on Technical Education, in London, 1897: "A boy who can turn Lessing's *Laocoon* into good English, and a passage of Macaulay into passable German, will not take long to learn how to 'apologize for delay in the execution of your esteemed order.'"²

To summarize, in the line suggested by Rev. C. W. Bourne :

(a) A living language should be learned principally thru the medium of the ear.

(b) A mere "courier" knowledge of a language is not sufficient; coupled with this, there must be acquaintance with literature.

(c) Phonetics of the language studied should be taught.

(d) Language should be employed as the instrument of conveying exact thought.³

All that is here urged is with recognition of the claims of the study of the classics. A fine product of classical culture, on the same page in which he recognizes its value, advocates "a definite foundation of knowledge in those studies that are closely related to the conditions of future life," and goes on to say :

For some professions there is admittedly no better preparation than that afforded by the classical education as we know it at its best. But for a youth intended for commercial life, would it not almost invariably be better to get at school a thorough grounding in French and German, in history and literature, in the elements of science and of mathematics, and in some forms of manual exercise, than to learn a little Latin and Greek at the price of having to give less time to the studies which are at least an equally indispensable part of modern culture?⁴

3. *Mathematics*.—Old Plato regretted the use of "the noble science" arithmetic in practical affairs, yet from Plato's day to our own mathematics in all branches have become more and more matters of daily life. A commercial high school will get pupils grounded in general

¹ MAGNUS, London Chamber of Commerce Conference, *Proceedings*, p. 5.

² *Proceedings*, p. 185.

³ London Chamber of Commerce Conference on Commercial Education, *Proceedings*, p. 19.

⁴ MICHAEL E. SADLER,

arithmetic, and it should aim at an enlargement of the number concept, thru a study of algebra, to be followed by the elements of geometry and trigonometry as a training in logical reasoning, and as furnishing the principles for measurements. The concluding subject in this group should be mensuration and higher commercial arithmetic, with rigid drill in mental arithmetic—a course that can be made of great practical value as well as an important factor in the educational process.

4. *History*.—At least four courses in history should be distributed thruout the years of the curriculum we are considering, and the following are suggested: (*a*) general history to 800 A. D. (chiefly Greek and Roman with their oriental connections); (*b*) general European history from 800 A. D. (largely English with its continental connections); (*c*) American; and (*d*) industrial and commercial history (chiefly of the United States, England, and Germany since 1763). In the teaching of history in any secondary school the process is one of selection, and for this course the selection should be made of those facts that illustrate the industrial, commercial, and social aspects of the life of the peoples studied. The geographic basis should be duly emphasized, and a close relation established between history, science, and economics.

5. *Science*.—Recently an old-time college president asked a young professor of biology if he would begin his teaching of zoölogy with some broad principles of classification, and had the answer that the subject would be begun with a pail of clams. Science has become a study of things, but not all sorts of *things* are of equal value for scientific study. Clams may be made very interesting for the time being, yet I can well conceive the study of them as profitless as were the erstwhile principles of classification. Mineralogy, botany, and zoölogy offer rich stores that may be treated as the raw materials of commerce. Where natural products are secured, their properties, parts of them that are used, etc., etc., should command our attention, rather than systematic science. Such a course dealing with raw materials naturally precedes commercial geography, which deals with the forces of nature as agents in production of these, and the manner of their finding their way into the world's trade. Elementary physics and chemistry may be given thru a study of the materials of industry and trade, and as a concluding course there ought to be the study of chemistry applied to arts and industry. Science in our curriculum should be a study of the phenomena of everyday life, and to this end the laboratory and the special museum are indispensable.

6. *Economics and political science*.—What passes as phenomena of our political, economic, and social life should have due recognition in schools of commerce, which does not mean that we are to aim at the production of political philosophers or sociologists. Theories and abstractions ought to be largely avoided, methods being historical and descriptive. Local government, with industrial organization and activity, may be made the

point of contact, and then from the community out. Problems of production, distribution, exchange, and consumption should be considered concretely. Government, too, needs treatment as a real thing. Field work, observation and report, studies of special trades and industries, etc., offer opportunities for numerous valuable courses.

7. *Studies of the technique of business.*—Much of the foregoing is general, and it now remains to speak of the subjects more special. In no sense will our ideal school of commerce seek to turn out a ready-made business-man. It may reasonably aim to equip a young man to write well; to take a fair dictation in shorthand and operate that instrument of modern commercial and literary life, the typewriter; to familiarize him with current business paper and office practice; to ground him in the principles of accounts; and to give him some notion of the legal regulations for business transactions. Not an ambitious scheme, but if well done, and well backed with the broader subjects that have to do with business life, we shall have a generation of men who will be happier and more successful in commercial pursuits, and who will give a new tone to business itself.

IV. The curriculum described, it will be observed, is at once general and special. It is the writer's confident belief that the study of English, modern languages, history, science, and mathematics in a school of commerce can be made fairly equal in educational value with a study of these same subjects in other groupings or arrangements. Every scheme of education may be liberal, as every scheme may be technical, and the question which business education, along with others, must consider is: Where shall the line be drawn, how shall the division be made between matters that have technical value and those that have cultural value? We believe that modern industrial and commercial life are too little regarded in schemes of higher and secondary studies, and we demand that courses adjusted to present conditions be introduced on a proper basis into existing schools, or be established in distinct schools; and we accompany this demand with the statement that what we wish is only more rational, more universal education.

SHOULD OUR COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES EDUCATE MEN SPECIALLY FOR BUSINESS?

WOODFORD D. ANDERSON, DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTH DAKOTA, VERMILION, S. D.

The subject before us is precise, but vague; precise, in that it asks a specific question about our colleges and universities; vague, in that the education necessary to fit men especially for business is indefinite. Business education is a very indefinite term. It is used to represent the education received in a three-, six-, or nine-month term in the business

school. It is used also to represent the work done in the two, three, or four years' work in the commercial high school.' It is used also to represent the work done in the four-year courses of commerce and administration, such as we find established at the Chicago and Wisconsin Universities.

I believe our colleges and universities should educate men for business. I believe also that these institutions are the best places to educate men especially for business. Some things said in this address may indicate that I am hostile to the business schools. Such is not the case. I would raise every first-class business school to the grade of a college. I know of no class of educators who deserve more credit than commercial teachers. They have taken an extreme—perhaps a narrow—position; but they have given many young men the rudiments of business, and have helped them into good positions. Their work has created also a demand for more practical education, and made it possible for our colleges and universities to put commercial training on a par with instruction in the classics and in science.

The problem before us now resolves itself into two distinct questions: (1) Should young men receive higher commercial education? (2) Should this higher education be given in colleges and universities in preference to special schools?

Let us discuss these questions separately. If we attempt to reach a conclusion from statements made by men who ought to know, we find chaos. If we endeavor to draw a conclusion from statistics, we find contradiction. Mr. John Carlton Jones, in the *Forum* for November, 1898, gives some interesting statistics concerning college education. He considers signers of the Declaration of Independence, presidents, vice-presidents, members of the cabinets, etc. He finds 55 per cent. of these to be college graduates. These figures prove *much* for college education, but *nothing* concerning its relation to business. Dr. H. E. Kratz has collected some valuable statistics. His figures show that 57 per cent. of successful business-men and professional men are college-trained, while 33 per cent. of business-men are college men. It is not denied that one-third of the names in Appleton's *Encyclopædia* are the names of college graduates; but these are not business-men, nor were business-men given proper representation in that work. These figures have led me to collect some statistics. Business-men only were canvassed, with the following results: 17 per cent. were college graduates, 26 per cent. were college-trained, 52 per cent. were graduates of business schools, and 76 per cent. had been students in business schools.

When we consider that less than one man in every one hundred is a college man, these figures indicate that the college education increases a business-man's chance of success in the ratio of 25 to 1, and a professional man's chances of success in the ratio of 50 to 1. But remember

that we have seen only one side of the question. Mr. Carnegie says that the boy who enters the office at an early age has too much the start of the college graduate, and will seldom be overtaken by him. Mr. Henry Clews says that he does not employ college graduates, because they think they know it all, and are seldom willing to begin at the bottom and apply their whole energies to their work. But why need I quote these men? Ask the business-men of your own city; and many of them will advise the boy to go to work, and not to take the college training, if he intends to enter business.

There is an old Greek maxim which says: "Teach the boy what the man needs." History proves the wisdom of this saying when it records Farragut, Hannibal, Alexander, and Napoleon, all at seven years; Carnegie at twelve; Wanamaker at fourteen; Marshall Field, Peabody, and Gould at seventeen; Rockefeller at nineteen; and a thousand other famous men as beginning their business or profession at less than twenty-one. It is a well-known fact that the financiers who have made signal successes are not college men. When I speak of a financier I do not mean a meteor, but a man who has succeeded and who can succeed again—a Vanderbilt who earned his wealth by work, and who has increased it thru several generations by intelligent direction; a Gould who has manipulated men and markets; or a Rockefeller who has outorganized and outclassed his opponents.

These statistics and statements seem to clash. We may be able to profit by them if we cannot harmonize them.

Higher education—college and university education—has a direct effect upon a very small portion of our people; but indirectly it affects every man, woman, and child in the land.

Herbert Spencer tells us that the function of education is to prepare us for complete living. Education does not perform her function. In four different colleges I found that more than half the boys who entered returned to the farm. More than one-fourth of them engaged in business. Admitting this to be an average, if the function of education is to prepare men for complete living, three-fourths of our young men who enter college are not offered education at all, because the kind of instruction offered does not prepare for complete living.

We should have higher commercial education to meet the just demands of the times. There can be no prosperity without material prosperity. There has been a great commercial awakening; both personal and national competition are greater than they have ever been. Wars were formerly waged for plunder, now they are for markets. We are closing the century of invention and entering the century of commerce. Hon. Thomas B. Reed says:

We have reached the era of the business-man. In olden times fighters were supreme. When the rights of property, rather than the rights of might, began to be

recognized, the lawyer and the politician held sway, and nowhere more than in the United States. But the lawyer and the politician are giving way to another class. The business-men are possessing the earth.

In 1888 France and Germany exported much more than did the United States, while the United Kingdom exported twice as much as we did. Ten years later we had surpassed both France and Germany, and were nearly equal to the United Kingdom. During those ten years our exports increased 50 per cent., while our imports increased less than 6 per cent.

England, by natural advantages, controlled the commerce of the world. We, by natural resources and advantages, have taken much of it from her. But we are not the only nation in the struggle. During that same period Germany's exports increased 13 per cent., while her imports increased only 10 per cent. France's exports increased 10 per cent., while her imports decreased. Holland and Belgium added 33 per cent. to both sides of their account. The explanations of these increases cannot be found in natural resources or in special advantages. The *American Artisan* gives the explanation in an article entitled "Germany's Secret," in which it says:

There is not a doubt that, wherever it is possible, considerable sums should be diverted from the main educational channels and be put into commercial and technical schools. The sudden rise of Germany as an industrial nation has occasioned general inquiry as to the cause of a result so wholly remarkable. A few years ago the English government sent a technical commission to Germany to study and report upon this question. . . . England has begun to learn the lesson from the Germans. The dexterity of the German artisan, the knowledge and industry of the German salesman and commercial traveler, who is known the world over, . . . should lead to the inauguration of a series of technical schools which should enable the trained artisan of our land to grasp easily the richest prize in the world's commercial struggle.

Upon investigation we find that these four countries—Germany, France, Belgium, and Holland—are fairly well supplied with technical and commercial high schools. When Antwerp and Leipzig established their commercial schools the English thought they were theories; but they have learned that there is an "art of commerce" and "a philosophy of commerce." He who understands these sees that there is no need for dishonesty and double dealing in trade.

In order to be a commercial nation we must produce and we must distribute. Our technical schools and journals are doing much to help the producer. We do not have as much help for the distributor. Economics gives the laws of production, preservation, and distribution of wealth, but it does not deal with the machinery of commerce. Commercial education includes both the science and mechanism of commerce. This machinery of commerce is an indispensable part, and should be understood by the business-man just as thoroly as any other part of his profession. The business-man's profession, did I say? Yes; a profession

is "an occupation that properly involves a liberal education or its equivalent, and mental rather than manual labor."

This higher commercial education makes every business-man a professional man, while competition makes every professional man a business-man. Business is more important than the professions.

The business school prepares a man for bookkeeping, stenography, or routine office work. The commercial high schools prepare men to be business managers and local buyers and sellers. The higher commercial schools should fit men to be financiers, corporate managers, foreign agents, and consuls.

Our financiers must have special training which they have not received heretofore. Their intimate relation to all departments of business demands that they be trained side by side with the business-man.

Our large corporations are created in the hands of managers who have large experience. The corporations are built up so slowly that the managers understand them perfectly. These men die, and others must take their places. The new managers have studied the structure as a whole, but may not understand the construction. The result is failure and widespread disaster. It makes no difference whether the great enterprises are conducted by corporations or by the government, they must have these managers. The only proper way to prepare these is to give them a thoro commercial education and special office training.

No intelligent man will object to our schools preparing men for foreign agents. We need superior purchasers and salesmen in every foreign country. Where we once bought we now sell the same articles. Our productive power is almost unlimited. Our skill is unsurpassed. Natural resources, native ability, and industrial education have made us one of the greatest manufacturing nations. Mr. Mulhall, the British statistician, says: "If we take a survey of mankind in ancient and modern times, as regards the physical, mechanical, and intellectual force of nations, we find nothing to compare with the United States." It is estimated that the United States manufactures over one-half as much as all Europe. Our factories are increasing rapidly. It will not be very long before we manufacture as much goods as all Europe does. England exports 63 per cent. of her production. The United States exports less than 9 per cent. of her production. Our exports must soon be ten times what they are now. The only way to increase them is to find new markets or increase the sales in old ones. The technical education will make better goods, but it remains for higher commercial education to produce better salesmen.

Not only must our large factories have agents in a foreign field, but our government must also have thoroly equipped agents. If it is possible, our consuls and ministers should be as superior to the salesmen as our government is superior to the factories. Natural ability is not sufficient. *Political servitude does not prepare for diplomacy.* While many of

our consuls are very worthy men, the majority of them are stupid politicians. The scope of their work, and the importance of their decisions, demand that they be thoroly educated concerning commercial relations. Germany, Belgium, and Austria require that their consuls be graduates of their commercial schools. We must give our consuls a similar training if we would compete in the world's markets.

There are many other reasons why higher commercial education should be given ; but the time allowed prohibits the mention of them.

We now come to the second question : Should this higher education be given in the colleges and universities in preference to giving it in special schools?

If the course is to be planned by the classical or scientific professors ; if the additional instruction is to be given by tutors under the direction of these professors ; or if one man is to teach all the additional studies, commercial education will be a farce. Granting the course to be organized under the direction of educated business-men, and specialists at the head of each department, the best result can be obtained by putting it into the college. Our high schools graduate many girls and few boys. Our colleges and universities graduate more men than women ; but, at the present rate of increase, the women will soon be greatly in the majority. Put a good commercial course into the college, and the male students will increase rapidly. The farmers and business-men pay most of the taxes and support most of the denominational colleges. They surely have a right to demand that their sons shall be given an opportunity to educate themselves for business in the schools their fathers support. The business student must have libraries and apparatus. By a small addition, those in use in our colleges will satisfy every need, thus saving a large expense. Many subjects necessary for a business education are already taught in our colleges. By the addition of a few departments, we shall have just as strong a commercial course and save much expense for instruction. The business student will be broader and stronger by reason of his association with the classical and scientific students, while the classical and scientific student will be taught a wholesome respect for his commercial brother, whom he shall find his equal and often his superior.

The foreign missionaries seldom get credit for their share of our commercial development. They have done as much as any other class to stimulate trade. If every denominational college would prepare men especially for business, we should soon learn that business and religion may go hand in hand, and that the foreign missionary and the commercial salesman ought to be co-workers in the advancement of civilization.

Commercial education should be the capstone of the college. In general terms, we may say that classical education teaches how to think, to theorize ; scientific education teaches how to investigate and to apply ; commercial education teaches how to make and to dispose of.

This kind of education does not teach a young man that he is too good to work, but that he is made to work ; and work is God's greatest blessing. It teaches him to plan and to execute his plans. This kind of education does not make intellectual imbeciles, but strong, sturdy men of the world. It combines meditative and active enjoyment. It unites trades, business, and profession. It marries art and industry.

Inventions have intensified man's life a hundred fold. This education will increase his power of activity a thousand fold. Ability is very scarce. It has never commanded so great a compensation as it does today. When colleges and universities educate men especially for business, commercial evils will disappear and prosperity will become permanent.

THE COMMERCIAL HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE

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Within a few years much attention has been given by writers on educational subjects, by prominent teachers, and by school authorities to a phase of secondary education which, before the publication of a report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1896, had not been held worthy of much consideration. Since the report referred to, containing Dr. James' exhaustive report on schools of finance and economy in Europe, various commercial courses have been suggested for high schools, and the plan of forming a distinctively commercial high school has been approved by boards of education of several cities. Next to securing properly qualified instructors for the commercial high schools is the necessity of a proper course of study.

The view which I take of this course is one which has grown upon me during the fifteen years in which I have taught the commercial branches in a commercial high school in the business center of the union. It is based on the belief that the public-school teacher has a public trust; that he is a servant of his master, the public ; that it is his duty to study the interests of his patrons at all times, to investigate the conditions and needs of the community in which he lives, and, in preparing a course of study, to see to it that the needs of the many receive attention first, and the wants of the few second.

With this belief, some fourteen years ago, I began a series of observations that I might be able to speak intelligently of the wants of the boys who were intrusted to my care.

The conditions of my pupils both before and after they were graduated from the grammar schools were carefully studied. I made myself familiar with their home surroundings, their aims, their ambitions, and the hopes of their parents for them, as well as with the restrictions and limitations which surrounded many of them because of their social and

financial status. I followed them from the school to the office, the sales-room, the bank, the factory; and I learned how they began, what they did, and how they succeeded or failed to advance. I talked with intelligent and conscientious employers in a hundred lines of commercial enterprises, and I learned what they prefer, what they expect, and what they demand of those whom they employ. At our alumni reunions we have had what are akin to experience meetings, at which each graduate may tell of his success or advancement, the subjects which have been of the greatest advantage to him, and state as well the points in which he found himself wanting when he went into actual business. To be sure, I have no personal knowledge of conditions except as they exist in large cities, but I think my conclusions, with some modifications, will apply to all localities.

The commercial high school is an experiment. The full four-year course has never been worked out in any city, so far as I know, tho there is no doubt in my mind as to its ultimate success. In some of our cities a three-year course has been in existence for some time. In some other cities a four-year commercial course has been in operation for one or two years. In Brooklyn a commercial high school, with a course of three years, began its independent existence a few months ago, tho for all practical purposes it has been an independent commercial school for five years. The private commercial schools known as business colleges have been in operation for many years in all parts of this country. Their existence shows conclusively that they were necessary; that they did something which the public schools did not do; but, because very many of them were of a low grade, attracting pupils of poor mental attainments and scholastic ability, and because the instructors employed were of limited education, the prominent educators of the country have ignored the private business schools of high grade, and, until recently, have believed that all these schools were wrong from a pedagogical point of view. There is no question in my mind as to the value of the work which the better business colleges have been doing. The commercial high school aims to do many things that the business colleges did not try to do. But, in order properly to fill its place in the community and justify its existence as a school supported by public taxation, the commercial high school must teach those things which the best business colleges taught, in a manner equally thoro and practical. Not long ago, in an educational paper of some standing, I noticed the statement that the business college was merely a clerk factory to turn out business assistants, but that the aim of the high school was to turn out business-men. I suppose the writer should have said, to carry out his thought, successful business-men. This statement, with some variation, has been repeated frequently and has been made a great deal of. But to me it is an expression without definite meaning. What is a business-man? Is he a wholesale or retail merchant?

A banker? An exporter? A railroad manager? A manufacturer? A clerk? A bookkeeper? A commercial traveler? It seems to me that anyone who is engaged in any occupation arising from the exchange of commodities is essentially a business-man, and if he succeeds he is a successful business-man. The successful business-man owes his success sometimes to his education, but more often to his tact and special knowledge of the business in which he is engaged. All that the commercial high school can do for its pupils is to teach them to use the tools of business, in order that the natural gifts in a business way which they all possess in some measure may be developed and their value increased. A competent business-man, as such, cannot be made in a school. Many men who have the best instruction possible do not succeed in business because so many things besides education are necessary to insure success. Business ability is frequently inherited. Some families—nay, some races—seem to be endowed with the commercial instinct.

What is a commercial education? I well know a successful bank president and financier who cannot keep a simple set of books; a prominent business-man of my acquaintance received all the business training he ever had as a journalist; another, in the classical course of a university; another received a liberal high-school course; another, an elementary-school education; and another—a most successful business-man—had no school education at all. There were successful business-men in former generations; there are splendid business-men today who never had the special training the commercial high-school course proposes to give, tho some of them have had the advantages of a business-college course. It seems to me, therefore, that any education which a business-man has, and which makes him a better business-man, is for him a business education, no matter whether it was obtained within the walls of a school or not.

Now, it seems to me there is nothing mysterious in this question, and there has been no great discovery lately as to what constitutes a business education. We are merely beginning to realize its value and necessity today, and the great danger of failure in our commercial courses lies in our desire to do so much for our pupils that we overestimate the value of some parts of the courses we would offer, and by endeavoring to accomplish too much fail to provide a sensible, practical, and workable curriculum. Our laudable desire to have a great school should not obscure the need of having a good school.

Without entering into specifications, I may say I am convinced that some of the commercial courses adopted by our boards of education the past three or four years have already been adjudged failures, so far as accomplishing the purpose for which they were organized is concerned. A business education such as our secondary schools should give is not

nearly so technical as many are wont to imagine, and, in my estimation, it is that kind of education which develops and strengthens the mental faculties which are used in business, and which provide that general knowledge which is useful in all business, and, in some cases, the particular kind of knowledge useful in a particular business.

I have no sympathy with those who sneer at schools which only attempt to turn out good clerks, and good bookkeepers, and good stenographers, for nowadays every young man must begin in a subordinate place, oftentimes being obliged to accept the first opportunity offered; and unless he is competent to do well that which he is first given to do, he is handicapped at the start. I have had this deeply impressed upon my mind after each semi-annual graduation of the school in which I have the honor to serve. I have charge of what may be called our employment bureau; for our school is so well known that we have frequently more calls for office help than we are able to fill, and I cannot fail to notice the disappointment which many show at being obliged to begin in places of slight responsibility.

The grammar-school course, in cities at all events, is defective in thoroughness in many particulars; and some of its weak points should be points of strength in business education. There is a vast number in every city who, because of their circumstances, cannot spend four years, or even three, in a secondary school. It seems to me, therefore, that the first duty of the public commercial high school is to extend the work of the elementary school where needed, to strengthen it wherever it is weak, and to provide that which will be of value to those who can stay but a short time in the course. Its second duty is to take care of the needs of those who can stay a somewhat longer time; while it should last provide for those who will take the last years.

I do not believe that it is the function of the public secondary school to teach the philosophy of business management, nor do I believe it is within its power to do so. The course of study of a public commercial high school must be exceedingly strong in those subjects which the 99 per cent. of those who attend will require (the essentials), and, if possible, strong in those branches which will be wanted by the 1 per cent. who are expected to become bank presidents, railroad managers, consuls, promoters of vast enterprises, and the like.

The studies of the course may be grouped as follows: English; mathematics; science; languages; history and civics; commercial subjects taught separately as such, including writing, bookkeeping, arithmetic, commercial law, stenography, and typewriting.

The study to which I assign the first place in the commercial high-school course is English, by which I mean the "art of expression" in conversation and writing, and on one's feet in public. Just here the work of the elementary school may be supplemented with the utmost

advantage to the pupil, for spelling must be taught regularly and systematically. The work of composition should begin at once, with a view of teaching the boy to arrange his ideas logically, and to state them as concisely as is consistent with clearness. The development of a literary style may be left until the third or fourth year of the course. Letter-writing must be taught as a part of the curriculum, and I would devote one hour a week for the first two years to this most important subject, giving constant attention to form, punctuation, spelling, subject-matter, and the acquirement of a good business style. The handwriting of many of the incoming pupils will be so poor that penmanship, i. e., rapid and legible writing, must be taught as a special study to most of the pupils for one year at least, and legibility and neatness in all written exercises must be insisted upon by every teacher, and nothing else accepted. The book-keeping of the first year should be simple, but thoro; the most careful attention being given to the form and use of all the business papers which would naturally be handled if the transaction used as the basis of instruction was genuine. The principles underlying the science must be dwelt upon with painstaking insistence, and presented again and again in ways which may tax the ingenuity of the instructor, until they are thoroly understood, and can be applied correctly and without hesitation. At the end of the first year the pupil should be able to open, conduct, and close intelligently an ordinary set of books requiring a knowledge of the use of the day-book, journal, cash-book, sales-book, and ledger. He must also be able to make a clear statement of the condition of the business as shown by his ledger. The work of the second year should be developed in a natural way from that of the first, the examples increasing in difficulty, the pupil being compelled to rely upon himself as he becomes able. It should be accompanied with a thoro course in business practice and office routine. In the third and fourth years the more difficult and intricate work of the bookkeeper should be undertaken, and the duties of the accountant and auditor may be studied. The study of commercial arithmetic should be taken up in earnest the first year. And here again the work of the grammar school must be reviewed and augmented by drill in fractions and daily practice in addition. The work in arithmetic, in my mind, should consist to a great extent in the mental solution of examples, with a view to acquiring that facility and accuracy which is demanded in business. The man of affairs meets with but few problems such as the arithmetic offers—that is to say, in the stated form in which the pupil finds them in the text-book. But he is constantly confronted with conditions which demand on his part an ability to apply such principles and rules of arithmetic as will fit the case. This should be borne in mind continually by the instructor, and the work laid out so as to conform to it. The proper use of the text-book is to supply some of the material for home work, and to save the teacher of large classes from the danger of being

swamped in preparing and solving and correcting problems. After the first year the work in bookkeeping and business practice will provide opportunities for frequent drill in commercial arithmetic.

Commercial law should be entered upon, not with a view to teaching what is implied by the title of the book, *Every Man his Own Lawyer*, but to give the pupil such a general knowledge of the principles which underlie the laws of business as every intelligent business-man should have. The intensive study of business law may be left to the third or fourth year, but certain divisions of the subject—as, for example, contracts, negotiable paper, agency, partnership, and agreements for personal services—should form an important part of the work of the second year. The application of the laws of commercial paper should be one of the duties of every teacher whose subject, either in theory or in practice, involves the use of any piece of business paper. No pupil who has completed the second year should be unable to interpret the meaning and scope of any indorsement.

Typewriting is practically a necessity today for all who enter upon a business career, whether phonography is used in connection with it or not; and I would suggest that in the third year of the course sufficient time be given to it to insure a fair degree of speed. As a means of fixing deeply in the mind of the pupil the correct spelling of words, the proper use of the marks of punctuation, and the mechanical form of letters, I know of no exercise equal to practice upon the typewriter.

Phonography or shorthand is, to my mind, a study entitled to prominent recognition, not only because of its utility, but also because of the mental discipline which it gives in cultivating and strengthening the powers of attention, observation, and discrimination. I suggest its introduction into the course of study in the second year, and at the end of that year I believe the pupil should have acquired a complete mastery of the principles and the word-signs of the system, and be ready to apply them without hesitation. He should be able also to take from dictation easy new matter quite readily. The distinction between a mere writer of shorthand and a competent stenographer should be kept before the pupil, and those who intend to begin their business career as stenographers should be constantly reminded of the need for acquiring general culture as well as the ability to perform the mechanical work of the amanuensis. The work of the second year in stenography should be mainly dictation upon various lines, with a view to acquiring speed. The notes of the pupil should be transcribed by him upon the typewriter as soon as he has acquired sufficient proficiency to manipulate the instrument. This work in dictation may be profitably varied by the pupils making their notes directly upon the machine.

Free-hand and mechanical drawing should be taught in the first two years,

With the exception of English, the work which I have outlined thus far may be completed by the end of the third year. It will afford an excellent education in the so-called business subjects, and the pupil who has pursued it faithfully, under the guidance of properly qualified instructors, will have a good equipment with which to begin his business life.

I will now refer to the other work of the course briefly, not because I consider it unimportant, but because I feel assured that most makers of commercial high-school courses will give it all the preferment to which it is entitled.

The course in history and civics should include general history, with American history and government as a part of the work of the second year; the history of commerce is appropriate for the work of the third year; while economics, political science, and modern and industrial history may constitute the work of the fourth year.

The course in mathematics should comprise arithmetic, algebra, and geometry in the first, second, and third years, respectively.

In science, physical geography, and physiology and hygiene should be studied the first year; commercial geography and physics, the second year; chemistry and natural science, the third year; industrial chemistry, and the study of raw materials and manufactured goods, the fourth year.

From the department of languages I would omit all but the modern tongues, and they should be pursued not so much for their literary and culture value as for their possible practical utility. The value of the work in this department will depend very largely upon the ability of the teacher and his comprehension of the objects to be attained. I would suggest that an option between Spanish and German be permitted on entering the course, and that a choice between science and a second language be allowed in the second year, and possibly a choice between science and French in the third year. In the third and fourth years in which any language is pursued a part of the work of the pupils should be in business correspondence in that language.

Limitation of time now imposes upon me the necessity of bringing these suggestions to an end, tho I feel that I have only touched upon the essentials and possibilities of my subject. In conclusion, permit me to say that I believe our most urgent need is not so much new and remodeled commercial courses as new and remodeled commercial teachers.

What is needed in each of our great cities is a thoroly American commercial high school, based on American needs, and adapted to American ideas. Not that I would fail to recognize the splendid results secured in the European schools of commerce, or cast to the winds the fruit of their experience in commercial courses. Far from it. With due appreciation of what they have accomplished, let us make a practical use of

what is adapted for our particular needs, and, benefiting by the study of these illustrious models, build up in this country schools in every way their equal, and, so far as our needs are concerned, their superior.

THE ADVANTAGES AND DIFFICULTIES OF INTRODUCING THE COMMERCIAL BRANCHES IN GRAMMAR AND HIGH SCHOOLS

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The very general demand for training in commercial branches in grammar and high-school courses has brought with it some perplexing problems of management and method for teachers and school officers to solve. In many respects the conditions are so unusual, and the methods which must be employed to secure successful results are so different from those commonly used in public-school work, that there has been some discouragement and disappointment.

Many instances have come to my notice in recent years wherein the results obtained from instruction in bookkeeping and the other commercial branches in public schools have been unsatisfactory, and often have amounted to failures. A careful examination into the conditions that prevailed has satisfied me that any other results could not have been expected. Much of the trouble was found to be in the lack of experience on the part of the principals and teachers in handling this work, and the lack of proper facilities and equipment which should have been provided for it by the school authorities.

The conditions are different.—The first difficulty is to impress upon the minds of those who are responsible for the management of public schools that the commercial branches to be taught successfully must be taught differently from the usual public-school branches. Instruction in some of these branches, especially in bookkeeping, cannot be given with the best results by the strictly class-drill methods in which a recitation in grammar or geography may be conducted. The work must be more individual, and more attention must be given to each student and his work, just as the student himself must give more attention to the details and technicalities of each lesson. The better class of business schools have solved many of the difficulties, and public-school teachers would profit much if they would study their methods. In them a combination of class and private instruction has been followed which has been demonstrated to be the best-adapted for this work, and similar results have followed wherever this method has been used in public schools.

Professor Kennedy's "individual instruction system," in operation at Batavia, N. Y., in which two teachers are assigned to one room, one of whom conducts the recitations and the other gives individual instruction,

would work well in the commercial branches. Too much importance cannot be attached to the value of the individual attention of the teacher to each pupil. While class recitations will produce fairly good results in the subjects of correspondence, commercial law, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, and penmanship, in bookkeeping the importance of details necessitates much more individual work on the part of the teacher.

Another difficulty pertaining to courses of study and classification is that the pupil in the public school usually has to take care of many more studies in a given time than the student in a private commercial school. For this reason the ordinary classification in public schools will not admit of periods of study and recitations of as great length as those in business schools. If possible, the periods for recitations should be lengthened, and in the subject of bookkeeping two consecutive periods should be assigned.

In arranging a course to include the commercial branches better results can be obtained by eliminating as many as possible of the other branches during the time the commercial branches are given special attention. The commercial branches are not easy branches to master by any means. A pupil cannot drift thru his course of study and recitations in bookkeeping as he can in geography, or even arithmetic. The moment he does not understand what he is doing he is lost, and will soon be in a maze of difficulty that will put him far behind his class. There is absolutely no middle ground for a successful student in bookkeeping. A single error will disorganize a whole set of books. If he doesn't know the subject thoroly, he is an utter failure in it, because absolute accuracy is the first requisite in results, and is the main test.

Teachers must be qualified.—Another difficulty is the employment of incompetent teachers to instruct in these branches. Rarely is the subject of bookkeeping, for instance, given sufficient attention in the normal courses to prepare teachers to teach it intelligently. An adequate knowledge of bookkeeping includes a technical and legal knowledge of notes, drafts, checks, orders, receipts, bills; and, in fact, all the vouchers used in business. It also includes an acquaintance with methods of business procedure, the requirements of modern office practice; a knowledge of commercial law in so far as it relates to contracts, corporations, partnerships, agency, etc., their formation, and the legal responsibilities of the parties thereto. An intelligent teacher of bookkeeping must have a detailed, technical knowledge of a very broad subject.

It is evident that the ordinary teacher, as he is found in the grammar and high schools, is not likely to be well fitted to teach these branches. In many instances bookkeeping is taught by the regular teacher of mathematics or English or the sciences—men and women who, if they had no better knowledge of their regularly assigned specialties, would

prove utter and entire failures. Successful results, therefore, cannot be expected unless teachers are employed who are proficient and qualified for commercial teaching. Their training and equipment should be on an equality with that of any other teacher of any other branch in the public-school curriculum. They should be specialists. A teacher cannot teach bookkeeping well who could not keep a set of books well, and yet I have met principals and superintendents who asserted that bookkeeping was a very simple matter, and almost anyone could teach it. This is a serious mistake.

Proper facilities must be supplied.—The ordinary furnishment of public schools in the way of desks and appliances is entirely unsuited to instruction in bookkeeping. The student must have at least twice, and in many instances three times, the space supplied on the usual public-school desk. An arithmetic lesson may be prepared with a tablet on one's knee, and the recitation may be conducted from the blackboard; but a recitation in bookkeeping requires plenty of desk room, and there should be one room especially furnished and equipped for recitation and individual instruction, if satisfactory results are to be expected. Ample accommodations for the blanks and stationery should be provided, and where trading between students is conducted, complete office equipments are required.

Modern bookkeeping systems must be used.—Business methods have been revolutionized in the last quarter of a century, and systems of bookkeeping and accounting, to say nothing of office practice and methods of business procedure, have been revolutionized with them. No teacher would attempt to teach geography from a text-book published in 1860, yet the officers in many schools continue to insist upon some little insignificant text-book, whose only recommendation is its cheapness, and whose only claim to distinction is its antiquity. The old text-book plan is a thing of the past. The newer methods must be employed. To save a few pennies it is not unusual to supply students with blank-books and materials of such flimsy character as to make first-class work impossible.

Boards of education find it hard to realize that the expense necessary to supply an adequate outfit of books and stationery for the student in bookkeeping must cost as much perhaps as all the books used by the students in other courses in a year's work. In fact, the expense is even more sometimes than for students in the primary grades.

It is folly to attempt to teach bookkeeping unless all the business papers are used. They are as much a part of the material equipment for teaching the subject as the ledger, journal, or cash-book, and it is impossible to give the student a practical knowledge of accounts unless the records are made from the business papers. The use of business papers and a technical knowledge of their preparation in connection with each transaction will be of vastly more practical value to the student in many

instances than a knowledge of the laws of debit and credit, or the ability to keep a cash-book, sales-book, journal, or ledger.

I trust I may be permitted to say that the public schools were formerly handicapped in their introduction of the commercial branches because of their inability to find books and systems that were adapted to their wants. This difficulty no longer exists. Several publishing houses have recognized their wants and provided systems of bookkeeping and appliances well suited and especially prepared for them.

The value of commercial instruction must be appreciated.—Perhaps the most serious of the difficulties to be overcome in successfully introducing the commercial branches into the public schools lies in the prejudice of school superintendents, principals, and teachers against the introduction of this work. The persistent, and in many instances unaccountable, antagonism which has been displayed by those in authority is one of the unsolved problems in our educational history. Teachers who are sublime examples of devotion to the cause of education, who are unceasing in their efforts to help every little boy and girl that comes under their charge, and who often display extraordinary educational intelligence, for some reason are found to be unreasonably opposed to the introduction of the commercial branches. It has been variously ascribed to the traditions of college and university training, to the conservatism of our educational system, and sometimes to laziness. The very fact that the obstacles to which I have called attention must be mastered and overcome has in many instances been a sufficient reason for no effort at all.

The advantages.—Now just a few words as to the advantages to young people from the introduction of the commercial branches. I am a great believer in higher education. I advocate all that is best in all education, with plenty of it; but I maintain that all education, when considered in relation to the great mass of the people of our country, must be measured finally by the single test of usefulness and utility. Our boys and girls demand to be educated so that, first of all, they may be better equipped to earn an honest living; that they may live comfortable, intelligent, and respectable lives, and take their places as productive and desirable members of society. No education or training that can be given to the great majority of those in attendance in our advanced grammar grades and high schools can be more useful and productive than that derived from a study of the commercial branches. The intellectual culture which is so highly esteemed by some is of little account if it cannot supply itself, or be supplied, with the richer intellectual foods which it requires to feed upon. We do not look for luxuriant growths of moral development in the thin soil of poverty, and the basis of any real progress of the race toward higher forms of civilization will be found in the material prosperity of the individual to a greater extent than many of us are willing to admit. Therefore, if the introduction of commercial studies into grammar and

high schools—which are of all others the schools of the people, rich and poor alike—will better fit them for life's work, it should be done, even if other less important branches must be dropped; and every honorable teacher must feel himself bound to work toward that end.

SCHOOL AND BUSINESS ARITHMETIC—LIMITATIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS

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In common with most teachers who have endeavored to carry out onerous and over-burdened courses of study, we rejoice that the modern movement has been toward the elimination of much of the old-fashioned arithmetic which formerly wasted so many hours with such little practical results. The days of mathematical puzzles, arithmetical conundrums, and various forms of useless number mysteries have to a large degree disappeared. May they never again hold in their thraldom those teachers who, like Prometheus, were bound to the rock of arithmetical slavery! Many teachers have been the victims of a relentless Pandora, who came, not with a box of evils from Jupiter, but with a long-drawn-out course of study, which included too many topics in arithmetic absolutely unnecessary for the average business-man. Alligation, duodecimals, equation of payments, compound interest, foreign exchange, and other such subjects, have either been wholly eliminated or at least very materially reduced in importance.

It is, however, a matter of the greatest surprise that in so many of the important cities of our country the course in arithmetic still holds firmly in its grasp many of the kinds of problems which modern pedagogic leaders have denounced as being unnecessary to young students. I have made a careful study of the arithmetic requirements of thirty of the largest cities in this country, including most of those having a population of over one hundred thousand. The assigned work was carefully examined, and I discovered that in many cases the requirements were excessive. More is demanded than is necessary for proper business preparation, and yet the pupil who desires to continue in the high school or college is not imbued with the proper mathematical spirit by this additional work.

Most careful teachers will probably admit that below the high school the following subjects are unnecessary: partial payments, compound partnership, equation of payments, compound proportion, true discount, and higher mensuration. The following table will show the relative percentage of cities in which the above subjects are not simply optional, but actually required:

Compound partnership	-	53 per cent.	Higher mensuration	-	40 per cent.
Partial payments	-	47 per cent.	True discount	-	33 per cent.
Compound proportion	-	43 per cent.	Equation of payments	-	30 per cent.

When the percentage of what may be called nonessential subjects varies from 53 to 30, a radical change would be beneficial if it should lead to minimum requirements more nearly in accord with the demands of the times.

When it is remembered that there are over a million persons actually engaged in business in this country, and that nearly half our total population over the age of ten years is busy in some mercantile pursuit, it will be admitted that careful attention should be paid to the requirements which business occupations demand, and that proper minimum standards should be decided upon after careful deliberation. Statistics prove that out of every hundred children who start in life only four reach the high school, two the college, while ninety-four leave at various ages to go into some form of business. Urgent efforts should therefore be made to properly equip this largest class with both the amount and the kind of arithmetic needed.

There will probably be considerable discussion as to what may be proper minimum requirements, but careful consideration of the previously mentioned courses of study leads me to the following conclusions:

1. All unnecessary work, such as partnership with time, equation of accounts, cube-root, etc., should have no place in the course of study of any elementary school.
2. Importance of drill and review must be constantly emphasized, not only for the pupil who is to enter business, but also for the pupil who is taught arithmetic as a basis for further mathematical knowledge.
3. The mass of the pupils, however, must have only practical work, as they need their arithmetic, not for mathematical development, but as a means of earning their livelihood.
4. Simple cases under denominate numbers of the practical tables, and easy applications of percentage and proportion, will doubtless include the most advanced work which any fair minimum course will require.
5. Text-books are to be used with caution. They can be made helpful or harmful, according to their use or abuse.
6. Up to the fourth year the main efforts should be to secure rapidity and accuracy of result, and the work should be confined to the fundamental rules and a brief course in fractions. (No fraction should be of a higher denominator than 12, and no examples should be given in 7'ths or 11'ths.) This plan will allow the child to become very familiar with the twenty-eight different fractions, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{11}$.

A relief from the present excessive requirements in arithmetic leading to an effort to prepare for proper business equipment is found in the establishment of commercial high schools, the latest development of the school system, and an innovation which most of the large cities of our country have hastened to adopt. The trend toward the movement is also shown in the business colleges, which have been so very successful

in preparing young men for a mercantile career that they have an established place in the educational system of our nation.

In these schools the pupils are of an advanced age, and their apprehending power is sufficiently developed to enable them to grasp such subjects as the metric system, compound partnership, equation of accounts, and so forth, which were formerly allowed to harass many a poor boy in the elementary schools, who would never make use of any such branches of arithmetic in the course of his whole life. By the time the average pupil has reached his fourteenth year he is probably finishing the seventh year of school, and is about to complete the final term of his grammar-school work, preparatory to entrance to a high school, or to commence a business career.

In the course of the past few years I have frequently received letters of inquiry from the parents of my pupils, stating that the methods which their children were using were so different from those employed by themselves that they could render them no efficient help. I therefore determined to discover to what extent business practices varied from those ordinarily employed in school, and also to what degree our curriculum might be reduced by limiting the instruction to those subjects which the business-men found most necessary.

I therefore addressed letters of inquiry covering the above points to the heads of the representative business houses in New York. The plan received the hearty approval of a number of our merchant princes, bank presidents, and commissioners of the board of education, including John Wanamaker, R. H. Macy & Co., President Miles M. O'Brien of the board of education, Hon. Joseph J. Little, Commissioner Joseph J. Kittel, president of the Nineteenth Ward Bank, and Superintendent John Jasper. Their cordial indorsement and the use of their names stamped my investigation as being, not simply theoretical, but eminently practical.

So that I might be assisted in making proper generalizations from the replies, and also that I might succeed in reaching a larger number of various lines of industry, I made the following classification of occupations:

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Wholesale merchants. | 6. Professions. |
| 2. Retail merchants. | 7. Importers and exporters. |
| 3. Manufacturers. | 8. Agents. |
| 4. Trades. | 9. Miscellaneous. |
| 5. Skilled artisans. | |

Each of the above classes included about seven subdivisions, so as to embrace about sixty different business interests. The letters were sent by mail to the number of six hundred, stamped envelopes being inclosed for replies. Another set was distributed personally thru the efforts of the teachers and scholars of my school, and also thru the kindness of friends. Additional value was given to the experiment by appreciative

words published in the *New York Times*, *Commercial Advertiser*, *Dry Goods Review*, and other papers, thereby bringing the matter to the favorable notice of many people. Replies were received from many sources, and the great majority of the fifty-seven different lines of business was represented in the responses.

In 44 per cent. of the replies the writers stated that there was absolutely no need for any arithmetic beyond the fundamental rules and common and decimal fractions. The great desiderata were accuracy and speed, and strong emphasis was laid on the fact that the pupils should fully understand the importance and logical sequence of every step of the processes involved.

I have classified the information received from the answers under either of two heads: I, "Mechanical Aids;" II, "Processes of Solution."

Under the first head may be summarized the following particulars:

1. Importance of decimal points.
2. Necessity for legible figures.
3. Accuracy and speed.
4. Use of interest and discount tables and graded schedules.
5. Use of cash registers and arithmometers.
6. The frequency with which aliquot parts are employed shows that such fractions as $\frac{8}{9}$, $\frac{14}{17}$, $\frac{19}{23}$, etc., are seldom used in business, and should therefore receive scant attention in school.
7. Importance of "short-cuts."
8. Value of teaching the multiplication table thru 20×20 .
9. Importance of familiarity with English money.
10. Business forms, such as checks, notes, receipts, statements, and price-lists, should be understood by all pupils of the seventh year and upward.
11. Constant repetition and drill in the use of the four fundamental rules.

Under the second heading ("Processes of Solution") I endeavored to determine the differences existing between the schoolroom practice and that of the outside world. I was surprised, at the general agreement between the two. In many cases the writers frankly acknowledged there was no difference in method. In others there were radical differences, and, while some of the replies received have not yet been fully analyzed, I believe I have summarized below the chief features of importance.

1. Interest on all sums for any periods of time less than two hundred days should be solved by what is called the "bank method," in which the principal is multiplied by the number of days, the decimal point removed three places, and the product divided by six. Many businessmen, however, prefer the "sixty-day method," by which 1 per cent. of the principal equals the interest for sixty days at 6 per cent.

2. In many lines of business the arithmetic seems to be of a kind that to a large degree is specialized, and does not admit of ready reproduction for class-room work. The problems received were often very technical, and presented such difficulties that it seems hopeless to expect adequate use of the same in school. The most we can hope to do is to properly prepare the pupils for this higher work by impressing upon them the importance of a thoro knowledge of fractions, and also leading them to attain the power to "think in percentage."

3. Retail merchants in all branches of trade seem to agree that all the arithmetic a boy needs is the practical ability to handle quickly and correctly the four fundamental rules.

4. Wholesale merchants and most of the manufacturers are of the opinion that the ability to calculate interest accurately and quickly, and to handle trade discounts to advantage, constitutes the necessary equipment, outside of the fundamental rules. All agree that the time spent in what is called the "problems in interest," finding the rate, principal, time, etc., is wasted. Almost all the business use of interest is in what is called in most text-books the "first case," namely, to find the interest or amount.

5. Mechanics seem to have very few methods except those which are now usually taught in most of our good schools. The greater amount of all jobbing is calculated approximately, as the mechanic has figured so often in his special line on certain classes of work that he reaches the results almost intuitively. It would seem wise, therefore, to greatly enlarge the plan and scope of approximation in our school work, and in many of our problems we should insist that prior to the complete solution the child shall be required to roughly figure the approximate result. It is only in the larger contracts that mechanics do real figuring. In small jobs they rely on their experience to strike the price about right, or else, if they have miscalculated, they make it up on the next one.

6. The answers received from the plasterers, painters, paperhangers, etc., were somewhat difficult of generalization, and in a paper of this limit their full significance cannot be indicated. In the main there was harmony with our best school methods, but in many cases technical solutions were sent to me which would be of considerable value in business, but would not be desirable as part of our regular school instruction.

Probably the greatest drawback to successful work in arithmetic at the present time in our elementary schools is the inaccuracy of the children's work. The pupils are too often satisfied if their method of interpreting the problem is correct. They forget that accuracy of result is really the basic principle of this science of quantity, and if there be an error in calculation, the value of the exercise is largely vitiated.

Nothing is more discouraging to a class teacher than, after having

carefully and inductively led up to a new process, and by drawing satisfactorily upon the pupil's former knowledge to have gradually brought him to a comprehension of the new, when she proceeds to make a test to determine results, to discover that a large proportion of the class have glaring errors in calculation. One of the principal reasons for the want of accuracy is the lack of drill in the fundamental rules. I fear that in some respects the overcrowded curriculum furnishes the reason for the want of thoroughness in the mechanical equipment. In the Middle Ages arithmetic was made the first of the "quadrivium" in the course of work followed, and in what we call the modern "trivium" of "the three R's" arithmetic has generally been put last. I do not desire to urge a better place for this subject, tho I think that the large number of branches taught in most schools today largely prevents proper attention to this very important subject. We sometimes seem to be getting away from the proper twofold function of arithmetic, namely, that it should not only serve as a preparation for business equipment, but also as an educational factor of great importance in mental discipline. The elementary schools today are putting too much of the proper training in arithmetic upon the business schools and colleges, and upon the commercial departments of our high schools. The reduction in the requirements for which I have argued should produce as a corollary increased accuracy.

Many merchants strongly urge the importance of mental arithmetic as a factor of business success. From the mere artisan, who calculates the area of a roof to find the cost of tinning or painting the same, to the wealthy Wall street broker who handles Manhattan "L" stock or government bonds, watches the change on the ticker from $114\frac{3}{8}$ to $113\frac{3}{8}$, and calculates at once the amount of the necessary margin, there is at all times and in all lines of business a necessity for rapid and accurate mental arithmetic. I deem it a conservative estimate that perhaps 60 per cent. of the arithmetic of the business world is done without pen or pencil. A subject which demands such an important place in the world's experience requires an equally prominent place in the school. I am, therefore, strongly of the opinion that at least half of our school arithmetic should be mental and oral, not only because of the additional training it gives, but also from the fact that so many more problems can be covered in a limited time. At all events, oral work must precede written work, and be the apperceptive basis upon which we build. My experience as a teacher and principal leads me to believe that when mental arithmetic has been neglected by a teacher there is a corresponding loss in the mathematical ability of the class.

Careful inquiry among a large number of teachers and a tabulation of results of many tests in my own school lead me to state that 50 per cent. of the incorrect results are directly traceable to errors in the fundamental rules. So glaring has this weakness become that from time to time I

have felt compelled, in order to bring pupils to a full realization of the value of accuracy, to mark examples correct or incorrect on the basis of the answer alone, without giving any credit for correct method and an incorrect result. By repeated warnings and punishments of the above nature I am beginning to get in the higher grades the proper co-ordination of method and accuracy.

I think very many of our courses of study in arithmetic may fairly be objected to because of the lack of variety in the planning of the work. In many of the cities the subject of common fractions is finished even to the most complex relations before decimals are taken up. In others, denominate numbers are taught for a full term, and the poor children have *ad nauseam* all the practical applications of weights and measures. Possibly the next term percentage may be the center of attention. It is far better to carry on several topics at once, and therefore, after the preliminary stages of fractions, both common and decimal fractions should be taught co-ordinately. Very soon percentage should also be taught as a parallel subject, for the scholar should be led to see that all three processes are really similar. Not only will pleasurable variety result, but, what is more important, if the scholar is compelled to leave school at an early age, he may have acquired the fundamental nature of a large part of arithmetic. If the above method is followed, each process should be approached in such a way that the child need only grasp the main outlines, the more important details being reserved for higher grades.

Perhaps another mistake, very commonly made, is for the teacher to assist the pupils to too great an extent. They are not to be constantly taught by what has been called the "pouring-in process." Occasionally the teacher should rest and give the children a chance to assimilate the instruction. Frequent reviews, therefore, become necessary. For some reason, however, a teacher always endeavors to finish the grade requirements in arithmetic, even tho the science, geography, history, and language lessons suffer in the effort. Perhaps superintendents and principals themselves are at fault in too often making an inspection of the class in arithmetic alone, and allowing that to be taken as a standard for the other subjects. The teachers are, therefore, often in the habit of cramming their boys to pass the arithmetic examination, and the higher result, the logical training of the mind, suffers in proportion.

Let us hope that the dawn of the coming century may witness a new renaissance in arithmetic, and that, with better methods, more intelligent teaching, and courses of study more fully adapted to the children's future, there may be a wonderful improvement in the results, so that time may be saved for other branches, and yet this very important department of school work may justly do all that is demanded of it, first in the practical duties of life, and, secondly, as the natural forerunner of higher mathematics.

*PROFITABLE PUBLICITY—A STUDY OF ADVERTISING
AS APPLIED TO BUSINESS COLLEGES*

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The necessity for advertising any business, or any profession, is generally recognized, and all professional men and all business-men advertise—if not in the public prints, then in other ways; for all publicity, or that which attracts the attention of the public, is advertising. Of all the institutions of learning, the business college, the commercial college, the business institute, or the business school, whatever it may be called, has, from the very first, been the most liberal of all the school advertisers, and to this fact is largely due the success of these colleges; for by this means the advantages of a business education have been so placed before the fathers and the mothers of this country that they have come to demand that their sons and their daughters shall be practically educated; and in comparatively a few years after their organization we find these schools in every city of importance in every state in the union.

When we consider the difficulties that these schools have met and overcome; the sneers of the educated; the trouble in convincing business-men of the fact that business-college graduates are competent book-keepers, stenographers, and office men; the fact that they have not been endowed by church or state, but have relied entirely upon the merit of the work done, we can but felicitate ourselves at what has already been achieved.

We now find the business colleges full of students and prosperous, the educational value of these schools more generally recognized, and their graduates sought by business-men. These satisfactory conditions exist because primarily the business colleges, as a whole, have given the business training needed. Yet without advertising, to bring before the people the advantages of these colleges, they could not possibly have attained the measure of success which they have.

A business college is, first of all, an educational institution, and the greatest care should be taken in the arrangement of the course of study, and in the selection of teachers; but having secured good teachers, and having the proper curriculum, the progressive business-college man naturally looks for the best means of informing the people about his school. He has, in fact, all kinds of advertising schemes placed before him, and it is necessary for him to plan carefully his advertising and to keep a careful check on it, or else he will find that, instead of increasing his business and making money, he is losing it.

Altho there are no set rules that can be given to insure success as an advertiser, there are some few principles which, if adhered to, should bring success, and generally do. There are many kinds of

advertising which, altho largely patronized, do not return 10 per cent. of the amount expended. Among the most popular of these unprofitable mediums is the fake newspaper, which makes a specialty of write-ups, and which does not charge one cent, so they say, for the write-ups, but the length and strength of which, nevertheless, is governed by the number of copies of the papers containing the write-ups that are purchased. Of all the forms of newspaper advertising this is the poorest. Thousands of dollars have been spent by business-men and business schools for this form of advertising, and cents have not been returned where dollars have been spent. This kind of advertising hardly deserves the name of newspaper advertising, for oftentimes these papers have no subscribers, the circulation being simply the number of papers that are sent out by those who have been induced by the oily-tongued solicitor to have write-ups of their business. And yet some papers which are supposed to be reputable publications send out prepared notices, lauding to the skies institutions of which they really know nothing, but offering to print these notices as editorial matter for a consideration. School advertisers have been caught in the past, and probably will be in the future, by this species of advertising, for the average man is only too ready to believe all of the nice things that can be said concerning him and his business or profession. And if the paper very liberally offers to insert a cut of himself without charge, he is apt to think that he is a very fortunate fellow indeed. He reads the honeyed words about himself and his school with a growing sense of his importance, and thinks that all the world reads it too; but, poor fellow, he is sadly mistaken. Not one in a hundred more than glances at it, and the chances are that the few who do read it say: "That is a good puff; I wonder what it cost." An occasional write-up in a good newspaper may pay, but there are so many other ways of spending money judiciously that even such write-ups should be few and far between.

Advertising in theater programs, church-entertainment programs, and, in fact, all forms of program advertising is a poor way of spending good money. This form of advertising would be all right if purchased at the right price, but the price charged is out of all proportion to the circulation. Occasionally it may be necessary as a matter of policy to insert your "ad" in a church-social program or a program of a charity entertainment, but make no mistake; charge the expenditure to "charity" and not to "advertising."

Advertising in railroad time-tables, in booklets prepared by traveling advertising solicitors for banks and trust companies, which necessarily have a limited circulation and do not contain matter of sufficient interest to be kept; in hotel registers, and in classified business list-cards, are a few of the many ways of injudiciously spending money for advertising.

No one can say just what methods of advertising will pay every time. We must all make some experiments. Some kinds of advertising will pay in certain sections of the country, but will not in other sections. A baseball team will sometimes prove good advertising for a college, but if there is little interest in baseball in the section of the country where the college is located, it will prove a costly experiment. We should study our field, find out what methods pay, and drop the poor ones.

Advertising in newspapers and magazines of known circulation is the very best means that the school advertiser as well as the general advertiser can employ. These journals go directly into the hands of the people, and the advertisements, if properly written and displayed, are sure to be read, and will have a wonderful influence in promoting the prosperity of the college. The size of the "ad" and the amount of the advertising must depend upon the local conditions, and the amount that the advertiser has to invest. It is a good plan to reserve a certain portion of the receipts for advertising; just how much, each advertiser must determine for himself.

Influential daily papers, the best class of weekly papers, religious journals, and farm magazines are the publications that are best adapted to school advertising. To this list should be added the magazines of national circulation, if the college conducts a correspondence department.

Be careful in the selection of your mediums. In advertising as in everything else the best generally costs a little more, tho it is the cheapest in the end. Don't advertise in a paper because the solicitor or the editor whom you happen to know is a good fellow and a good "jollier." Look upon your advertising expenditure as an investment, not as an expense. Find out the amount and the character of the circulation. Buy advertising space as you buy anything else. Having once bought it, change your "ads" often, make them attractive by cuts; and, if judiciously placed, results will be sure to follow.

Novelty advertising, or the sending out of calendars, rulers, memorandum books, book-marks, etc., is a very good adjunct to newspaper advertising, but can easily be overdone. If sent to former students, as well as to prospective students, these novelties are appreciated, and help to keep up an interest in the college after graduation.

Personal advertising must not be overlooked, for the personal influence of each member of the faculty of the school exerts a powerful influence in the upbuilding of it. The proprietor of the school should take an active interest in all of the affairs of his city, and become well acquainted with the business and professional men. He should also look after the welfare of his students at all times, and be ever willing to do what he can for them, both before and after graduation. He will thus not only have many friends, but his business will increase, for if he takes an interest in others, others will take an interest in him. Above

all other forms of advertising is the good word spoken by a present or former student. If we do good work in our schoolrooms, our schools will flourish, but they will flourish much the more if we do good work and advertise.

Before commencing any newspaper advertising, or advertising of any kind, the college should prepare its catalog, and map out carefully a plan of following up inquiries. The catalog of a school should be a true representative of the school, and it should be as complete as possible. It should be typographically perfect, printed on good paper, well illustrated and bound. It pays to spend time in the preparation of a catalog and money in publishing it. The school is judged largely by the catalog it sends out. The catalog, altho the chief factor in the securing of students, must be supplemented by personal letters, booklets, leaflets, and pamphlets, and a great deal of attention should be given to the preparation of this matter. Have a system for the distribution of your advertising. Keep a record of the matter sent out, and of the replies received. The majority of advertisers do not follow up their applications as they should. Never drop a prospective student from your list until he has enrolled with you or some other college.

Every college should avail itself of the privilege afforded by the Manderson-Hainer law, and publish a college paper, monthly or quarterly. This is the best-paying of all the advertising mediums, and should not be neglected.

Among other good mediums should be mentioned attractive cards in the street-cars, and also an occasional use of embossed signs in the surrounding country.

No one realizes more than the speaker that advertising is not an exact science. Some will succeed and some will fail, using the same mediums. The personality of the man enters into his advertising. The subject of advertising is a great study, and one to which we should all give attention. No one man knows all about advertising, and, however much a man may know about the subject, what he does not know would make a much larger book than what he knows.

In conclusion: Have a good school to advertise, and advertise it; and, if you keep everlastingly at it, success is yours.

ESSENTIALS OF MODERN BUSINESS PENMANSHIP

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A business educators' conference would be incomplete without the customary topic of penmanship. This simply goes to show that penmanship is a living and important question, that new ideas are coming to the front, so that it cannot be settled for all time. The style of writing used

twenty-five years ago would be entirely unsuitable at the present time ; likewise the methods of instruction in use then would be inadequate today. We are told that there is no progress, no advancement in penmanship ; yet, if we compare the writing of a quarter-century ago with that of today, we are at once impressed with the marvelous advancement made, especially in speed. Indeed, I am safe in saying that in no other of the elementary branches has there been greater progress made than in penmanship. There is a marked difference between the writing of even six years ago and the writing of today. If I understand the object of this meeting, it is to discuss ways and means for the adjustment of this useful art to the needs of everyday business life.

What are the essentials of modern business penmanship ? The first essential I wish to mention is, as of old, *legibility*. We cannot get away from this. The sole object of writing is to record our thoughts in such a manner as to recall them readily. But while legibility still holds the first place in importance, the degree of legibility has undergone a marked change. When we speak of legibility now, we do not mean absolutely accurate and painfully drawn-out letters, but merely readable letters. Every letter should be formed accurately enough so that it is unlike any other letter. Each letter in the alphabet has at least one strong mark which sets it apart from every other letter. Point out and emphasize that mark, and little or no time needs to be devoted to form study. Take *a* as an illustration. The only other character which resembles it, and which causes illegibility, is *o*. The cause of the illegibility is in the omission of the straight downstroke. If we show the student that the last part, three strokes, in *a* are merely the letter *i*, he will never confuse *a* and *o*. Point out in a few words that part which gives a letter its individuality, and use the writing period for writing.

The student should spend less time on the practice of letters, and more on words and sentences. The difficult part in writing a neat page is not the forming but the connecting of letters. I know that a great deal of time is wasted, or at least unwisely spent, in repeating a letter again and again after a legible form has been obtained. Writing, in order to be valuable, must be automatic. The muscles must act independently of conscious volition. This can be accomplished only after much practice. If the time is spent on letters, the muscles will fail to perform the work automatically when new turns and new movements, which are sure to come in words and sentences, are met.

Before dismissing this topic I wish to call attention to a mistake which is frequently made by the teacher, and which does a vast amount of harm. Instead of using and developing the knowledge and skill the student possesses when he enters school, he is frequently required to change to an entirely different style. I admit that the student often comes with forms unsuited to a rapid business writing, and in that case

he should be advised to change; but if he comes with letters suitable for all practical purposes, he should not be required to change merely for the sake of uniformity. In nearly every instance the teacher gets better results, in the very limited time the student comes under his instruction, if he develops that which the student already possesses, rather than in attempting to tear it down and build up something entirely new. I know there is a great temptation for the teacher to have every student adopt a certain style of letters, honestly believing that it is better than anything ever before written. We should not ask every student to adopt the same style of letters. Let the requirement be legibility and ease of writing. The point I wish to make is: use and develop that which the student has.

The second essential is *rapidity*. This is based entirely upon the proper movement. In business writing movement is perhaps more important than form, because without a rapid and free movement writing has no commercial value. Penmanship has passed from the domain of a fine art to a useful art; consequently we must measure its value and consider its merits as based on utility only. Most people write legibly. The student that comes to your school writes legibly. Your janitor can write legibly, yet you would not want him to do your writing. The man who works on the road for a dollar a day can write legibly, but no one will employ him as a bookkeeper, or a clerk, or in any capacity where the pen is used to any great extent. His writing has no commercial value—it lacks movement, it lacks the selling quality of writing. If we obtain legibility and freedom in our writing, we have reached the goal toward which every commercial student should strive.

Ease of writing, which is usually given as another essential, is the outgrowth of a free movement; it is the test of the proper movement. The hand becomes tired and cramped because the muscles used are too small and too weak. To write with a free and vigorous movement is simply to write with a set of muscles capable of doing the work quickly and easily. In the finger movement the muscles of the forearm and the hand are used; in the forearm or muscular movement the muscles of the upper arm are used. It is not my purpose to condemn finger movement, because it is indispensable when a high degree of accuracy is necessary, and it is the only available movement which a child can use when beginning to write. But pure finger movement has no place in business writing. Nature never intended that the small muscles of the forearm and of the hand should do all the heavy work, because we find a set of strong muscles in the upper arm which are admirably adapted for that work. The true test of the forearm movement is the ability to slide the hand across the paper while writing, without stopping, a distance of not less than seven inches. The sign of the finger movement is the frequent change of position. Instead of having the hand gliding on the fingernails across the paper, it is lifted across. Give the student free movement,

and he has mastered the art of business writing. Rapidity and ease of writing depend upon the continuity of the movement. Not that it is essential to write a long word or several words without lifting the pen, but it is essential to have the ability to write across the page without changing position. In this age, when giant intellects are straining every nerve to annihilate time and space, nothing less than this winged-like movement will answer for modern business penmanship.

Various methods have been employed to develop this much-prized muscular movement. I have no sympathy with the run-to-seed movement theory. Like all good things, this has been abused. The greater part of the practice period should not be spent on intricate and meaningless movement exercises. As a great deal of time is wasted in the practice of the letters alone, so likewise in the practice of useless movement exercises. I never knew a student who could not, after a very short time, use this movement in words and sentences, provided wide spacing was used. Oval exercises are useful, but they should not be used exclusively. The student should be taught, as far as possible, along the line of the work which is expected of him in actual business life. Begin with wide spacing, and the proper movement is used immediately; then by degrees lessen the distance between the letters until the correct spacing has been reached. Connected letters form also excellent movement exercises; indeed, they should, to a large extent, take the place of movement exercises. But by far the greater part of the time should be devoted to the practice of words and sentences.

Do not develop movement without applying it. The ability to strike off large capitals does not imply the ability to execute small writing equally well. Solid page-writing, letter-writing, etc., should be the test of applied movement, rather than large fantastic capitals. It is the steady swing across the paper which should be the goal of every teacher and student. The ability to write a neat page is not the result of practicing single letters, nor the practice of many movement exercises, but it is the result of page-writing. Most students upon leaving school are deficient in this, and, as their writing is not judged by a few words only, but by the letters they write, special efforts should be made by student and teacher to overcome this weakness.

Another essential to which I wish to call attention is the *style* of writing. By style of writing we understand the slant, the form, the spacing, and whatever may affect the appearance of writing. Whenever our educational publications give any space to the subject of penmanship, it is always pertaining to this part, as if it were the all-important part, whereas it is subordinate, and entirely dependent upon movement and form. The style of writing is determined by the movement used in producing it. The typical schoolboy and schoolgirl hand bears the stamp of finger movement upon it, but as soon as a different movement is used this

juvenile appearance will vanish. Since the proper movement to use is the forearm movement, and since the style of writing is determined by the movement, it would be a waste of time to go into a minute discussion. To speak of the merits of slant and vertical, simplified, running-hand, or any other style, without treating it from the standpoint of movement, is threshing empty straw. I presume we all agree that one slant cannot be insisted upon for all. When a student asks me which I prefer, or which he should use, I give him the limits, and then let him select his own slant. These limits are 45° and 90° . Writing at an angle of less than 45° is illegible, while above 90° is awkward, slow, and unsuitable for business purposes.

If we teach the proper movement and position, the slant will take care of itself. As I mentioned before, the one true test of proper movement is the ability to slide the hand across the paper a distance of not less than seven inches. This can be done only when the forearm is at right-angles to the line of writing. Experience proves that if this position and movement are used, ninety-nine out of one hundred persons will write a slant hand at angles varying from 50° to 80° , and even 90° .

Vertical writing has done a great deal to improve slant writing. We see less of the wild and reckless writing of former years. Vertical writing, as taught and practiced by nine-tenths of those who use it, is more like drawing than writing, and that of course is very favorable to legibility. This very necessary element of writing has found its way into slant writing more than ever before. Let us take the best from vertical writing, incorporate it into slant, and the results will be a more perfect handwriting. There is no possibility that vertical writing will crowd out slant writing. It is praised by those whose vision is bounded by one essential, legibility. They measure the value of writing by that one standard. Those who make extravagant claims for it usually know very little of the other side.

The ideal style of business writing is that which combines with legibility the greatest degree of rapidity and ease. Rapidity is retarded by unnecessary lines, and by large and complicated letters. To overcome this, simplified writing has been brought forward. The progress during the next few years in business writing must be along the line of simplifying the present style. The enthusiastic advocate of simplified writing sounds its praises in the loudest terms. But, as it is written at present, the simplified is too simple, too brief. A beginner would not write it with any other than the finger movement. The most abbreviated of the simplified and the most extended of the old-time slant represent two extremes which must be harmonized to reach a happy medium.

The agency which determines more than any other the character of our writing is the copy which is placed before the pupils in public and private schools. We have copies written by engravers and by penmen.

The former aim at accuracy and mechanical perfection, the latter write the copies in conformity with the ability of the students and the business requirements of modern times. Hand-engraved copies are, at the best, but stiff, formal, uninspiring, and frequently impossible patterns to follow; while pen-written or photo-engraved copies are inspiring—they come down to the student's level. One of the most hopeless conditions in the public school is the hand-engraved copy, not even written for the engraver by a practical penman, but merely put together by a mechanic. No country in the world has so many and such skillful penmen as the United States. Why is this not recognized? What class is more competent to write the copies and arrange the work than the penmen themselves? The commercial teachers, and especially the penmanship teachers, should take more interest in the writing done in the public school. With an earnest desire and a united front we ought to revolutionize the writing in the United States.

The national characteristics of a people are, in a large measure, reflected in their handwriting. These characteristics are indelibly engraved in their chirography, and can be changed only when the habits, customs, and occupations change. Compare the handwriting of the Europeans with that of the Americans, and the difference will speak volumes to all who can read. On the one side you have the set, slow, cramped writing of the Europeans; on the other, the easy, informal, flowing, and apparently hasty writing of the American. Our writing here betrays the unbounded energy, industry, and restlessness so characteristic of the people. • Stand, if you will, on the Brooklyn bridge, and watch the restless crowd surging to and fro in their endeavor to reach their destination as quickly as possible; and you wonder no more why our writing is so different from that of other people. We can no more adopt their handwriting than we can use their habits, customs, and modes of living. Yet this is what we are from time to time asked to do. We must continue in our own style. We have nothing to learn in writing from abroad. To preserve it as a national handwriting, and to press the national stamp deeper upon it we need but to adhere to the essentials of good writing: legibility, rapidity, and a suitable style. We lead the world in writing, as we do in commerce, invention, and civilization.

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD STUDY

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The department was called to order at 3:30 P. M. in German Artillery Hall, by Vice-President Thomas P. Bailey, Jr., of Berkeley, Cal., in the absence of the president.

In the absence of the secretary of the department, Mrs. Ida M. Lining was chosen acting secretary.

The first address was by Dr. Thomas P. Bailey, Jr., associate professor of education, University of California, on "Some Difficulties of Child Study."

Miss Marion Brown, principal of the City Normal School, New Orleans, La., read a paper on "Is there a Nationality Problem in Our Schools?"

The discussion of the papers presented was deferred until the next session, and the department adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12

The session opened at 3:30 P. M., Vice-President Bailey in the chair.

The minutes of the preceding meeting were read and approved.

Superintendent T. B. Hanby, of Georgetown, S. C., presented a paper on "Some Practical Results of Child Study."

Superintendent H. E. Kratz, of Sioux City, Ia., was under appointment to present a paper on "A Study in Musical Interpretation." Mr. Kratz was not present, but his paper had been sent to the secretary of the department.

A motion prevailed that the Executive Committee be requested to include the paper in the published proceedings.

A discussion of the papers read then followed.

The following were elected officers of the department for the ensuing year:

President—Thomas P. Bailey, Berkeley, Cal.

Vice-President—Miss Marlon Brown, New Orleans, La.

Secretary—Patterson Wardlaw, Columbia, S. C.

The department adjourned.

IDA MARSHALL LINING,
Acting Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

SOME DIFFICULTIES OF CHILD STUDY

THOMAS P. BAILEY, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, CAL.

For several years a wave of child study has been rolling over the country. It has stimulated and freshened our interest in the children;

it has left behind a rich deposit of new ideas, and new practical methods based upon them. Perhaps the wave has been a trifle too violent at times, and has taken some people off their feet. Now that it has settled into a steady flow we need to ask ourselves how we may best make child study practically useful.

Without a theoretical and practical knowledge of his patient's character a physician cannot hope to help a man to health. Without a sound and intimate knowledge of the child's character, in all its manifoldness and unity, the teacher cannot intelligently aid his young friend to retain his childlikeness, to put away childish things, to have and to hold his heritage as son of man, to work for his living and live for his work.

The one thing needful in character study is the habit of continued and continuous observation. There can be but few scientific investigators of human nature or artistic painters of character, but there may be, and must be, many close and careful observers of things human and childlike. To study the child as if he were a distinct species is to lose the advantages of the comparative method and to deprive ourselves of the growth in grace that comes to us from sympathetic intuition born of our love for the children. Better is it to know nothing of the plant's structure and functions, but to love its beauty thru a heart-knowledge thereof, than to lose the love in order to gain the knowledge. Better still that love and knowledge should kiss each other. The habit of observation combines insight and intuition. It may become a pleasure; it must be a duty. A little observation every day is vastly better than a great heap of notes once a week. Life is not life if not continuous, and child study must be a life-process. "Keep at it," is the first canon of character study. Study yourself; study other grown-ups; study character thru literature and history; study the children at home, at school, everywhere; but keep at it! Observe and compare, and let time gradually broaden and deepen your knowledge thru love. To study a man or child is not to stare. There must be no impertinence, not even with oneself. Let us study those most that we love best; let us love those best that we study most. The best observers are not the starers-at, but the storers-up. The inner character is seen with the inner eye. The outer eye is often surpassed by the eye of the camera.

The best test of the value of our child study is in its practical application. Do we know people better? Then we should be able to deal with them more tactfully. Mere observation becomes tedious. The best practical result is the ability to see and feel more delicately and truly without looking, without consciously trying to observe. Only "Keep at it!" will secure this result.

The "three-minute toothache cure" sort of thing is not for character study. As in prayer you strive to have yourself changed, not God, so in child study the growth of grace is in you, not in psychological laws.

There is time for only a brief mention of some of the difficulties of character study. The chief trouble is lack of patience and continuity. Then there are the dangers of haste and delay. When we are in a hurry we mutilate facts, we make crude, unconscious generalizations, we distort perspective by noting that which is striking and failing to record explanatory circumstances and modifying facts. When we delay, memory plays us false. The sharp edge of the facts is blunted. Sleep over a purpose, but not over a fact to be recorded. The better educated you are, the greater danger that your "mechanical memory" may play you false. The worst witnesses are the philosophers and the feeble-minded. It were well for some people did they shorten their prayers, lengthen their patience and perseverance, sharpen their wits and their pencils.

Many observers jump at conclusions before they can walk up to plain facts. Don't suppress your conclusions, but put them in brackets where they can't do any harm. Use question-marks frequently where you are not exactly sure of your notes. The most usual fault of child-study notes is lack of detail. Yet character shows itself ordinarily in small things. The great acts of life are nodal points or joints, the little things come between the points. We prize Boswell's *Life of Johnston* because of its minute details. Note the commonplace; the extraordinary will note itself. Habits, instincts, trends, attitudes, dispositions, temperaments—these are the important things of character. And we find them in the "light of common day." Let us remember that nothing is commonplace. The child-study vision is that of the sheet let down.

Another difficulty in child study is the lack of wide culture in the observer. With every increase of culture and insight comes a quickening of our interest in the eternal humanly. Mere drudges, pedagogical or domestic, are apt to take up child study as a passing fad or fancy. The educated man or woman realizes that each human character is a microcosm, the highest and most inclusive product of evolution, the grandest and most dreadful revelation of the spirit of God.

Last of the difficulties we shall consider here is the mania for publication. We often forget that the things of character are the most complex and difficult that science can study. If we study the children quietly and reverently, we shall do better for them, and be better for our study. Shall we not guard the child-heart from the public gaze? The time will come when comparative study, guided by the foundation principles of a science of character, will render soul-vivisection unnecessary. Sentimentality and cold irreverence are alike the enemies of truth.

Above all, let us not lose faith in this quiet, reverent study of character. It must be right to know better what man is, and what is in man. It must be right to know the children better, that we may love them and help them more.

IS THERE A NATIONALITY PROBLEM IN OUR SCHOOLS?

MISS MARION BROWN, PRINCIPAL OF CITY NORMAL SCHOOL,
NEW ORLEANS, LA.

The history of a man's childhood is the history of his parents and environment.—
Carlyle.

For the thousands of children of foreign parentage that now constitute so large a portion of our population the strange environment is so at variance with previous experience and traditions that their parents are no longer to be depended upon for safe guidance; hence our American schools must prepare these children for the new conditions.

A glance at our population shows that every nation under the sun has sent representatives in numbers proportionate to its distance from our shores. In some sections we find colonies have made their home with the avowed object of continuing uninterrupted their national customs or religious practices in this land whose law protects all who do not break their neighbors' heads or too frequently decimate their hen-roosts.

Every town has its German, its Italian, or its Irish colony. In the West there are Scandinavian villages; in the Southwest, perfect reproductions of old Spain.

The census of 1890 reports 32 per cent. of our entire population of foreign parentage. The native-born white population of native parents has diminished in percentage, swamped by the foreign-born influx. From 1821 to 1890 nearly 15,500,000 of foreign emigrants entered this country. From 1881 to 1890 about one-third of these millions entered our gates. The effect on social conditions and the trend of our national life is as yet discernible on only a few lines.

The vote-necessity of the politician has made the "foreign vote" a factor in practical politics. The voter whose vote has been so openly bid for on no other plea than that of former citizenship in a foreign land must have some acknowledgment of his un-American vote, so he makes a return demand in the name of his foreign nationality, usually on the schools; for there it is only children who are affected; so in one section German, in another French perhaps, must be taught thru the grades, nominally for culture or utilitarian value, in reality for political recognition.

As long as there is unused territory or demand for cheap labor, the children of these people with a different political creed and national ideal will constitute a large part of our public-school attendance.

The census of 1890 shows an enormous proportion of children of foreign parentage, as compared with the number of foreign-born adults. The last report of the United States Commissioner of Education states that, out of our population of nearly 73,000,000, 21,500,000 are of school age, of whom over 15,000,000 are enrolled in schools and 88 per cent. enrolled in the public schools.

In each nation certain strongly marked characteristics, spiritualized and intensified, seem to constitute the national ideal, typified in the national heroes. Is there an American type? It seems to me that, if we have an ideal, it is the Anglo-Saxon; the Teutonic elements, strong, masterful, land-hungry, self-controlled, imbued with a spirit of independence for all; the modicum of Celtic strain giving a fire and dash that a strenuous pioneer life has developed into push and hustle. In the adult—the law-making, law-abiding citizen, always ready to “pull up stakes” for a better cause, determined that he and his neighbor shall be mentally and morally free agents, unceasingly energetic and progressive till nervous prostration lays him low. The children—keen-eyed, restless, precocious, affectionate, even in play more or less self-controlled, ardent admirers of the “success that succeeds,” touchingly eager to leap into the arena of life to become “young Napoleons of finance,” youthful Edisons, or George Washingtons.

Today the American of pure Anglo-Saxon descent is rare, probably most numerous in the interior of the region bounded by Mason and Dixon's line, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Mississippi river. Elsewhere “Dutch and Danish, French and Spanish, mingle and vanish, in one grand conglomeration,” and of this conglomeration are most of our children. In certain districts a predominating nationality other than English gives a marked tone to the locality, as in the old Spanish, Dutch, or French settlements, or the newer western towns where the Teutonic element predominates. Country populations are more homogeneous than those of the towns, particularly the manufacturing centers. What the larger cities—New York, Chicago, New Orleans—present, the smaller places show in miniature, a mixture socially and ethnologically. In Boston, out of 1,230 boys in the Eliot School, 602 were born in Europe; the parents of 1,117 were born in Europe; only 16 could find that one of their four grandparents was born in America. In the Hancock School, of 2,542 girls over 40 per cent. were born in foreign countries, and over 38 per cent. could not speak English when they began school; the fathers of only 98 were born in America. Every nation of Europe was represented, including the Turk. One school in New York city reports 98 per cent. of its pupils unable to speak English on entering. Some years ago an emigrant ship unloaded 1,100 Italians at a New Orleans wharf; a few days later 250 children from this influx, unable to speak a word of English, were admitted into the nearest public school.

Where there is a predominating nationality, the problems of discipline and teaching are comparatively easy; with several nationalities represented perplexities are unending, and where the nationality mixture in the individual is considerable, the troubles are hydra-headed and Protean. “The boy eternal” is, in certain aspects, the same kind of a problem the world over, but when international complications arise in his individuality, a

French grandmother, or Spanish grandfather, or a still more remote English ancestor, or a German forefather, or a canny Scot may speak, in season or out of season, and not always with the tongue of angels.

A schoolroom where the Latin race predominates is always noisier, and more pervaded by a certain indefinable excitability, more subject to unexpected outbursts of feeling, than one where the more phlegmatic Teutonic element prevails. Whether it be heredity or the home influence of parents inheriting the effects of centuries of monarchical rule, there is less inherent capacity for self-restraint, greater difficulty in successful appeal to a desire for self-government—freedom always means license. With these children an autocrat, strong and unshakable in authority, is the most successful disciplinarian; when there is added power to lead to knowledge thru pleasant pathways, there is created an unbounded adoration that means blind obedience—the spirit that made an Austerlitz, but not the spirit that made a Manila Bay. Even here there are definite national differences. The Spanish child evinces a strong dislike to exertion in any form, combined with frequent unreasoning obstinacy and pride. With the taste and talent for expression for which the French nation is justly celebrated there is a quick wit, combined with a curious lack in power of sustained effort, the Romance type being more strongly marked when the descent is traceable to the south of France. When mixed with the firmer English, or its kindred Celt, the Irish, we have a pupil that is the delight of the teacher's heart and dire destruction to "perfect order."

Among the Italian children are found two distinct classes: the children of tradesmen and artisans, a thrifty, law-abiding, and ambitious class; and the children of the slaves of the padrone. Of the latter class our schools get very few, save where there is a well-enforced compulsory law. Ardent lovers of beauty, excellent in form, quick to learn a new tongue, keen at a bargain, loving music and rhythm, passionate, revengeful, proud to shine, easily antagonized, but needing to feel a strong hand at the helm.

The Irish child—warm-hearted, a hard fighter, a good hater, poetic, witty, beguiling of tongue, unsystematic in work, mischievous beyond calculation, but once roused to effort a delight to the teacher; when balanced with the steadier Anglo-Saxon, the best material in our schools; mixed with the German, frequently showing a difficult combination of unexpected fire and unreasoning stubbornness; when mixed with the French, the Celt is the balance-wheel, a capable and interesting type; combined with Italian or Spanish, the traits seldom show the good points of either type.

The various branches of the Teutonic stock show a marked similarity—steady, quiet, slow to grasp, but tenaciously retentive; tardy in developing, but "the old reliable" when hard work is on hand; a fine illustration

of the hare and the tortoise, well controlled at home; and capable of great self-restraint; when mixed with the kindred English, our steadiest and most hopeful material.

Whether due to heredity or environment, the fact yet remains that we may as well make up our minds that certain traditions will have to go when we deal with children of foreign descent. The time-honored rule to close a sentence with the downward inflection receives a death-blow in the clearly pronounced sentences of a child of French extraction; to the end of the chapter there is always a more or less pronounced rising inflection. Most Italian children seem to read with a sing-song—an indication of the rhythm that is their birthright; it is said that the American has little or no rhythm in his soul. Thru *dē, dĕ, zē, zĕ, zà, tē, tĕ, dĕr* the nationality of the struggling reader is betrayed thru the grades till *the* exists in the reader and is a factor in schoolroom utterances, tho play and out-of-school distractions weaken its force. Principals may admonish, supervisors may report, teachers may worry, but from kindergarten to college the scars remain.

At home these children hear a foreign tongue. Untaught therein, they know it only colloquially, soon come to despise it as a useless lingo, and, unless the parental wrath is heavy-handed, at ten or twelve refuse to speak anything but English—that “goes” everywhere. In dealing with these children we find that the parent who can speak American, but is unable to write in any but the native tongue, is, in the estimation of the children, many degrees above the parent who speaks only the native tongue, but considerably below one who is master of both arts. Some time ago a little Italian whose mother spoke no English referred to her as a Dago. Had a schoolmate used the same term to him, war would have been instantly declared. This knowledge on the part of these children of foreign extraction has brought about a feeling that the foreign parent is not as capable of dealing with American conditions as his children, so parental authority has become seriously weakened, and a generation of young foreign “toughs” is growing up.

The children of foreign extraction come from three classes of parents: First, those who were fairly well placed in their own land, but have emigrated only to remain long enough to accumulate a competence. While here they conform to our laws and customs in so far as they consider advisable, but always with a reservation in favor of the fatherland; the mother-tongue is the speech in the home, the children grow up with a divided allegiance and a more or less defective English. A second class have left a land where their fortunes, social or political, were at lowest ebb. They must perforce make America their home; their children have brighter prospects in the new land, for which the parents intend they shall be prepared to the best of the child's ability. A third class are the flotsam and jetsam of society which a paternal government has unloaded

on an unsuspecting friend. The product of generations of poor living, of hopeless penury, they have been assisted to relieve a teeming land of their burdensome presence. Mostly unskilled laborers, possessing little energy physical or mental, usually hovering just above or falling back into the tramp or petty criminal class, their children frequently defective physically and morally, they and their children are the greatest problems we have. The descendants of each class have not infrequently married with another nationality, and the mixed descent complicates the problem. The second generation is American-born, but, from the influence of the home, not yet thoroly United States in sentiment. Time alone can tell what the third generation will be. If it takes three generations to make a gentleman, it certainly will take three generations to make an American citizen—I have not said *voter*; that usually takes three years and an accommodating magistrate.

I propound no new proposition; the facts herein stated are well known to this audience; my purpose is to call attention to a phase of child study which my own experience has led me to believe is the master-key to the labyrinth of many a little soul.

Growing up in probably the most cosmopolitan city in this country, educated in public schools where almost every European nationality had at some time its representatives, the first years of my teaching in a district thoroly foreign in speech and custom, the study of those varied nationalities and their mixtures became a necessity and an interesting investigation; later in the high school the same elements, and consequently similar problems, presented themselves. Now these young people have come into the training school, and again the problem crops up what to do to make them capable in their turn of handling this ever-growing puzzle.

As a people we have solved so many problems that we consider ourselves perfectly capable of settling anything under the sun; and, not satisfied with the economic and political questions thrust upon us by the strangers within our gates, we have taken unto ourselves several millions of new riddles. Today the Normal Department is discussing the training of teachers for the schools of Cuba and Porto Rico; that means, added to the usual child study, the study of a curiously mixed people—the pure Spanish type, the Spanish mixed with Indian, with pure negro, and with every tinge and grade between; the Caucasian enervated by centuries of tropical climate and social dominance, having as its national proverb: “God first, diversion next, and work for donkeys.”

With the opening of this twentieth century the American eagle extends its wings over as great an extent of territory as its Roman prototype. The Roman empire was a collection of national units held together by a strong centralized power; while claiming the privileges of “*Romanus sum*,” the individual retained his language and national life untouched by the political

rule of the seven-hilled city: With us the aggregation of nationalities is in the community, in the individual, making temperament, that combination of spiritual and mental qualities—character. In youth, and often thruout life, the individual is a ferment of conflicting tendencies, the possibilities for good or evil intensified or counteracted by the ancestral heritage. As Rome brought order, peace, and personal freedom to the various nationalities in her borders, so today must the teacher endeavor for each of the ethical microcosms that we call American children; bring them to the Anglo-Saxon standard, train them to self-control that means freedom, the love of country that foreshadows the brotherhood of man, the developing personality that can take only justice and right as its standard, a consummation possible only thru knowledge of the mazes of inherited tendencies, by sympathy with the soul struggling in shackles of ancestral bondage. And, if the teacher be the inheritor of the nations of the earth—what then?

A STUDY IN MUSICAL INTERPRETATION

H. E. KRATZ, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SIOUX CITY, IA.

[AN ABSTRACT]

The chief purpose of this paper is to present a simple investigation, made in one of our high-school classes in English, in regard to the sensations or emotions aroused by music, and to point out its advantages as an exercise in English.

It was hoped that such an investigation would tend to lead the students into a deeper appreciation of that which is best in music, to cultivate in them a love for the beautiful, to enrich their emotional life, to develop the habit of introspection, and thus reveal to themselves their inner life, and in consequence help to mold and shape right character.

The students were instructed to listen to the playing of three selections on the piano, the titles of which were not given them, make notes of each selection as to what they would regard an appropriate title, its general character, what it suggested, and what feelings or emotions it aroused. Later they were to write out, as an English exercise, their impressions.

The selections played were "The Alpine Storm," by Kunkel; "Cradle Song," by Heller; and "The Harlequin," by Chaminade. These, as the titles indicate, are widely different in character and present striking contrasts. The mad pranks of "The Harlequin" were most clearly set forth, as sixty out of seventy-one correctly interpreted it. The "Cradle Song" was most difficult to interpret, because the ideas the author intended to convey were not so well marked. To meditate, to muse, to be soothed, to hear a lullaby, is to open the heart to many varying emotions.

The papers disclosed generally that the girls possessed natural views on musical matters, understood their inner selves better, discriminated more closely in their attempts to portray their feelings, than the boys.

They were also asked to describe their sensations when listening to music. Their replies indicate that a very wide range of feelings, sensations, and emotions were aroused. Some wanted to dance, while others felt nervous. Some felt their muscles twitching, while others were in a happy mood. Some were thrilled by patriotic music and were eager to do some great deed, while others wanted to run a race, etc.

Forty-one stated that they found it difficult to express their impressions aroused by the music. While the emotions are expressed with difficulty, and we often say they are too deep for words, yet, if we more frequently came face to face with our inner self, if we cultivated a closer acquaintance with these emotions, vague longings, unconscious yearnings of our souls, we should be better able to clothe our emotions with words, and also accomplish that which is of much greater value—shape our own characters more intelligently.

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1900

The department was called to order at 3:30 P. M. in the College of Charleston by Acting President C. B. Wilson.

On motion, N. A. Harvey was elected secretary *pro tempore*.

On motion, a Committee on Nominations was appointed as follows:

Eugene W. Lytle, of New York.

L. Dwight Arms, of New York.

William C. A. Hammel, of Maryland.

The following program was rendered:

President's address, "How can Advanced Science in the College and University and Nature Study in the Graded Schools be Rendered More Mutually Helpful?" by President C. B. Wilson, of Westfield, Mass.

"Nature Study for the Graded Schools," by Miss Katherine Dolbear, high school, Holyoke, Mass.

After discussion the department adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13

Meeting called to order by Mr. Charles Newell Cobb, of Albany, N. Y. The Committee on Nominations presented the following report:

For *President*—N. A. Harvey, West Superior, Wis.

For *Vice-President*—Charles B. Wilson, Westfield, Mass.

For *Secretary*—Charles Newell Cobb, Albany, N. Y.

The report was adopted and the secretary instructed to cast the ballot of the section for the persons nominated.

Resolutions were adopted extending the thanks of the department to the College of Charleston for the use of its building; to the local committee for its very efficient arrangements for the meeting; and to the local press for its very full reports of the proceedings of the section.

The section adjourned.

N. A. HARVEY,
Acting Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

HOW CAN ADVANCED SCIENCE IN THE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY AND NATURE WORK IN THE GRADED SCHOOLS BE RENDERED MORE MUTUALLY HELPFUL?

CHARLES B. WILSON, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WESTFIELD, MASS.

The question for our consideration this afternoon evidently implies that the existing relations between advanced science and nature work are

not quite what they should be, that they are capable of being improved, and that such improvement ought to be forthcoming. Before we can intelligently discuss any method of improvement, however, we must first decide wherein the present relations are at fault, and what are some of the chief causes which have brought about this family discord.

The present paper will be confined to these preliminary questions, leaving to those who follow the discussion of means and methods.

First, then, is there any real lack of harmony between these two kindred divisions of science teaching? I answer without hesitation, Yes; and the differences are greater than is commonly supposed—so great, in fact, that they are a serious obstacle to any true progress. Ask the college professor what he thinks of the nature work in our graded schools, and altho his inbred courtesy may restrain the sneer or the smile, yet his love for the truth will compel him to reply, as many of them do, that he would prefer to have his students receive no training at all rather than the one which they get in the graded schools.

He feels somehow that this nature work is mere child's play, and he considers it worse than useless, because it inculcates into the child's mind wrong principles, unscientific methods, and inaccurate data at the very period when that mind is most plastic and most receptive for such things. And when error has once gained possession of the field, especially if it be backed by some published authority, and is easier to understand or pleasanter to believe than the scientific truth, it is sure to persist long after it has been thoroly disproven.

The college professor is not altogether wrong in this position which he has taken, for I can testify out of my own personal experience, both in college and, since then, in an institution which requires for admission practically the same grade of work as the college, that many of the pupils seem to retain of their preparatory work in science only a loose and inaccurate method of working and a meager stock of facts, unscientifically arranged, many of which were long ago proven to be false. It is the same old story: error remains long after the truth has been forgotten. Let me give you one or two up-to-date illustrations selected at random from our entrance examinations held a fortnight ago. In physiology the candidate was required to—

Write upon any one of the following topics, in accordance with a plan of your own, carefully selecting four or five points for treatment before you begin to write.

The topic selected was the brain, and the following is the verbatim treatment of it by a high-school graduate from a large Massachusetts city:

The cranium extends from the upper part of the eye to the back of the neck. Situated in the cranium is the brain. Brain is of the greatest help to mankind. A person possesses a good brain when he can remember events readily. The hair serves as a protection to the brain. It is pretty well developed in adults, while in infants it is not, so the throbbing of the brain is distinctly heard. One of the greatest mistakes one makes is to

overcrowd or tax the brain. There is a certain limit to everything, and when one finds that he is overtaxing the brain he should cease and thus prevent what might be serious.

Well, she "ceased" at that point, and, whatever else may be said, she certainly followed the instructions to the letter and was entirely original in her treatment.

Again, in physics the questions were asked: "In what important respect does the behavior of water in passing from the liquid to the solid state differ from that of most substances?" and: "What important practical results follow from the fact that water behaves as it does?"

In answer to the first of these questions another graduate of a city high school writes: "Water in passing from a liquid to a solid state changes its form and keeps the same color, and can be melted back again to its original form."

She neglects to state, however, in which of these respects it is peculiar. In answer to the second question the same girl writes: "Water behaving in this manner is of great importance. It can be melted easily when needed."

As a second important practical result another girl adds: "When a body of water freezes in an inclosed vessel it bursts the vessel when it thaws." A third states that "Water expands and contracts evenly. Otherwise it could not be used in steam-cars, or in the ventilating of houses and rooms."

In physical geography one of the optional topics was: "The atmosphere, its variations in weight and in watery vapor, and what causes them; some of its regular or uniform movements."

This is one of the answers received:

Atmosphere weighs fifteen pounds to the square inch. The weight varies; it is sometimes high and sometimes low. The watery vapor varies from fog to hailstones caused by different changes in the temperature. Some of its regular movements are the seasons, and day and night.

Of course such pupils as these were rare exceptions, but they were graduates in good and regular standing from city high schools, and the answers which they presented were the combined result of their nature work in the graded schools and their science course in the high school. When the college professor meets with similar products of the same science courses, as he surely must, he cannot be censured if he claims that there is something radically wrong in the method of teaching.

But the professor is at fault when, as a result, he prefers to abolish the nature work altogether. That is no kind of a remedy for the evil. It may bring to him students whose minds are free from error and inaccuracy, but at the same time those very powers of the intellect which he most wishes to employ will be so dwarfed and stunted thru disuse that they never can attain to anything like their full stature of perfection.

As well might we of the normal schools advocate the abolition of penmanship in the common schools because the majority of our pupils still come to us with the old slant writing instead of the vertical. No! If the nature work and the advanced science do not harmonize, then change the one or the other, or possibly both, but do not abolish either.

On the other hand, ask the teacher of nature work in the lower schools what she thinks of the advanced science in the college and the university, and she will tell you at once that it is far beyond her comprehension. She looks upon it as something very much to be desired under favorable circumstances, but also as something of no immediate benefit in her present occupation. She can easily acquire the fundamental facts and principles which she uses in her everyday teaching, but this advanced research is so intricate in its arrangement and so full of bewildering technicalities as to be entirely beyond her grasp, to say nothing of its being incomprehensible to the children.

Consequently, it seems to her like a mere waste of time to undertake any of it. There is much that can be said in favor of such a position. Without disparaging in the least the charm of the characteristic accuracy of scientific description, it is safe to say that much of the advanced work is pretty thoroly concealed beneath a thick covering of technicality. Very few scientists possess the rare faculty, like Agassiz and Darwin, of expressing the most profound truths in language so clear and simple that even "he who runs may read." And no teacher can be blamed if she finds much of this advanced work wholly uninviting and very difficult to understand.

But to conclude, in consequence, that it is of no immediate benefit in her teaching is a grievous blunder. As well might one argue against a bank account as something requiring long and strenuous labor for its possession, and something of no immediate benefit in everyday life. We are not to be caught by any such a specious argument, for we realize too well that a bank account, however small it may be, is a fund upon which we can fall back in time of need, and from which we can draw a continuous revenue for present use. Every teacher should have such a fund of knowledge over and above what she uses in her teaching. And it is sure to make itself apparent in more ways than one. You need not remain long in a schoolroom before it is abundantly manifest whether the teacher is working up to the ragged edge of her knowledge or not. If she is, there is the constant danger of making a misstep and falling over—in fact, this is sure to happen sooner or later. But if she possesses a consciousness of reserve strength, she will show an ease of manner and a command of circumstances which is most delightful, and which insures success from the very start. The teacher who would succeed with her nature work must know something of advanced science, and the greater her reserve fund of such knowledge, the larger will be her working

income, the more pleasing her appearance while teaching, and the easier and more complete her success.

I trust that you will agree that I have stated the case fairly and impartially. Fortunately we can already find numerous exceptions: advanced scientists who are generously devoting their superior knowledge to the betterment of the common-school nature work; and, on the other hand, many a humble teacher who gives freely of her precious vacation time at the college or university summer school, in order that she may become the better prepared to teach the coming year. But these are as yet only exceptions, and the attitude which they exhibit toward scientific progress simply emphasizes the lack of a kindred spirit elsewhere. Admitting, therefore, that the relations between these two sister-divisions of science are not as conducive to real progress as they should be, let us look for the causes. We must diagnose the disease before we can make any rational suggestions as to a tonic or a remedy.

The first cause is the one which it seems to me will be the hardest to eradicate, because it has such a deep hold upon our human natures. Starting away back in the days of Cain, it has been handed down faithfully from generation to generation ever since. It may be called innate selfishness, and in science teaching it manifests itself in considering our own pet subject as the center of the educational system, around which all the other members should revolve, and to which they must be subservient. This same selfishness is cropping out continually in our daily lives, and we may gain valuable suggestions from our experience with it there. If there is one thing more than another which characterizes these closing years of the century, it is the great principle of concentration—concentration in labor, in capital, in manufactures, in political and national supremacy; and even in population, for the census returns show that the country is moving slowly, but steadily, toward the cities. Whether the resultant unions and combinations are to uplift or degrade humanity in the coming century depends, I believe, upon a single issue. So long as everyone works for self, and self alone, all combination must fail miserably. But success is insured the moment each man honestly endeavors to secure the greatest good for the greatest number, himself included. We find the same concentration in our school curriculum. Year after year witnesses the addition of new courses of study, and often of entire new departments. If anyone of these courses is to achieve a lasting success, it must work not for self-aggrandizement only, yielding compulsory assistance and begrudging even that, but it must stand ready at all times to lend a helping hand, especially to fellow-courses in the same department. The first thing for each of us to do, therefore, if we would really better the existing relation between science and nature study, is to learn that neither our own pet science nor any other single subject can ever become the center of our educational system. It is far

broader than that. In the words of Dr. Hodge: "Human life itself, human character, human power to do, human happiness, must form the main trunk." And our special studies, however much we may fondle and admire them, can never be anything but the branches and roots of this main trunk, of no use except as they make life the better worth living. Just as soon as we comprehend this truth and begin to put it in practice we shall find all relations improving.

Another cause for disagreement lies in the fact that we regard the lower schools as a fitting course for college.

We could not make a more serious mistake. The college can never stand as a goal for common-school education, but is itself only another and a higher means toward the one common end of all instruction, the formation and uplifting of human character.

This is the noblest end in the whole world and is well worthy of our best efforts. With such an end in view, if we find that the work done in the lower schools is not at the same time the best preparation for college, then the sooner the college requirements are changed the better. This mistaken idea of fitting for college instead of fitting for life leads to all sorts of other blunders. In seeking to determine the requirements for college entrance the quantity of work done has been receiving too much attention. There may be studies in which the amount of ground covered should be a primary requisite, but science is not one of them. The field covered by any science is practically boundless and includes enough to occupy a student for several lifetimes. No one can hope to obtain more than a fragment of this knowledge during the years spent in the common schools. How foolish, then, to quibble over the size of that fragment, as tho that were of first importance!

Let us learn wisdom from our geological friends. One of them stands before a whole mountain of rock, of which he wishes to secure a sample for subsequent analysis. Is his first thought to measure and figure and plan in order to determine where he can secure the largest fragment, or how he can obtain one of a given size? By no means; he looks first at the *quality*, and not the quantity; and so long as the fragment is large enough to furnish sufficient material for analysis, he cares very little about its actual size. But he does search long and carefully, and, if he be a true geologist, he takes every precaution to secure a fragment that will fairly represent in quality the entire mass. And the sooner we do the same thing in our science teaching, the sooner we shall be ready to consider ways and means of establishing more complete harmony.

Another great mistake is the supposition that true science cannot be taught in the common schools because the pupils are not mature enough to think. Is this process of thinking, then, something that comes only with maturity, like the right of franchise? Or is it something which

suddenly bursts upon us full-fledged, like a mushroom growing in a single night? No one thinks of hesitating to employ the child's perception, imagination, and memory. But the deepest reasoners in psychology tell us that no one of these three faculties can be employed without bringing into use also the fourth, reason.

At all events, it is a little singular that the first three faculties should not merely be capable of action, but should demand frequent exercise in order to develop properly, while the fourth is to lie dormant thru more than half the period of development. Is it not rather like every other power we possess, bodily or mental, weak and in constant need of direction during its incipient stages, but developing slowly and steadily under proper exercise to full maturity? Indeed, I think you will agree that we may go a step farther and say that, unless it is thus developed by exercise during childhood, it can never attain its full stature at maturity, but must always remain stunted and dwarfed. It is true that many of our common-school pupils *do* not think, but it is by no means because they cannot, but rather because their thinking powers have become degenerated thru disuse, or have been smothered beneath incessant memory work. The experience of every teacher shows that even very young scholars can and do think. They have been known on occasions to think too much, and their thoughts are always remarkably clear and straightforward. The child has not yet acquired the art of shamming, of evading the truth, or of dodging the issue, which stands us older people in such good stead. Consequently the frontal lobes of the child's brain are in the best possible condition to do good, clean work.

Where can you find purer or more elevating concepts than those of childhood? The child's mind has not been tarnished and corrupted thru contact with the world as ours has been. And if any among us are to think God's thoughts after him as we study the wonderful beauty and design in nature, surely the child has an equal chance with the philosopher and the scientist.

A fourth cause is to be found in the immature condition of nature work at the present time. In other departments we have come to recognize that the younger and more undeveloped the pupil, the greater the knowledge and skill required on the part of the teacher. In most places kindergarten teachers now command a higher salary than those in primary grades.

There is no question that this is the correct principle, and it ought to be carried farther, as it surely will be in the near future. But it has taken us a long while to reach this sensible conclusion, and in our science teaching we can as yet find no trace of such an advance. We are still fifty years behind the times in this particular; for the primary teacher is considered capable of presenting her nature work acceptably, when she herself has received only the merest rudiments of an education in

such matters. It is practically a repetition of that old state of affairs when a teacher who had proved incompetent in the higher grades was still considered capable of teaching a primary school. That fallacy has long been dead, and the sooner we get rid of this successor to it in our nature work, the quicker we can devise means to bring that work into harmony with advanced science, where thoro and exhaustive preparation is always demanded. If nature work is to be presented scientifically in even the primary schools, and in such a way as to lead up naturally to the advanced science of the college, there must be behind it just as full and accurate a knowledge, and just as thoro a preparation, as is demanded for other studies. The teacher must at least be able to use ordinary reference-books in science intelligently; but how few of them are capable at present of doing so? Try to imagine, if you can, a teacher attempting to present geography or arithmetic or language upon such a fragmentary knowledge as she possesses of science. Is it any wonder that the advanced scientist is inclined to look askance at such nature work?

And finally we come to the matter of text-books and nature-study outlines, and here the error is on the part of the advanced scientist. He is so busy with his special department and so wrapped up in the problems of original investigation that he can waste no time on the common schools. Indeed, he usually considers them beneath his notice; his efforts are for the college student, or at least for use in the fitting schools. Hence all science helps and outlines for graded schools are left to authors of inferior knowledge. Sometimes such authors possess superior ability, but this can never fully atone for deficiency or inaccuracy of information. Usually the ability is as inferior as the knowledge, so that the common product of the two is a book that fairly bristles with errors on every page, and often lacks even a logical arrangement.

The crying need of the present is for the specialist, the original thinker, to give us the benefit of his advanced knowledge in the way of correct facts, scientific principles, and, best of all, practical methods of obtaining and using material. Then let the science teacher give us the results of his long training and experience as to the best methods of presenting such facts and data. There have already been some attempts in this direction. Men like Professors Bailey and Comstock and Weed and Tarr have each contributed earnest efforts toward the improvement of our common-school nature work.

But the state of New York has the credit of taking the initiative in an extended and thoroly planned movement. At the instigation and under the leadership of some of the professors of Cornell University, a nature-study bureau has been established in connection with the College of Agriculture. From this bureau bulletins and quarterlies are issued regularly, and their influence is felt in many of the adjacent states.

This is a step in the right direction, and is worthy of emulation by every college and university thruout our land. When these higher institutions become thus educational centers for the science teaching of our common schools, there will certainly be far less disagreement between the two.

NATURE STUDY FOR THE GRADED SCHOOLS

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Nature study as a subject is a comparatively recent addition to the school curriculum, and as yet has not been satisfactorily introduced in most places. Is it worth spending so much time and thought upon, or may it be eliminated from the program?

Dr. Hall, of Clark University, has said, "Nature in its broad conception includes the fundamental subject-matter of all education," and that "Elementary education which does not include nature study is not truly elementary education."

If nature study is fundamental and essential, why have so many attempts to introduce it failed? Can it be lack of interest on the part of the children, or lack of aim and method on the part of the teacher, or possibly scarcity of necessary materials?

What is the character of most of the nature work at present? Classification and structure—the study of dead things. It is easier to work with dead grasshoppers than with live ones, but is it more or less interesting and profitable to the child? What does he want to know about the grasshopper—how many wings and legs it has, or what it can do? It makes little difference to him whether it has six legs or six wheels, if it will only go; and if it won't go his interest disappears. He is interested in living things, but when life is gone a mere mechanism is left—about as inviting as a broken toy. If he shows disinclination to listen and to talk on this subject, shall we say he is not interested in nature study and that nature study is a failure, or shall we conclude that the mistake is in the subject-matter which we are trying to present?

Perhaps we are expecting of the child something which his mind is not yet mature enough to comprehend. We learn from psychology and experience that logical methods are not necessarily pedagogical. The pedagogical conforms to the natural growth of the child's mind, while the logical is a consecutive arrangement of facts made by an adult mind.

A child may commit to memory many facts, but if he is unable to make any application of them, he has not been educated by the process.

Biologists tell us that the possibilities of a child depend upon nervous structure and its degree of maturity more than upon anything else. Whether it pleases us or not, we must accept this and base our pedagogy upon it.

We must no more forget to consider man's animal ancestry, and to allow for it in supplying suitable foods for his mind during its various stages of development, than to supply suitable foods for his body during its growth. The child naturally turns to the same things which were of utmost importance and interest to his ancestors—that is, to the study of living things.

If we can find out what is of interest to the child and present it in a way which appeals to him, he will become educated; but if we decide upon something which we think he ought to be interested in, and insist upon his listening to our talks and handling the materials of an object-lesson which he does not care for, his time is largely wasted and he has gained little from our efforts. Work done in the absence of interest has little or no value educationally.

Supposing the subject in hand is simple and interesting to most of the pupils, and the teacher has made a great effort to present it in a pedagogical way, and still a few fail to become interested and pay attention. Is the teacher to blame, or the pupils, or the method? The teacher has made careful preparation and is presenting the subject with the utmost simplicity. The pupil may be bright in other lessons, and yet utterly fail in this. Is he stupid, or is he not making an effort, or is he insufficiently developed, so he cannot grasp this special work?

If brain-structure is normal and sufficiently developed, it will not be necessary for him to make an effort to be interested. His interest will be spontaneous. If it is not, shall he be nagged and made to appear ridiculous before his companions? Will that hasten development of the nervous system or right the structure? If not, it is useless and will tend to harm rather than to help him. He should be let alone; and if the difficulty is on account of lack of development, time and growth will correct that; if the trouble is lack of properly nourished brain-tissue, the teacher is helpless, and no amount of effort on her part or on the part of the pupil can make up for the deficiency. This proposition is applicable to all departments of education.

Nature will not be tampered with. If we learn what her aims are and make the conditions right for her work, we are doing the best we can, and progress and education will go on at maximum speed; if we try to go against her plans, progress will be slow at least.

What are nature's aims and methods? Perhaps the first is that the human being shall be a good animal—the very highest animal because possessing the power of reason; that he shall have control of all other life on account of his great power of reason; that he shall be a moral being—able to judge wisely. This power, however, develops late, so that a child of a dozen years can neither be called moral nor immoral, but rather unmoral. He does as he is told, and knows right and wrong because he has been informed, and not from his own reason and thought.

How would nature have her animals taught? The lower animals have a power of instinct, which is almost entirely wanting in man. That is innate, and the only other way animals come to have intelligence and education is thru experience. Man is able to learn from the experiences of other men; this is the highest kind of learning. It is lacking in animals, and largely so in young children.

A child is told that the stove is hot and will burn, but is that information sufficient to keep him from putting his hand upon it? When he has once been burned he knows, and will then remember, perhaps saying, "Tove hot, burn baby," each time he goes near it for a week. That is education — nature's own method.

To perceive things with the child's own senses is to learn — to become educated. Until he enters school his education is largely of this kind, and then what a change!

In the schools, as they exist at present, it is hard to do such work in a way which will satisfy both Mother Nature and the superintendent. Sometimes very effective work makes little or no show, and the time might seem, to an outsider, to have been wasted, while really it has laid a strong foundation for all later life.

The ideal nature study for primary children is field work. With large grades it is often difficult to do satisfactory work for the first few times. Pupils are inclined to think field work means a picnic, or some kind of a Fourth of July celebration. A few words, before starting, concerning the reason for going, what to look for, and the possibility of going often, if they are able to learn in that way, gives a motive power for good behavior.

At first the study should be of all nature — nature as a whole rather than in parts; the relation and interdependence of all nature — how the plants help the animals by furnishing food and shelter, and how the animals help the plants by scattering seeds. If the children are free, they will make suggestions which the teacher can use as a basis for work. As far as possible the work should be along the lines which the children inquire about. In this way there is less danger of going beyond their interests and more chance of keeping spontaneity in the foreground. Whatever tends to lessen spontaneity tends to retard education. It should rather be encouraged along every line of work.

On their walks the children will find new flowers, and will be almost sure to ask what their names are. A local or common name should be given, not a scientific one, as the name is given only so that the child may speak of what he has found and know it another time. Attention may be called to the kind of a place in which the plant grows — that it likes plenty of sunshine, or a shady spot, or a very wet place. The children can also watch and see what kinds of animals like the different flowers. What do the honey-bees like? the butterflies? the bumblebees?

For the little children considerable time should be spent in getting acquainted with the domestic animals, so that they can appreciate the value of such animals to man, and also so that they can know what to do to keep animals well and strong and happy. Teaching of this sort should be positive rather than negative—that is, about what to do rather than what not to do.

If a wild animal can be comfortably caged and tamed by the children, the result will be interesting and instructive. It has been stated that animals which have been tamed and domesticated find life much easier than those which are at times short of food, overcome with cold, and continually obliged to fight for their existence. The process of taming is of native interest to children, and can be easily done with squirrels, bats, rabbits, and birds. Personally I do not like caged animals, but it seems to be the only way of bringing such work into the school; and, if it educates the child and does not injure the animal, it is justifiable.

It seems as if the song of a caged bird is never so sweet as that of a woodland bird, where the song rises from the midst of blossoms and floats on the fragrant air. I must still agree with Emerson, in his "Each and All":

I thought the sparrow's note from heaven,
Singing at dawn on the alder bough;
I brought him home in his nest, at even.
He sings the song, but it pleases not now;
For I did not bring home the river and sky:
He sang to my ear—they sang to my eye.

A pretty study for little children is the study of baby animals, their cradles, and how they are cared for by their mothers. Nearly all children like baby animals or baby plants. One little friend used to beg each evening to go to the paw-paw tree to see how the baby paw-paws were growing, and then to the holly tree to watch the soft, pale baby leaves unfold. Children often climb into a hay-loft and stay a long time by an old cat and its kittens.

Myths should be used in connection with the nature work, not in extreme, nor to give the child wrong impressions of life, but to allow his imagination to develop naturally and normally. Plants and animals are endowed with the same qualities as human beings by the child. Shall we tell him that plants cannot feel, and that his pets cannot reason; or shall we let him think of them in his childish way, which will gradually change to a wholesome understanding of the comparative sensibilities of all life? To rush him by the age of myth and past the childish view of life is to dwarf his soul. He is not yet ready for fine discrimination and classification.

There are numberless nature studies which are of interest for intermediate grades. One of the most successful spring subjects for these grades is toads or frogs. The eggs can be collected into a jar or pail by

the children when out for field work. At school they should be transferred to a shallow dish with large air surface. The pupils can watch the development day by day, until the tail has been absorbed and the legs have grown strong enough so they want to jump away. During the tadpole stage pond scum proves to be a suitable and easily obtainable food. The great work done by toads for man is one of the valuable lessons of nature. Nearly every child who lives out from the heart of a large city can watch toads and see what they eat, when, how much, and how they get it. The older pupils should have notebooks and keep written up their observations and discoveries about the toad. Comparison of notebooks might be made, so that each pupil could get information from every other one.

After making careful study of several forms of life, it would be profitable to have a debate on : Which is of more use to man, a robin or a toad ? instead of that which has so often been debated : Was Washington or Lincoln the greater man ?

Turtles, tortoises, and terrapins have a sort of fascination for children. They have not been observed as thoroly as the toad, so there is much to be learned, and the child can add to the world's scientific information.

The work of the bat is not altogether understood or appreciated. What is he doing when he flits about at dusk ? What does he eat—bacon ? Why does he dive down so near to the heads of observers ? Has he an innate longing to get under a hat ?

A bat was kept at school for three months, and became tame enough to be handled and fed by the children. He ate little bits of meat and drank water somewhat as a cat does. In the daytime he preferred to hang up and sleep, but at dusk became restless, and was sometimes allowed to fly about the room.

Another study upon which children are willing to spend considerable time is about bees. A beehive was fixed in one window of the school-room, so that the pupils could look into it and watch the various occupations of the busy little creature. When out of doors the pupil can get some idea of its work among the flowers by following it for a few minutes and noting whether it selects one kind of flower and visits that species only, or whether it visits each flower in turn regardless of genus and species. What does the bee get from the flower, and what does it do for the flower ? Notice how clumsily it moves when its pockets are full of pollen ! When it returns to the hive, what does it do with the pollen and nectar ?

When pupils are old enough to understand what is meant by the division of labor, they will find bee study of still greater interest. Several times the bees came into the schoolroom, but no one was stung, and they were soon gently driven out. During the cold weather, when they were fed on syrup, they became friendly enough so that I could take

them out from the hive and allow them to walk over my hands and sip up the drops of syrup placed there for them.

Some of the schools in Worcester, Mass., are doing commendable work along these lines. All the schools unite in taking the bird-nest census for the city. It is so divided that each school has a certain district upon which to work. No nests are collected until the census has been taken; which is done in the fall. The children draw maps of the district they are to work upon, and add circles wherever there are nests, marking in *r* for robin, *o* for oriole, *s* for song sparrow, etc. English sparrows are not recognized as having a right either to live there or to be counted as a part of the bird population. All others are welcomed and encouraged to build, bird-houses and food being offered as an inducement. If a nest is found which is not common, it is visited by all the pupils, and a decision made as to what kind it is. When all the district maps are done, a large one is made showing the nests of the whole city. This is compared with the census of the preceding year in order to ascertain whether or not the population is increasing. During the last few years the population of songbirds has increased rapidly.

An interesting feature of the Upsala Street School is the school garden. Vegetables are raised and sold. The money received is spent for fertilizer for enriching the ground. Children are also given seeds to plant at home. Each child tries to raise the best plant. Exhibits are held and awards offered for the best specimens. In this way pupils learn what conditions are necessary for growth, what plants need in the way of food and drink, and also protection from insect pests. Watching over and caring for the plant, seeing the leaves unfold and the fruit develop from the blossom, cannot fail to appeal to the child, who feels that it is his own plant, and that its success or failure depends largely upon his care.

Nature study should be of moral as well as mental value. We have said that the young child is not a moral, but an unmoral being. As the moral nature slowly and gradually develops, it should be guided in the right direction. In the country nature study should be taught with the aim of making the children more content with their surroundings and appreciative of the beauty which abounds.

The happiness which children get from contact with and study of nature makes the study worth while if there were no educational value in it.

Rough boys should be encouraged to tame animals. Birds and butterflies can do a great deal toward taming the boy. He will take pride in getting the little bird to eat seeds from his fingers, or in having the delicate butterfly suck up drops of syrup from his hand.

For children ten or a dozen years of age the study of reproduction of plants and animals is interesting. The morning glory may be used as a

typical plant and the fish as a typical animal. Fish eggs can be gotten at any hatchery, and, if kept in running water three or four days, will hatch, much to the delight of the children. The gelatinous substance is so transparent that each part can be seen. Two classes were given fish eggs to observe. One class averaged eleven years, the other seventeen. The younger had only their eyes to depend on, while the older had microscopes. The observations and drawings of the younger class were quite as accurate as those of the older, and the class was fairly alive with enthusiasm. Some spoke right out when the little fish snapped his tail and broke thru the gelatinous wall.

In the older grammar grades there is much to be observed about insects injurious to vegetation and also their parasitic enemies; in plant physiology the consideration of starch-making to plant and animal life; of variation in plants; something about weeds, and the struggle for existence of all life.

Our subject is biological nature studies, but a school curriculum should include the physical sciences also.

Physics has often proved a failure in grammar grades on account of the way it has been presented. When approached from the mathematical standpoint and great accuracy demanded, natural interest is lost; but if mechanical toys are used, and simple, interesting experiments performed and explained, great principles are taught, and the child is amused, interested, and educated.

Chemical principles may also be introduced, if presented in an elementary way.

Miss Proctor's little book called *Stories from Starland* is a good example of the way in which astronomy may be made interesting and profitable in the graded schools.

In all nature work there should be freedom of thought and expression.

What may the university justly expect from the graded-school pupils? (1) Natural interest preserved; (2) keen senses; (3) a clear conception of the general relation and interdependence of all nature; (4) recognition of many local plants and animals, and more or less information regarding their work in the world; (5) an intelligent understanding of the simple fundamental laws of physics and chemistry; (6) original thought and expression.

What may the graded schools justly expect from the universities? A series of accurate, brief, live books. Not a long, technical treatise on some detailed microscopic structure of the plant or animal, but a carefully written account of it as a whole, where and when it is to be found, the varying conditions which affect it, how to care for and study it, its feeding and other habits, and its useful or destructive qualities; how man can protect it, or protect himself against it.

The grade teacher of today is too busy to wade thru pages of university technicalities with the hope of finding a morsel of information. There are so many new subjects to prepare, so many cases of discipline to be skillfully treated, so much paper-correcting which cannot be entirely neglected; and all these things take time and vitality.

Cannot the university give us some books which will be an inspiration to pupils and teachers alike, to open their eyes to the common things about, the wonder and beauty of the abundance of life in the meadows, fields, brooks, and ponds?

Many text-books have recently been made which give unreliable information in quite an interesting way, and many others which give reliable information in a lifeless way. Is it impossible to make simple, accurate books which are full of life and able to impart that life to the young naturalist?

In high-school text-books we find the same holds true in most cases. The reliable ones presuppose too much maturity on the part of the pupils. Some university professors do not seem to have any idea of what a sixteen-year-old boy is, what he can do, or what he needs. They seem to be afraid of simplicity.

I have a whole table full of biology text-books for high-school work, and there is not one among them which I can use. The anatomical way in which the subjects are presented is entirely out of place. Many of the text-books of today are not far in advance of those made thirty years ago.

In one book, published in 1869, the study of mammals begins thus:

The class mammalia is definable as those which have two occipital condyles, with a well-ossified basi-occipital; which have each ramus of the mandible composed of a single piece of bone, and articulated with the squamosal element of the skull; and which possess mammæ and non-nucleated red blood corpuscles.

In a text-book published in the spring of 1900 we find the very beginning reads thus:

The grasshopper belongs to an order of insects called orthoptera. In this group of insects there is an incomplete metamorphosis during development, so that the general form of the young resembles the adult. The anterior and posterior pairs of wings are unequal. The jaws are adapted for biting.

This is the first paragraph for a beginner of the study of zoölogy. He has never heard of orthoptera, and has no idea what incomplete metamorphosis is like. The words "anterior" and "posterior" are new to him, and he will most likely decide that he does not like the study of zoölogy very well.

There is a little good material to be had. Professor Weed has written some good simple books on insect life. Dr. Hodge has written a pamphlet on *The Common Toad*, which is very helpful; and the agricultural department of Cornell University is making an attempt to furnish suitable

suggestions to teachers on nature study, in the form of a series of pamphlets. Since there is such scarcity of material which treats of nature study properly, shall we give up the study? No; let us press onward, get the children interested in the life about them, so that they will spend their spare time wandering about in the fields and woods, finding new things, making careful observations; then expressing well what they have learned.

In nature study children will always come to us with questions which we cannot answer, and specimens which we do not recognize. Above all things let us be truthful with the child, and, if we do not know, say so, offering to help him find out, or telling him, if we can, where he may get the desired information. It may be that this is impossible; in that case he should write what he can find out about the specimen, and have his notes saved for the use of other pupils who may want the information.

It is often hard to see any immediate result of nature study. If, after a year's work, the children have learned to see more on their walks, and love and respect animal and plant life, that is enough. The great result will show in the life he leads in later years. We can never know just how much the birds and flowers, the woods and bright blue skies, have done to make him gentle and patient, yet strong and manly.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1900

The department was called to order at 3:30 P. M., at the Charleston Light Dragoon Hall.

A telegram from President Edward E. Barthell, announcing his inability to attend, was read. In his absence, upon motion of Mr. Israel H. Peres, William George Bruce was elected chairman, and was also requested to act as secretary.

Mr. C. H. Parsons, of Des Moines, Ia., read a paper upon "Schoolhouse Architecture."

Mr. Israel H. Peres, of Memphis, Tenn., then read a paper on "School-Administration Problems in the South."

This was followed by a paper on "The Relation of Board and Teacher," by Dr. W. A. Hunt, of Northfield, Minn., president of the Minnesota Association of School Boards.

"School-Board Organization" was the next paper, which was read by Hon. Willis S. Ellis, of Anderson, Ind.

The chair then appointed a nominating committee, consisting of:

Israel H. Peres, of Memphis, Tenn.

James A. Foshay, of Los Angeles, Cal.

C. H. Parsons, of Des Moines, Ia.

The discussions were led by Messrs. Francis S. Coolidge, Boston, Mass.; Willis S. Ellis, Anderson, Ind.; and F. S. Venable, Asheville, N. C.

The chair then called up the report of the Committee on Nominations, which was as follows:

For President—W. S. Ellis, Anderson, Ind.

For First Vice-President—Israel H. Peres, Memphis, Tenn.

For Second Vice-President—John Ogren, Charleston, S. C.

For Third Vice-President—W. A. Hunt, Northfield, Minn.

For Fourth Vice-President—Graham H. Harris, Chicago, Ill.

For Fifth Vice-President—R. L. Yeager, Kansas City, Mo.

For Secretary—William George Bruce, Milwaukee, Wis.

For Executive Committee—Francis L. Coolidge, Boston, Mass.; C. H. Parsons, Des Moines, Ia.;

J. M. Brown, Northfield, Minn.; F. S. Venable, Asheville, N. C.; E. E. Barthell, Esq., Nashville, Tenn.

The report was adopted unanimously.

W. S. Ellis, the newly elected president, was then introduced. After thanking the department for the honor conferred upon him, he spoke of the usefulness of national gatherings of school-board members, promising at the same time his best endeavors for the continued growth of this movement.

The chair then, in the name of the department, extended thanks to the citizens of Charleston for their generous hospitality. He also extended thanks to the retiring officers, and declared the meeting adjourned.

WM. GEO. BRUCE,

Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

SCHOOLHOUSE ARCHITECTURE

C. H. PARSONS, DES MOINES, IA.

In addressing you today, I am conscious of the fact that you represent the controlling power of the public-school system of the great American republic, and my desire is so to impress upon your minds the importance of this subject that words from me may become actions by you. It is easy to come here and present any of the subjects assigned in an interesting and entertaining way; it is another thing to present a subject in such a way that it is adopted as a policy and made a line of action by one's audience; the first calls for entertainment; the last for the awakening of the mind to a danger and the presentation of a remedy. My desire is to be able to accomplish the last-named result.

The other day, as I was glancing over the official bulletin, the thought occurred to me that this entire National Educational Association, and each one of its many departments, was more or less interested in this subject of "Schoolhouse Architecture," and that all that is needed to deepen that interest is to have its true relation to the success of the work in all educational lines properly understood.

My theme is "Schoolhouse Architecture; or, The Home of the School." "Architecture is the art of building, and includes two elements, theory and practice." Theory treats of the ideal; practice deals with the possible. These two elements should always be in harmony, but, in fact, are more often found in discord, owing to conditions over which the architect has no control.

In architecture, theory should be the master, and practice should make theory possible; but in the preparation of the home of the school, practice has overruled theory and become enthroned as master, until today we see built all over our land schoolhouses, reputed to be modern, that violate in both conception and construction every known principle of correct schoolhouse sanitation. By schoolhouse sanitation I mean everything in the construction of the school building that has a bearing on the health of the child.

This subject of sanitation divides itself into the following heads: stairways, water-closets, lighting, heating, and ventilation.

In taking up the consideration of the subject of stairways, I have been surprised during the last few years in finding that many of the recent and most expensive buildings in this country have been constructed with stairways that are steep and difficult of ascent. I have entered some

buildings in which this becomes painfully apparent as you are passing up the vestibule steps to the main corridors. No stairway should exceed six inches in rise and should approach five and a half inches as nearly as possible.

All high-school work and grammar-grade work should be located in the first story of all school buildings. The reason for this becomes apparent when we remember that during these years the schoolgirl reaches one of the most critical periods of her whole life, when in many instances she is compelled to drop out of her school as the result of failing health caused by too much stair-climbing.

Where the high school is placed on the second story and the water-closets in the basement, it means a stair-climbing of from twenty-five to thirty feet, and twenty-five feet always from the outside yard.

I have often had the question asked me: "Would you put the high-school grades below and make the little children climb to the second story?" My answer is: Put the high-school and grammar grades and the first and second primary grades on the lower floors, and let the intermediate grades do the stair-climbing; for, as a usual thing, if in good health, they are at that age climbing everything that is climbable anyway.

The second sanitary point is water-closets. I desire to make a broad statement in connection with this subject, and that is, that every school building of two rooms and over should have inside water or dry closets. I will assign two reasons for this: the first is physical health and comfort; the second is the moral welfare of the child. The outdoor water-closet will never receive such frequent inspection as will prevent its becoming an unsightly thing and a source of immoral teachings.

Our next sanitary point is lighting. The correct principle of lighting is one that more than any other is constantly and willfully violated in the construction of our school buildings. Introducing the light entirely from the left of the pupil is the correct and only correct way to light a room. In large rooms it presents a problem, because light will only carry so far, and when it comes to a schoolroom forty-five feet wide, it requires a ceiling thirty feet high in order to properly light it. When you have reached a ceiling of this height, in many cases the acoustics of the room will be a failure, but I am happy to say to you today that modern science has solved this difficulty. The modern prism placed in the top or bottom section of the schoolhouse window will transmit the light perfectly to almost any distance, and leave the ceiling a natural and normal height. In other cases the placing of an angled skylight so that the light will reach every part of the room will accomplish the same result.

A correctly lighted room will have:

1. All of the light massed in one sheet on the left side of the pupil, or from above, and all introduced into the room from one direction.

2. It will not have too small a quantity of light.
3. It will not have too much light.
4. The light will not be too near the floor.
5. No seat will be too far from the light.
6. No smooth, glossy surface will be used on side-walls so as to produce glaring effects.

A building may be defective in any or all of these points. If it is, it is constantly injuring the eyesight of your children.

Our last sanitary point is ventilation and heating. The teacher has often been the means of introducing a basin, a cake of soap, and a towel into the modern course of study, in order that the faces and hands of some of the dirtier children may present a better appearance; for, as one teacher remarked to me recently, "It is impossible for me to love a dirty child." Yet possibly, while she has cleaned the face and hands, all of the body is in the same condition, and all the pores are constantly breathing and vitiating the air for the other children and herself.

This is only one of many reasons for the necessity for thoro ventilation. The strongest reason, to my mind, is the danger from disease. We see increasing, year after year, the number of consumptives in our country. I have no doubt that, if it were possible to trace this disease to its origin in each case, we should find that the majority of them were the result of weakened and diseased lung power as the result of breathing day after day foul and vitiated air in our schoolrooms.

Proper heating of the room is impossible without, at the same time, ventilating the room, so when we consider one we should consider both.

A correct and accepted medical and scientific definition of good health is "pure blood flowing thru a healthy organism." Three things enter into the composition of blood, namely: the food we eat, the water we drink, and the air we breathe.

The large cities of the country spend millions and millions of dollars for the purpose of securing pure water supplies for their citizens. Congress, state legislatures, and city councils pass laws, statutes, and ordinances to prevent the adulteration of food, and to protect the inhabitants of the country from improper and injurious food products. Let the water supply of any city in the country become contaminated, and there is a commotion created very quickly by the daily press, the board of health, and the physicians of the city, in order to protect the lives of the people. The contaminated water supply and poisonous food may be more swift in their results in the destruction of life than the foul air we breathe, but it is none the less certain. If we would have our children enjoy proper health, we must not only protect the stomach from transmitting poison to the system, but we must also exercise the same care with regard to the lungs.

Some legislatures of the country require by law that every schoolroom erected and in existence within the confines of the state shall be properly heated and ventilated.

The schoolroom that is properly heated and ventilated must have the following requirements :

1. It must have a mild, agreeable atmosphere in all kinds of weather.
2. It must maintain a uniform degree of heat in all the various parts of the room.
3. It must have a constant supply of pure, fresh air entering the room in such quantities that no person in the room will have to breathe the same air twice.
4. The foul and impure air must be carried out of the room as rapidly as it becomes contaminated.
5. The supply and exhaust must be so regulated that it has in itself power to produce these results, no matter what may be the conditions of the atmosphere outside.
6. These results must be produced in such a way as not to cause drafts.
7. This change of air must be accomplished without opening the windows.
8. The heating and ventilation should be so arranged that they are under the control of the teacher, if not automatic.
9. The warm air should be introduced at the ceiling line, or at least above the blackboard line.
10. The foul air should be exhausted at the floor line, so as to prevent the accumulation of cold air on the floors.

If the heating and ventilation of a school building is producing these results, it is at the same time preserving the health of the children ; if it is defective in any or all of these points, it is constantly destroying energy and vitality, and will eventually break down health.

Every building presents to the experienced architect three distinct problems :

1. The building from the point of business.
2. The building from the point of construction.
3. The building from the point of beauty.

Treating of these in the order in which they are given, we find—

1. That every building is the outgrowth of a business demand.
2. That it should be so constructed that those called upon to transact business within its walls will feel that life and health are fully cared for in its construction; this comprehends not only strength of materials, but application of principles of sanitation.
3. That art has combined with the two former points to produce a harmonious whole that is pleasing to the eye.

Let me illustrate this last thought for you by giving you a word-painting of an ideal schoolhouse :

It is so arranged that in the schoolrooms the teacher has full and easy command of all pupils, both in recitation and study; she has a full view of all entrances; and ready at hand are receptacles and closets for all the necessary conveniences for the conduct of the school. Each schoolroom, all cloakrooms, halls, stairways, and entrances are so arranged and grouped that the principal in command of the building has at all times full control of all moving columns of children; all parts of the building are so perfectly heated that on the coldest and warmest days alike the greatest attainable comfort is produced; the ventilation is so ample that each child is constantly supplied with a flow of fresh air drawn from the limitless quantity without, and at the same time the air which has been vitiated within the building is removed; each room is so perfectly lighted that the most delicate eyes are not injured by the work assigned; the entire building presents a harmonious whole; it combines the materials that nature has placed ready at hand in such an artistic way that the minds of both pupil and teacher are being constantly elevated and refined.

This ideal schoolhouse of mine partakes of the local coloring of the community in which it is built; it is the production of the citizens of that community; it is the home of their school, and under the guiding hand of the skillful architect it becomes the best expression of their thought.

This ideal schoolhouse is the theory; but what of the practice? In many sections today, and in some of the best buildings too, the business of the school is sacrificed for architectural effect; in very many the principles of sanitation are violated, at least in part, and treated by both board and architect as matters of minor detail. Thus buildings are erected in which the health of the occupants is constantly being injured.

The existence of this condition of affairs is the outgrowth of a lack of knowledge on the part of the boards of education, school-teachers, and architects. Sometimes the mistakes are traceable to one of these three and sometimes to all, but the most active agent in ruining modern school-houses is that thing known among architects as "competition."

I can best make clear the meaning of the last statement by a few illustrations drawn from our experience. In a competition last spring for a good school building there were present and showing plans seven architects. Six were engaged in general practice; we alone, having made the study of school architecture our life-work, stood for the correct principles of sanitation, and as a result we were dropped among the first, with the statement that it was hardly possible that one architect knew more than six. A few weeks after that I had the pleasure of seeing the successful plans. The main study-room was to be lighted from three sides—front, right, and rear. Every pupil in that room will be constantly facing the light. Other sanitary principles were as badly violated.

At another point I was successfully carrying the board to the policy of the main high-school study-room on the ground floor, when the city superintendent of schools interfered on the ground that he had always had his high-school room on the second floor, and thought it was the best place for it; and I was defeated. On seeing the successful plans afterward, I found that the architect had violated every known principle of schoolhouse construction.

These illustrations could be multiplied without limit, but these will show you the results of competition; and these are not exceptions, but the rule. The reason why competition increases the number of poor schoolhouses is because in a competition there is no opportunity or time for educating a school board up to correct principles, and for demonstrating them so that they can be thoroly understood. In a majority of cases the question of plans is decided by some detail that appears to the architect to be the important thing; and as he dwells on this and magnifies it in his presentation to the board, it finally becomes the whole schoolhouse to them, and the broad principles of arrangement, sanitation, and art blended into a harmonious whole is completely lost sight of in the special pleading for minor details.

I am not impeaching the honesty of any architect in this, neither am I complaining of injustice on the part of the school board, for both are acting up to all the knowledge they have. I am simply showing the difficulties in the way of the realization of the ideal school building as the result of competition.

The architect, to make a success of schoolhouse construction, must have a broad experience in both theory and practice; he must have met many schoolmen and talked and studied with them over the needs of the school; he must be conversant with the different methods of conducting schools; he must not only be a student of all the present conditions, but he must be thoroly conversant with all the indications that point to the development of the modern school in the near future; that is, the successful school building of today must anticipate the needs of tomorrow. He must have a thoro knowledge of the laws of light, and understand heating and ventilation, and the handling of currents of air; for he will have to assist and advise boards in deciding between many and various systems, and so-called systems, of heating and ventilation. It is not enough for an architect simply to be able to make a statement on any given point; he must be able to prove all statements, and give authority for all positions taken, and then with this knowledge, in order to make a success of his work, he must have the full confidence of the board with which he does business — the same confidence that a client reposes in his lawyer, or the patient in his doctor. The architect, without both this personal equipment and confidence of his clients, will, in a degree at least, make a failure of his school building. But the law has placed the handling of

all these problems in the hands of the school boards of the country; they are the jury that weighs the evidence, and in most states the court of last resort; their decisions are final and conclusive in determining what the schoolhouse shall be, and here the problem becomes most complex. The membership of these boards is usually made up from among the best business-men of each community. They are busy men, men of affairs, and they can devote only a limited portion of time to the consideration of these questions. They have no previous experience from which to draw, for it rarely falls to the lot of one board to build more than one school building, since by the time the community needs another the personnel of the old board has been changed, so that it is a new board that has to face and solve the problems. It is too much to ask these men, that are giving freely of their time for the good of the schools, to spend days in the study of these problems.

At this point, when we discover that our school boards are not equipped for this work, owing to our political system which is producing a constant change, we naturally turn to look for an adviser for the board, who has given this question enough study to be able to advise against mistakes; and in this way we turn to the school-teacher, principal, or superintendent, according to the size of the school; but again we are doomed to disappointment; for we find that the school worker is devoid of definite and satisfactory knowledge on these lines, and frequently, in place of knowledge, has some prejudices that only tend still further to complicate the solution of the problem.

I have now called your attention to the ideal schoolhouse. I have stated that but few of the many buildings erected annually approach this condition. I have shown the disease and traced up its cause, showing it to be the general lack of knowledge or agreement on the part of the three interested parties in the construction of each schoolhouse—the board, the teacher, and the architect; and now that the difficulties have been made to appear, I desire to turn your attention to a suggested cure.

First, I desire to suggest that at all county institutes a course of instruction be given to school-teachers on the principles of schoolhouse sanitation, in which the injury to health caused by their violation will be brought plainly and fully to view; that in connection with these institutes, and the examination of teachers that follows, a rigid examination be required of all candidates for certificates on these lines, not at first as a necessity to the securing of a certificate, but as a means of ascertaining the information possessed by the teacher. The county superintendent then, having before him the knowledge possessed by each teacher, can follow this up with instruction at future meetings and in correspondence, so as to build up the weak places. Using this method of instruction for the education of teachers, it will be only a short time until a knowledge

of schoolhouse sanitation can be made a requirement for the granting of a certificate, and then every board can have a competent adviser.

Secondly, I suggest that the course of study in our common schools embrace instruction along the lines of schoolhouse sanitation, thus preparing future generations for their duties in these lines, and equipping them with a fund of knowledge for positions on the boards of education of the future. In order to make this practical, a brief text-book would have to be prepared, covering the points that every citizen should know, and this instruction would not only be of benefit to the generations of the future in the construction of school buildings, but would be of aid in their homes and of general benefit thruout life. This instruction would naturally follow in close connection with the study of physiology and hygiene.

In our state of Iowa the child is required to learn the injury caused by the use of alcoholic liquors in order to promote temperance; in the same way our children should be instructed in these other health-giving principles, in order to preserve life.

Thirdly, each state should pass laws requiring that every schoolhouse should measure up to a certain sanitary standard. This can be accomplished by state and local boards of health together with state teachers' associations petitioning their state legislature to pass such a law; and these petitions would be respected. The state now requires that the child should be educated so as to make a good and safe citizen, and it has now only to go a step farther and require that the community in which he is educated supply him with such a perfectly constructed school building that the receiving of this education does not in any way mar his future usefulness as a citizen by injuring his health; for a sound mind can exist only in a sound body.

Fourthly, the people and taxpayers should be taught that it is easier and cheaper to prevent disease than it is to cure it. This can be accomplished by those interested in the school in each community working thru the local press, and by the teacher agitating these subjects at "mothers' meetings."

Fifthly, boards of education in the erection of new buildings should exercise the utmost care in the selection of an architect who has had special experience in the designing and construction of school buildings.

In the dawning of a new century, as our country is assuming its position among the nations of the world as a great world-power, with its dependencies in the isles of the sea and far tropical climes, with our public-school system extended to meet this expansion, it becomes necessary for us to provide such perfectly constructed school buildings that our children—the coming generation in whose hands will be intrusted the affairs of life—will be able to meet the problems of the future, not only with enlightened minds, but with bodies both strong and vigorous. To

you and those whom you represent here today has been intrusted the work of caring and providing for the education of the children of a mighty nation. May you be given both knowledge and wisdom so as to meet all of these problems in a wise and understanding way!

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION PROBLEMS IN THE SOUTH

ISRAEL H. PERES, EX-PRESIDENT OF BOARD OF EDUCATION, MEMPHIS, TENN.

Immediately it is well to impress upon the mind of our country that school-administration problems in the South do not materially differ from those in other parts of the United States, the exception being the problem of the education of the negro. It must be borne in mind, and constantly, that school systems are not ready-made in heaven and dropped down among us for our use; they are a growth and evolution from the primitive to the more and more complex, each phase keeping step with the advance in arts and sciences, and with the advance in the general social growth. The influence of climate, topography, psychic and industrial conditions, and the secondary influences accompanying these, are to be considered in arriving at correct conclusions on the subject. Certain it is that every school system is a product of the community in which it exists, and is formed by the average conscience, wealth, and intelligence of the community.

School boards.—The school board, committee, or directory is the first proposition. At a meeting of a certain school board, which was discussing a question touching matters educational, one of the members, with a ludicrous show of pride, stated that he was not an educator in any way, shape, manner, or form, and if the people elected him for that purpose they made a mistake.

It is an unfortunate fact that persons of this caliber are considered eligible for places on school boards. With the board—and when I say board I mean everybody charged with the duties of carrying on the management of the public schools—lies the progress or regress of the system. Men should be placed on the board who have at least one line of vision outside of the perspective of their own peculiar business in life. They should be educated and cultured men; and a degree from a first-class college or university should not be a badge of disgrace, but rather a *prima facie* index of capacity to do the work required of a board.

A board should select teachers, text-books, and superintendents, and should be composed of men of sufficient mental and moral make-up to make selections intelligently, without political compulsion or sentimental constraint. If the board exists simply to dole out places, provide funds, and furnish buildings, and look pleasant, the community can well exist without it, and a mayor and board of aldermen or city fathers can as well exercise its functions.

In the South the problem is the selection of men suited for school-board work, but, as above intimated, the problem is not peculiar to the South. The North, East, and West have gone and are going thru the same throes. The South is behindhand somewhat, not because she lacks material, but she has not reached that point in the specialization of industries where men are more and more forced into particular lines of work. In a word, she is agricultural at present rather than manufacturing.

In a republican form of government it is nearly impossible to keep any of its agencies free from politics. Politics in the school board is more an annoyance than an evil. There is generally a concert of action, notwithstanding political difference, in questions affecting the public good; yet it is well to have the board as decently free from politics as is possible. The ordinary pot-house politician who wields the destinies of a board is not generally a man of education or culture, tho this may not prevent him from being a genial gentleman; and if the community is educated to that point where it will brook no interference by the local bosses in school matters, then the standard of the school board and its scholarship will be raised, and it will become what its name indicates, and not merely a set of perfunctory ministerial officers.

Another remedy would be to cut off all salary and compensation of members, and insist that the members select teachers, superintendents, and other employés on a system of merit, and not on a system of "pull." Men should be put upon the school boards thruout the South who are educated, and who are not abashed at the idea that they are educated; men who are living in the present, and whose best thoughts are not always attuned to the sounds of a rapidly receding past. We need men who are interested in education for its own sake; men who can perceive the inestimable benefit coming from education to the community; men who take interest in live educational topics and who are able to distinguish a blue-back speller from a Loomis trigonometry.

Money.—Here again the industrial status wields the greatest influence. The wealthy sections of the country are not so much hampered in this respect as the South. All over the country the people are less adverse to paying a school tax than any other. The management of the funds is a more difficult problem than getting them. Ornate buildings are commendable, but plain buildings, comfortable and sanitary, with plenty of room, air, and light, and more money for teachers' salaries, are much more commendable.

More buildings are needed, so that too many children are not crowded in one room; and more teachers are needed, so that one teacher shall have an average of twenty or twenty-five children in a room, instead of fifty or sixty, as the case now is; the advantage of such a condition is too obvious for detail, especially before this audience. All this consumes

cash, and after every tax is laid which makes for the protection of the community, the next highest tax should be for the schools.

Text-books.—The South is now being made the new battleground for the uniform text-book idea. The uniform text-book system is contrary to the policy of the state and the community. It is a step toward regimentation and centralization; it eliminates the board, teachers, and superintendents. In every social unit it is a fact that where there is a military government, based upon regimentation, the same system obtains in the home, in the administrative, in the ecclesiastical, and in the educational departments. This is foreign to the principle upon which a free public school should be based. In our respective communities boards should be given the utmost latitude in the selection of text-books and the management of schools. It is no answer to say that boards of education may not know what to do. In many cases this is true, but the people can easily select men of mental training to carry on the schools in a satisfactory manner. The utmost and freest competition exists as to supplying the school children with text-books. The fittest survive in that line, as in any other department of commerce. Inasmuch as the people of every community elect their directories and boards, they should be given full power, so that if anything goes amiss they may be held responsible to the people who elected them. It is not a salutary measure for the central power of the state to interfere with local methods of education. Neither from an educational standpoint nor from a standpoint of saving money, in the states where it has been tried, is the uniform text-book system a success. It is a well-known fact that the elective courses in all colleges and universities in the land are being widened day by day, and required studies are becoming diminished. This is simply individualism in educational methods. The uniform text-book is like compulsory insurance, and like all other state-aiding schemes.

*The insistence of uniformity has been well illustrated by a French minister of education who once boasted that at a given hour all the boys in France were saying the same lesson at the same time, and out of the same text-books; and reminds one also of the revolutionary regulations in France, one of which was that upon a certain appointed *fête* mothers at a specified time were to regard their children with tender eyes.

The children are entitled to the best text-books that the market affords, and these can be obtained only by a full and free competition in the open market. Every first-class teacher, every first-class superintendent, and any man who knows anything about the science of education and the art of text-books, and who is willing to take notice of the strictly commercial strain running thru the uniform text-book system, has condemned it, and will condemn it, and should use every effort to keep it from finding a lodgment in his state.

**Teachers.*—The power of successfully teaching lies almost wholly in the personal magnetism and individuality of the teacher. Knowledge is

necessary, but skill, tact, and temperament, and power of imparting that knowledge, are just as important, and without them the knowledge will be well-nigh useless. As with the text-book, so with the teacher: the children are entitled to the best the market affords in full and free competition, and the selection of teachers should not be hampered by genealogical or geographical lines. Teachers should be selected who are fitted by previous training or previous experience for the position, and if there should be a vacancy and an application therefor come from a person with speaking credentials as to competency, the applicant should be selected, no matter from what part of the country he hails. Professionally trained teachers should always be employed, and the demand for the professionally trained teacher grows with the growth and development of the school system.

The time will come when in our high schools in the South each department of study will be presided over by a teacher professionally trained and experienced in that particular study, and we shall not have the farce, or rather the educational disadvantage and detriment to the pupil, of having one teacher spend thirty minutes on a Latin lesson, and then rush frantically across the hall to teach geometry for fifteen minutes, and then breathlessly turn his attention to thirty minutes of Greek instruction. We understand that the school system is a growth; we understand that the school has developed from the primitive, step by step, to the more complex; but, understanding these things, we do not positively take hold of the situation and decide that the management be carried on in a way determined by modern method. We are too content to leave conditions as they are. We still take young ladies just graduated from the high school and make teachers of them, before they have the experience and the mature intellect so absolutely necessary for so difficult a position. It is true that they are put thru a course of *quasi* training, under a system known as aid-teaching, but this does not meet all the requirements of the present day. No person should be elected to the position of a teacher in the public schools of the South until he or she has had a normal-school training. If we cannot get trained teachers from our own section of the country, let us get them from somewhere where they are trained in normal schools. The South has first-class normal schools and educational facilities, and it should be the duty of men and women who intend to teach, and apply for positions in the public schools, to attend these normal schools in the South or somewhere else. They should not have the assurance to insist on being teachers unless they are trained for that position. A person has no more right to practice the profession of teaching without previous training and study than to practice law or medicine, or any other profession. The high-school courses in the South have by no means as yet reached the highest standard; and unless one be a born teacher, he is not competent to

teach immediately after graduation from one of those high schools, and it should not be expected that he is to be given a place simply because he has graduated. The old system is a waste of time, work, and energy, and is a positive detriment to the pupil, altho the best attainable until we reach the normal stage.

But while I insist on high-class ability and thoro training for the profession of teacher in the public schools of the South, I do likewise insist, on behalf of those teachers, that they be paid higher, much higher, salaries than they are being paid for the strenuous and immense amount of work that they do. Competent service can be obtained only at a competent price, and there is no profession that gives more for what it gets than that of teacher. The average annual pay for public-school teachers in the South ranges from \$82 to \$275 for males, and from \$76 to \$238 for females, the lowest being in North Carolina and the highest being in Texas. So, then, the teacher problem resolves itself into an awakening on the part of the public to a demand for trained teachers and a willingness on the part of the public to pay higher salaries to obtain them; and the fact may as well be remembered, and put down as absolutely indisputable, that first-class teachers will not give their services for third- and fourth-class pay.

Superintendent.—After all, the life-blood of the school system is the superintendent. He is the mainspring. He is the fountain. From him come energy, aptitude, ambition, progress, life, and success; or from him emanate a dull conservatism and provincialism, content simply to be pushed along by the general growth, development, and environment. The superintendent, most of all, should be a man of liberal and broad education; a man of letters, of mental strength and power; a man of the present and not of the past; and he should be a man who is willing to, and does, take an interest in educational matters, and who will make a study of the science of teaching and education; and no man should be elected to be a superintendent of any system of schools who is not competent from every point of view suggested.

He should have the hearty co-operation of his board, and his position, so far as it is concerned, should depend upon his fitness therefor, and not upon personal predilection and maudlin sentimentality. He should be a man of sufficient skill, capacity, and personality to constrain a board's favorable decision upon any recommendation that he may make. He should be relieved of all matters not pertaining to education *per se*. He should not be worried about funds, buildings, grounds, furniture, or any other matter which can be attended to by a ministerial officer or employé. If he is a man of superior ability, he should be given absolute sway as to teachers, text-books, and discipline; and if he is a man of but average ability, the community should see to it that the board with which he is associated is composed of men who know

something at least of educational matters, so that the superintendent can take some pride and pleasure in conferring with them upon such subjects, and who can give an intelligent revisory decision. But, finally, each community has a superintendent of public schools of a caliber and mental equipment which it demands and pays for, and the community must cast the blame on none but itself if the schools make no material progress.

Curriculum.—Along with the intense specialization of industry comes the specialization in educational courses. The best curricula of today are made up of four general departments, to wit: first, the classic, which is a preparation for a collegiate course, ending in the bachelor of arts degree; second, the scientific, which is a preparation for a collegiate course, ending in a bachelor of science degree; third, a course considered the best preparation for a business career; and fourth, a course including manual training, whereby a preparation is made for the mechanic arts and professions. Given a good superintendent, the curriculum becomes a pleasure and not a problem. He can map out an up-to-date course. An imperative demand is, however, that in any course the pupil be not given too many studies at once. The most pitiable sight on a street-car in any of the larger cities of the South is to see a child some ten or twelve years old loaded down with a book for each year of its life. It is forced to study a portion of each one of those books for a succeeding day's recitation. Children's work should be so arranged that they would not be compelled or required to have more than one or two studies to prepare at night. The schoolroom is the place for preparation and instruction. Curricula should also be substantial. That is, they should not be clogged with matters or studies which do not make for the solid foundation upon which to build a future cultured mind. Fad and fancy should be omitted.

There should be a concerted effort on the part of the superintendent and faculty of the southern schools to advance their curricula, and especially their high-school courses, to that point where the average graduate from such high-school course will be able to stand the entrance examination for admission to the colleges and universities of the land. At present this is not a fact, except in a few cities, and in some cities there seems to be a religious horror of such a state in educational progress.

Inasmuch as the South is gradually approaching that point in her economic status where the agricultural is giving way to the manufacturing phase, the necessity for manual-training schools to prepare southern children for the walks in life attendant upon such conditions is patent. School officers in the South have been asking for manual-training schools for the last ten or fifteen years, but the sense of the community has not yet been awakened to the necessity for their presence, and I doubt very seriously that this sense will be awakened until population becomes denser, wealth greater, and pecuniary loss stares them in the face. It is a difficult thing for men to take time by the forelock, and none the less difficult is

it for a community. Experience is a good teacher, everybody knows, but everyone thinks that experience is a good teacher for everybody else.

One word about the course which is supposed to prepare a man for a business career. It might seem that in separating the two courses I have followed the popular misconception that the business-man need not be educated like the professional man. This is a grave mistake. The most successful business-men in the world have been those who are educated men, and the world has progressed so far on this point that in some of the eastern reports it has been decided that a college education is a necessity for which an infant's estate or his guardian or parent is liable upon a contract therefor; and the law is simply a concrete embodiment of the entire opinion of the community.

The negro.—I doubt very seriously if any set of men in the world could have dealt so valiantly and successfully with negro education as has been done in the South. When the social and economic condition of the negro in the South is taken into consideration, and when it is further remembered that at the close of the war the white man in the South was heart-broken and pecuniarily paralyzed, and when it seemed that adversity had settled down upon him never again to be lifted, and when in the face of all this there was lodged upon him the charge of the black man, the slave labor which he owned and which was his economic curse, to be taken care of and lifted from ignorance and superstition and sloth—when all these things have been taken into consideration, the progress that the South has made with the negro problem as to education is simply a marvel. It must be remembered that the best way to solve the negro problem in the South is to let the South alone, and if there are any suggestions to be offered to it, let them be offered in lovingkindness.

The burden of taxation in the South is borne almost wholly by the white man, and part of the proceeds of this taxation is given up to the education of the black man; and this must be remembered. If there is any part of the school population in the South for whom there should be manual training, more than the higher branches of learning, it is the colored pupil; and if he will turn his attention to the learning of the mechanic and agricultural arts, he will be more content than if he apply himself to the acquisition of an education which necessarily, notwithstanding all the moral denial of the question, makes him forever discontented with his lot. Intensive education can never break the biologic, moral, and social barriers which limit his position in this country's economy. In the vast majority of cases the time, energy, and money expended fall short of the object to be attained, namely, the improvement of the race. His salvation lies in the highest form of education, and that is preparation for that business by which he is to make his living. His best fields are agriculture and the mechanic trades. This is nearer the solution than Latin, Greek, mathematics, and philosophical vagaries.

There is no point of view from which progress in education in the South has not been made, and there are no words of praise nor any statement to be made to actually picture the moral strength and worth which have carried on this intrepid conduct. The concrete results shown in the statistical reports all over the South are more eloquent than any well-rounded phrases or periods which can be gathered together in a paper of this description. The other sections of the country would do well to study closely and sincerely what the South has done for the black man, so far as his education is concerned, before making unwarranted or useless criticism upon it.

I do not claim for this paper elaboration or analysis. I have simply written out with "prentice hand" suggestions concerning some of those needs in the southern schools which I consider vital, and from the discussion of which by the master-hands in educational matters much can be learned.

The outlook for the coming years is bright and full of promise. The common-school systems of the South, as well as the other portions of the country, meet approximately the demand for the everyday pursuits in which most men spend their lives. Normal schools are growing from which we shall get trained teachers; the old-time curricula are giving way to the new; trained and skilled specialists will appear in each department; the standing of the colleges of the country is becoming higher and higher each year; and as the standard of those institutions is raised, so will be the standard of the common and the high school.

It has been said that no soldier is more intrepid or braver than the American soldier. I attribute this to the form of government of his country, and the lessons of obedience, morality, and patriotism which are instilled in his youthful mind in his school days; and these lessons are the crowning glory of the common-school system of the United States.

THE RELATIONS OF THE SCHOOL BOARD AND THE TEACHERS

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The primary aim of the public-school system is to train and educate the youth of the nation toward the highest morality and the best citizenship. Education alone carries with it no certain guarantee of future usefulness, but when coupled with good morals and good sense is the most efficient agency the state can use for the promotion of the common good. The accomplishment of this end by these agencies not only insures the future welfare of the state by an increase in the intelligent and moral forces, but at the same time tends to reduce crime and all those conditions which lead to deterioration and decay. So that free education,

described by Bishop Spalding as "a people's deliberate effort to form a nobler race of men," becomes largely a matter of self-protection and self-preservation to the state, as well as an agency for the general elevation of mankind. On these grounds, the state has assumed the duty and claimed the right to educate its youth, to train them into useful and upright citizens; and on these grounds the great expense and care which the public-school system requires to maintain it are fully justified.

Authority to supervise and means to provide for this most important undertaking are intrusted by the people to boards of education. Few offices in the gift of the people carry with them such responsibilities or such possibilities for great good.

"To them are intrusted the duty of directing public education along the most approved and progressive lines, and, what is of no less moment, the performance of this task in such a manner that the interests of the public may be judiciously and faithfully observed. On the one hand, these boards are held to account for the state of public education in their respective localities; on the other, they are responsible to the people for the wise and efficient employment of vast sums. It is in their power to make or unmake the public school. They may blight it by a niggardly, bigoted, or unwise policy, or they may by a broad and liberal policy raise it to a high degree of efficiency and place it in a position to do incalculable good."

It is of prime importance, therefore, to secure for these positions only capable and intelligent men and women, who are willing at times, if need be, to sacrifice their own interests for the advancement of such an end. From the best citizenship only of a community should be chosen those who are to manage and supervise a school system. Being responsible to the district for the character of the work done and the results accomplished in the school, as well as for the wise expenditure of the school fund, each member of a school board is in duty bound to have general oversight of everything pertaining to the school. The responsibility placed upon him does not, however, require that he should be a professional architect or builder, should a new school building be needed. But it does expect that in transferring this work to the practical builder the school-board member shall be competent to pass intelligent judgment upon and procure for the district healthful and pleasantly located grounds, a building adequately planned and adapted to its particular needs, with equipment and furnishings appropriate to those needs, and with satisfactory hygienic and sanitary arrangements. Nor does the authority given him by the people contemplate his acting as engineer or janitor of the building, but expects him to transmit to competent and trustworthy employ  s the care and protection of the building and school property. Nor, again, is it expected that a school director shall be a professional educator, or possess such a knowledge of educational subjects and methods as to enable him to conduct personally the school work proper; but it is presumed that he will delegate these duties to those especially fitted and trained for such work. Thus the field of work of

the school board is mainly one of legislation, with a corps of skilled laborers to execute and carry out the general wishes and ideas of the supervising board. To be able to pass intelligent judgment on the efficiency of and the results accomplished by the various employes of the board demands much study, thought, and time. Especially does this apply to the professional or educational lines of work, in which the average school-board member is less informed.

The attitude of the school board, when considered in relation to the teaching force, is of the greatest consequence to the welfare of the school. The superintendent chosen to manage and direct the local school system should be selected with the greatest care. His duties and privileges, and his relation to the board and to his fellow-teachers, should be clearly defined and well understood. How much liberty he is to enjoy in carrying out his preferred plans and methods of developing and perfecting the school system is a matter for the board to decide. Of late it has been advocated by many prominent educators that the selection and dismissal of teachers, the choice of text-books and courses of instruction, and similar duties, should devolve entirely upon the superintendent, the board withdrawing fully from any participation in these duties; that the superintendent, being wholly responsible to the board for results, should have the right to surround himself with only such assistants as would in his judgment best and most helpfully co-operate with him in securing desired results; that he have the power to use such means and introduce or continue such methods as will best tend to the same end; that perfect freedom and power to develop and execute the school work should be fully transferred to him; that his opinion and choice on all matters concerning the school work should prevail and be final. The board has the legal right thus to transfer to the superintendent all these particular duties, but whether its relation to the people and to the taxpayers, as well as to the child whose interests are mainly in question, will warrant the shifting of responsibility so fully, must be decided by each board. The conditions may be so varied and the points of view so numerous that each board is justified by law and reason in deciding for itself how much liberty it shall give to the superintendent. With a thoroly competent superintendent a board can safely and for the best interests of the school give him full power as regards selection and dismissal of teachers, choice of text-books, courses of study, and all other school work; but in giving him this large liberty the board should always fix conditions under which such authority is to be exercised, and should also retain the power within itself to withdraw or modify the conditions at any time. Like school boards, but perhaps less so, all superintendents are not "magnificently capacitated for their high calling." A board should not fully abdicate its power to a superintendent found deficient in certain qualifications and await bad results or failure before intervening. The general

policy of the board, based as it is on local needs and conditions, and often limited by the funds at its disposal, must at times negative the well-meant and ambitious desires of the superintendent, even tho they may be right in general theory. So that, however superior the qualifications of the superintendent, or however inferior those of the board, it is undoubtedly best that in every phase of school-board duty the veto power should, whether used or not, remain with the board. This removes the sting from the "one-man power," and prevents the board being placed in the position of simply a "committee to register the will of an educational dictator." It allows the board, if it wishes, to give without reserve into the hands of its educational expert the full details of the school work, or to step in, should occasion demand, and curtail and modify the authority formerly delegated; or it allows the board to reserve and share with the superintendent some of the responsibilities.

As to choice of teachers, the selection should devolve primarily upon the superintendent. He is best fitted, by training and experience, to know the qualification of the efficient and capable teacher. He is responsible to the board for the success of the schools, and should be allowed the right, so far as possible, to choose his subordinates.

"He has more at stake than any member of the school board. To him success is a vital matter: it means success or failure in his life-work, while to the member of the board, however public-spirited, the schools are but an incidental interest."

A superintendent's powers should at least be coextensive with his responsibilities. No board can fairly hold to strict account for bad results or failure a superintendent upon whom it has thrust incompetent and refractory teachers, or whom it has denied sufficient facilities to conduct the school work to his own satisfaction. In the first case, more freedom should be given the superintendent in choosing his assistants, or in that much the board should shoulder the responsibility; in the second, the blame, if any, falls on the board, or possibly upon the district, for not providing funds sufficient to meet the requirements. Should the superintendent be plainly wrong, or show conscious or unconscious favoritism in choice of a teacher, the board can use its ultimate authority to correct and overrule such recommendation. To follow this course and allow the superintendent to nominate the teachers would benefit many a school.

As to the text-books used, the superintendent's choice should prevail; as to courses of study, the superintendent should act as adviser to the board. It is one of the duties of a school board to decide what shall be taught in the school. Whether a high school shall provide a course preparatory to college or university; whether it shall furnish a business course; whether its curricula shall cover one, two, or four years, and what shall comprise them—all these questions, and others, must ultimately be decided by the board, not by the superintendent. It is his province to advise the board as to the desirability of such courses or changes in them,

and to say how the work shall be done in these lines, and what methods shall be used by the teachers.

"A good superintendent cannot make a good school. The securing of good teachers is the vital part of the whole matter." Above and beyond all material forces of school government and administration, efficiency and progress depend, in greatest measure, upon the teacher. A good teacher is truly said to be *the school*. Whatever may be the environment provided by the board for the pupil, the chief factor in molding character and preparing for future usefulness, and good is the capable, conscientious teacher whose personal qualities, character, education, and professional skill are the best.

It being for the best interests of the school to secure and retain good teachers, the salaries offered should be the highest possible, consistent with a wise economy of public funds. "The board that gets cheap teachers, because they are cheap, will always be the guardian of poor schools." The board that supplies its teaching force largely from home sources, unless conscientiously careful to eliminate all influences which might tend toward the selection of a weak teacher, such as friendship, political influences, charitable motives, and the like, is more liable to lower the efficiency of the school than the board which gets the *best only*, from whatever source, home talent of course not barred.

New and better methods of instruction are yearly being presented, requiring increased demands upon the time and purse of the progressive teacher who endeavors to keep in touch with the latest and best. The expense necessary in attending teachers' conventions, visiting other schools, subscribing for educational journals and books, adds much to a teacher's value to a district, and it is a simple matter of justice to the teacher that the compensation should at times be readjusted to render recognition of increased worth and efficiency. Such appreciation and encouragement will tend to retain the best, and so the continuity of the school work can be maintained and made more productive by infrequent changes in the teaching force. Good teachers will naturally command the best salaries, and smaller cities are often unable to meet the salaries paid by the larger, thus losing, frequently, their best teachers. This, of course, is the teacher's merited good fortune, and no board unable to offer equal inducements should stand in the way of the teacher's betterment. Even if under contract, it is often better to release the fortunate teacher, provided the position can be filled satisfactorily. Release, however, should rarely be asked, or granted, during the continuation of the school year. As to contracts, it is said that they are oftener broken by teachers than by school boards. The remedy in either case is the observance of ordinary business principles by both parties, with a willingness to appreciate the position each side is placed in, and a disposition to be fair and obliging. A teacher under contract should secure release before engaging elsewhere,

and no board should knowingly engage or tempt a teacher by better offers who is already under contract with another board, but should confer for her release with the board under which she is serving. It is a right of a teacher, and, in fact, a duty she owes to herself, to seek and secure positions of greater usefulness and offering better compensation or more congenial labor, and few boards will oppose such advancement if release is asked in time to allow replacing without material injury to the school.

The tenure of office of the teacher should depend on the quality of work done and her harmonious working with the superintendent. A good teacher should receive occasional assurances of appreciation that will lead her to know that her position is not in jeopardy as long as the character of her work remains satisfactory. Dismissals should only be for good causes, and, under certain circumstances, only after opportunity is given for improvement or defense. It should be done with as little publicity as possible, for the good of both parties. A fair and impartial hearing should be accorded the teacher, and the decision should be based upon the best interests of the school.

The relation of the board to the teachers' school work touches only at points most frequently brought to the board's attention by the superintendent, and consists in providing facilities for the daily work. A good teacher may be able to do good work without liberal equipment of school supplies, but it is poor economy to expect or pay teachers to work with inferior or inadequate tools. A teacher should not be overworked. The number of classes and size of the classes should be kept down to a point insuring efficiency of personal work with each pupil. The tendency to reduce the average number of pupils assigned to a teacher is a good one and will enable the teacher to do better individual work.

It has been said that "teachers should receive the warmest support of the school board and feel that the board is ready to sustain them in every honest endeavor to improve the schools;" that "the board should be first to recognize and reward successful effort and last to criticise." These are but due courtesies which a board should at all times extend to the teacher. The obligation of the board to the teacher does not end when the contracts are signed. The meritorious teacher is entitled to more recognition and approval of good work done than is indicated in her regular pay-day check. A teacher should have, and know that she has, the moral support of the board. Frequent visiting of the school-room by the member will be a mutual help. One man working for another will always do better work if he knows his labor is to be frequently inspected. If he is a conscientious worker, he will be glad to know that honest and faithful labor will not go unnoticed by the employer. If he is a shirk, or negligent, the knowledge that his work is to be inspected and measured up will be an incentive to better and more careful effort. Lack of inspection and holding to strict account of the

employed in public affairs is the cause of much waste of public funds. Close school inspection, too, by the board will prove both a matter of justice and encouragement to the good superintendent or teacher and a spur to the negligent, and so is a means of improvement in school work. How can the board support or criticise intelligently without personal familiarity with the workings of the school, which can only come from frequent visitations and a careful study of conditions?

The progressive teacher is always quick to adopt better ways and methods. The good superintendent frequently has new ideas to adopt. The board should value this spirit of progress in them, and, if asked to indorse some desirable innovation, should fully inform itself about it before refusing aid, and should not fail to support it if practicable. Many a successful and faithful superintendent and teacher has lost favor with the board, and even jeopardized his position, by too ardently advocating some needed reform or advanced method which the board has failed carefully to investigate and see the advantage of. On the other hand, the financial limitations of the district often prevent the adoption of desirable innovations, and a wise superintendent or teacher will postpone urging the needed outlay.

There is a unity of purpose in the duties of board, superintendent, and teachers; the end sought by each is the same. The people provide definite funds and delegate authority to the school board to establish a uniform system of schools for the betterment of future citizenship. The board invests part of the funds in providing and equipping school buildings; the remaining part secures the teaching force. To the superintendent are assigned the care and management of the local educational system in its entirety; to the teacher, the final, personal duties of moral and intellectual development of the child. The board, superintendent, and teacher are but servants of the people to bring about the one result. The superintendent fits in as a co-ordinating force between the board and the teacher. He is an adviser, and often a leader, to the board, and a guide and leader to the teacher. When harmony and full co-operation exist among these three, under the skillful guidance of the superintendent, the best results can be returned to the people by the board. When board, superintendent, and teachers work industriously, honestly, and intelligently together for the character-building and intellectual development of the pupil, and frankly and fully confer with each other as to the best means and measures, each will recognize the others' rights and respect them, and a successful school will be the result.

SCHOOL-BOARD ORGANIZATION

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The subject of this paper is somewhat indefinite in its nature, and as the limitations of the discussion are not suggested, I take it I am at

liberty to say what I choose, looking at the school board, as I shall, briefly, from an educational and business view.

It is now generally admitted that the school has made more progress from mere empiricism to real scientific principles in the method of its work than has the state, the family, or the church. School work has made such advance that we do not now, as formerly, look to see which of many evils needs attention most, but rather where we can find a defect to be remedied. The professional preparation of teachers and the active work in the schoolroom have been brought to an advanced stage, and one of the duties now is to make all the factors in school work equally efficient. One of these factors is the school board. If you were to ask what part of the machinery of our schools of today is weakest, I should unhesitatingly answer, the school board. The work of school boards has not kept pace with other lines of work, and this is due perhaps, to some extent at least, to their *organization*, including in that term their creation under the law controlling them. Of course, if we had ideal men on boards, little or nothing need be said about organization, but unfortunately we are not always so blessed. A word by way of digression as to the question of fitness. A school board should be a help and not a hindrance in the legitimate work of schools, and that school board whose members are chosen from any other consideration than fitness for the place will retard as much as help the progress of the schools. The school board needs men who are not merely prominent in a business or professional way, but who have above all else a correct conception of the objects and needs of primary education. It is axiomatic that he who has not a clear idea of what is to be done will not use the most intelligence in the selection of means to accomplish it. The first step to be taken in giving a town or city good schools is a wise selection of the school board. I mention this fact for the reason that sooner or later we shall all have an opportunity of showing our judgment in the selection of our successors.

The school board should be not merely a passive adjunct to the school, but an active, working force, doing something more than mere formal routine work of passing on what is brought to its attention.

In order that a school board may be a good working body, and do what it is created for, I think it is necessary—

1. That the members be appointed and not elected. If they are elected, it places the position on a level politically with other offices and brings it directly into politics. Politics is an evil in school work, and, like all others, it tends to generalize itself; and whenever and wherever political or other foreign influence dominates the election of school boards, such influence is carried into the schools immediately, to their irreparable injury. In perhaps two-thirds of our American cities the election of members of school boards is determined by political or some other

influence which has not in view the highest good of the school. In many places the position is handed out from the political pie-counter as a means of preserving the equilibrium of political conditions, and in many instances at the dictation of the ward heeler. In American government the state is dominated by politics, and as the school is a creature of the state, it is difficult at best to keep the school free from political control. Politics is a stranger to modesty, and tries to control everything, and sometimes almost succeeds. Its presence is nowhere so baleful as in the schools, as its purposes are totally adverse. I am not decrying politics, but trying to make the point that the school is one of the great institutions of society, with its own inherent law by which it is to be controlled, and that law is not the law of politics. I know of great educational institutions—universities and colleges—that are owned, operated, and controlled by the political boss. When I use the word “great” I mean great in possibilities. America can never lay claim to first rank in educational work until she removes the last vestige of the work of the politician from her schools in their control and management. There are many reasons in favor of the appointment of members of boards which will suggest themselves and need not be here stated.

2. The number of members should be small. I understand that in various cities of our country the number of members is twenty-five and even greater. I think the number should not be less than three nor more than five. A school system should be managed on business principles, and three men can do the work better than twenty, as the former number can meet and talk about school matters in an informal way and accomplish results much easier than an unwieldy body. The ideas of a few control even in a large body, and, if so, others are useless, and even in the way.

3. Each member of the board should represent the entire corporation and not merely one ward. Ward representation is in my judgment the worst feature found in the school boards of today. Under this system is afforded a better field for political interference. The members of the board do not feel the full force of public sentiment on questions that arise. There is a greater opportunity to dodge and shirk responsibility, as the members from one ward can shift blame to someone else. This system invites a rivalry among members in the way of securing places for, or dispensing favors to, their respective wards.

4. There should be a uniform system thruout the state. Emerson has said: “There is the best way of doing everything, even to the boiling of an egg.” There is but one best way, and the entire state is entitled to its benefits. I take it that the argument in favor of uniformity in all matters of administration thruout the state, and, if it were possible, thruout the United States, is so patent that it need not be mentioned in this paper.

It is needless to say that in my own state of Indiana we do not always have the best possible men on school boards, and yet we think our system is most favorable to the selection of competent men and for the highest sort of work by the boards. We have the four conditions I have discussed, viz., the appointive system, small boards, entire representation, and uniformity thruout the state. Our statute is as follows (sec. 4439, R. S., 1881): "The common council of each city and the board of trustees of each incorporated town of this state shall, at their first regular meeting in the month of June, elect three school trustees, who shall hold their office one, two, and three years, respectively, and annually thereafter shall elect one school trustee, who shall hold his office for three years. Said trustees shall constitute the school board of the city or town." This is followed by a provision for giving bond, organization of board, filling vacancies, and compensation for services. The following sections provide in substance that these boards shall receive and pay out all special school and tuition revenues apportioned to their respective corporations, keeping separate accounts for each fund, and for filing with the county auditor complete reports on same at stated times; that such boards shall have charge of educational affairs generally, with power to build and equip schoolhouses, levy taxes, provide courses of study, select teachers and superintendents, and so on. Some of the beneficial results of this system, and of which we are modestly proud in our state, are :

1. It has in a degree removed the school from political control.
2. It has resulted in the employment of teachers on the basis of professional qualifications, independent of politics, religion, or friendship.
3. It has thereby led to a higher standard of professional qualification among teachers, and filled our state normal school and other like institutions to overflowing.
4. It gives us a more economic school administration, as well as a more judicious expenditure of school revenue.
5. Above all, it has resulted in a fine school spirit among the people, which is the best safeguard against ill-advised action by the boards.

Let me give you one concrete illustration. A few weeks ago a political conspiracy was hatched in one of the leading cities of my state against the superintendent of schools. He was removed; and instantly public opinion was aroused, indignation was expressed on every hand, regardless of party, and public sentiment compelled that board to re-employ the man dismissed.

This is, in the briefest possible statement, my conception of the conditions and the organization of the school board that will make it a potent factor in bringing about the highest sort of school work. I know of no other system under which the school can to such an extent bring to its aid that most helpful influence, intelligent public sentiment, and by which the school shall work out its highest destiny.

LIBRARY DEPARTMENT

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

The Library Department of the National Educational Association met in the German Fusileers' Hall, Charleston, S. C., at 2:30 P. M., and was called to order by President Sherman Williams, of Glens Falls, N. Y.

Rev. Dr. C. S. Vedder, pastor of the Huguenot Church, Charleston, in a few well-chosen words extended a kindly greeting to the strangers on behalf of the city of Charleston. President Williams responded.

The first paper was presented by Miss Mae E. Schreiber, supervisor of the public-school library system, Madison, Wis., on "How to Direct Children's Reading." The paper was discussed by H. L. Elmendorf, Buffalo, N. Y.; Sherman Williams, Glens Falls, N. Y.; William Beer, New Orleans, La.; O. H. Bakeless, Carlisle, Pa.; and Miss M. E. Ahern, Chicago, Ill.

A Committee on Nominations was appointed by the president, as follows:

H. L. Elmendorf, of New York.

Miss Ellen Fitz Simons, of South Carolina.

Miss M. E. Ahern, of Illinois.

A Committee on Resolutions, as follows:

O. H. Bakeless, of Pennsylvania.

William Beer, of Louisiana.

Mrs. Alice A. Palmer, of South Carolina.

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 3

The meeting was called to order at 3:30 Friday afternoon, July 13, in German Fusileers' Hall, by President Williams, who then introduced Mr. William M. Slaton, principal of the Boys' High School, Atlanta, Ga.

Mr. Slaton, on behalf of the ladies of the Industrial Association of the Seaboard Air Line District, presented to the Library Department a beautiful silk flag, with an appropriate address.

The flag was accepted by President Williams on behalf of the department.

Mr. H. L. Elmendorf, superintendent of the public library, Buffalo, N. Y., next read a paper on "The Greater School; or, The School plus the Library, Greater than Either."

The paper was discussed by President Williams, of Glens Falls, N. Y.; Mr. Halleck, of Louisville, Ky.; Mr. Metcalf, of Boston, Mass.; Mr. Slaton, of Atlanta, Ga.; Miss Fitz Simons, of Charleston, S. C.; and Mr. Bakeless, of Carlisle, Pa.

Mrs. Eugene B. Heard, of Middleton, Ga., library commissioner of Georgia and superintendent of traveling libraries of the Seaboard Air Line system, read a paper on "The Free Traveling Library, an Aid to Education, and a Factor in National Life."

The paper was discussed by Mr. Elmendorf, Mr. Glenn, state superintendent of public instruction of Georgia; Miss Harrison, editor of the *Southern Journal of Education*; Mrs. Coleman, of South Carolina; Mr. Metcalf, of Boston; and President Williams.

Mr. Elmendorf moved that the thanks of the department be extended to President Williams for his untiring efforts during the year for the success of the meeting. Unanimously carried.

The Committee on Nominations reported the following names, which were unanimously adopted :

For *President*—Robert C. Metcalf, of Boston.

For *Vice-President*—Dr. Jerome H. Raymond, president of State University of West Virginia.

For *Secretary*—Miss Mary Eileen Ahern, editor of *Public Libraries*, Chicago.

The Committee on Resolutions reported as follows :

WHEREAS, The Library Department of the National Educational Association aims to awaken a widespread interest on the part of teachers and school people in the right use of the public library, and emphasize the right use of good literature by the pupils ;

Resolved, by the Library Department of the National Education Association,

That the papers and proceedings of its meetings, so far as practicable, be published and disseminated again this year as was recommended by the Committee on Resolutions of last year.

That a brief summary of the work of the department, with its aims and recommendations for the year, be prepared by the secretary and presented to the various educational journals for publication.

That a committee be appointed to prepare and publish for distribution a leaflet containing lists of aids and guides to teachers in the choice of books.

O. H. BAKELESS, *Chairman*,

WM. BEER,

MRS. ALICE A. PALMER,

Committee.

On motion, a committee, consisting of H. L. Elmendorf, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mae E. Schreiber, Madison, Wis.; William Beer, New Orleans, La., was appointed to prepare a list of books to aid teachers in the choice of a library calculated to lead the reading by pupils along the proper lines.

President Williams introduced Mr. Metcalf, president-elect, who, after a few words, declared the meeting adjourned.

MARY EILEEN AHERN,

Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

HOW TO DIRECT CHILDREN IN THEIR READING

MISS MAE E. SCHREIBER, LIBRARIAN, STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, MADISON, WIS.

The study of literature is not the study of the history of literature, with an occasional poem or fragment of prose thrown in. To fill the mind with the biographies of authors, and to memorize the list of books they have written, is not to study literature. Instead of reading about authors and studying a text-book on literature, the student must come into direct contact with literature and read for himself. The frequent practice in teaching literature has been to take a few pieces of literature, and to spend much time in analyzing each one; the meaning of every word is studied, and its derivation traced; figures are pointed out and named, historical facts verified, accuracy of scientific facts tested, every illusion traced until, in this process of vivisection, the real life has been lost. Literature is the expression of the soul of humanity, of the whole range of human experiences; and the study of literature should consist in the interpretation of the experiences, the thoughts, the feelings, and the aspirations of the race. Dr. J. W. Stearns says :

Interpretation should consist in such things as the artistic presentation of character types, the setting forth of the play of circumstances in molding character, the unfolding of the consequences of actions and the might of destiny, the manifestations of the spiritual meaning of material things revealing the charm of beauty in things common, touching into life the springs of noble emotions in us, filling us with a sense of the deeper meanings of life, and enlarging our sympathies.

Poetry.—If literature is an expression of life, the study of literature should consist in the interpretation of life. Poetry portrays the emotional side of life. It breathes the joys, hopes, fears, sorrows, strivings, and aspirations of humanity. It gives us the divine fire of genius, teaches us the love of the beautiful, swings us into the world of imagination, and encourages us to do and to be. A poem is a work of art to be admired and enjoyed and felt. Music, beauty, imagination, passion, insight, inspiration, and faith are the essential characteristics of poetry; and these are what should be studied.

Read the poetry to the pupils so as to bring out the music, and let them read it that way. They will soon find that music is varied: sometimes smooth and flowing, again rough and broken; sometimes light and quick, again heavy and slow-moving. Analyzing a number of poems by a single poet, they will find that there is a sameness about his way of singing; that Tennyson's music is varied, polished, and exquisite; that Bryant's music is deep, full, and resounding; that Riley's is dainty and light. Comparisons of different poets will lead to a better understanding of each one.

Ask the pupils to select the most beautiful pictures and read them to the class. Ask them to see these pictures as they are read, and encourage them to admire. Let them gather together and compare the beautiful pictures painted by the poets, and they will find that Scott's pictures are highly colored; that Tennyson gives us exquisite landscapes and beautiful pen-portraits; that Byron paints nature in her grandeur; that Lowell's pictures are full of life and beauty. A careful study of how these pictures are painted will bring out that some are in detail, some in broad strokes, some clearly outlined, and some only suggested.

Call for the passages the pupils like best, and nearly always they will select those expressing passion, inspiration, insight, truth, and faith. They select them because they appreciate them to some degree. As they read more and more, they will come to recognize, name, and understand these characteristics, and to see that they differ in different poets. Do not expect learned discussions. Get them to give themselves up to these influences. They will read Shelley and Milton, and exercise their imagination. They will learn that some poets look deep into the human heart and see beyond the symbol, the essence—and that is insight. They will learn to look for the poet's faith in God and humanity.

For instance, take the little poem "One, Two, Three!" by H. C. Bunner:

It was an old, old, old lady
And a boy who was half-past three;
And the way that they played together
Was beautiful to see.

She couldn't go running and jumping,
And the boy, no more could he,
For he was a thin little fellow,
With a thin, little, twisted knee.

They sat in the yellow sunlight,
Out under the maple tree;
And the game that they played I'll tell you,
Just as it was told to me.

It was Hide-and-Go-Seek they were playing,
Though you'd never have known it to be —
With an old, old, old, old lady
And a boy with a twisted knee.

The boy would bend his face down
On his one little sound right knee,
And he'd guess where she was hiding,
In guesses One, Two, Three!

"You are in the china-closet!"
He would cry and laugh with glee.
It wasn't the china-closet;
But he still had Two and Three.

"You are up in papa's big bedroom,
In the chest with the queer old key!"
And she said: "You are *warm* and *warmer*;
But you are not quite right," said she.

"It can't be the little cupboard,
Where mama's things used to be;
So it must be the clothes-press, Gran'ma!"
And he found her with his Three.

Then she covered her face with her fingers,
That were wrinkled and white and wee,
And she guessed where the boy was hiding,
With a One and a Two and a Three.

And they never had stirred from their places,
Right under the maple tree —
This old, old, old, old lady,
And the boy with the lame little knee —

This dear, dear, dear old lady,
And the boy who was half-past three.

Read the poem to the children so they may enjoy it as a whole. Read again, and ask them to describe the pictures they see.

"An old lady and a thin little boy with a twisted knee sitting in the yellow sunlight out under the maple tree." "The old lady's fingers were wrinkled and white and wee." "They are playing hide-and-go-seek

without stirring from under the tree." More minute descriptions of the woman and boy may be called for.

Ask them what they like in the poem, what they think of the poem. This will often bring out what they feel. For instance, these questions on this poem have often brought out the following statements: "I like it because it sings so;" "Because we like to have old folks play with us;" "It makes me feel sorry for the little boy." And one little boy, in talking about the poem, said that "where mama's things used to be" must mean that the mama had gone away to heaven, as his mama had.

The novel.—Hamilton Mabie says:

The novel is contemporaneous with a new and deepening consciousness of human relationship and obligation. Today we feel more distinctly than ever before the pervasive influence of other lives upon our lives. We are weighted down as never before by a sense of our incalculable obligations to our fellows. We no longer think of ourselves as alone, but always in the thick of relationships of every kind and quality; in the solitude of our own souls we are conscious of the whole conscious, suffering world about us.

Fiction portrays life on the social side as no other form of literature does. Social conditions, standards, forces, and conventions are revealed, and the problem of the individual life is worked out with full recognition of countless social influences.

The special aims in studying fiction are: to enjoy the story; to picture life portrayed; to judge character portrayed; to trace character development.

Read for things that go to make up the life of any community: descriptions of the environment; characters as types; appearance and dress; food; homes and surroundings; amusements, holidays, and festivals; religion—faith, modes of worship, and superstitions; occupations—fine and useful arts; education; government and laws; modes of travel; language; and peculiar customs.

Illustration:

Mary Mapes Dodge, *Hans Brinker; or, The Silver Skates*.

This is a vivid description of life in Holland. It teaches a lesson of courage and nobility of character. It is a portrayal of life in Holland.

Environment.—General description of Holland, pp. 29-38, 105, 106; Amsterdam, pp. 95-101; Harlem, pp. 142-57; Leyden, pp. 211-17.

Characters as types.—Gretel Brinker, Hans Brinker, Dame Brinker, Hilda van Gleck, Rychie Korne, Katrinka, Annie Bouman, Peter van Holp, Carl Schummel, Jacob Poot, Dr. Boekman, pp. 43, 44, 131, 375-7; Dutch character, pp. 53, 68, 98; Gretel's character, pp. 27, 63, 134-8, 294, 377; Hans' character, pp. 27, 42, 48, 53, 54, 63, 72, 306, 337, 354, 362.

Appearance and dress.—Pp. 43, 44, 57, 131, 162-4, 186, 310, 342, 343.

Homes.—All classes, pp. 132, 224-6, 231-4.

Amusements.—Skating, pp. 43, 44, 162-5, 342-56; festival of St. Nicholas, pp. 82-93.

Food.—Pp. 116, 180, 181, 186, 225.

Some curious customs.—"Aanspreker," p. 139; at birth of a child, pp. 140, 141; reverence for the stork, p. 241.

After you have read one or more stories with the children, showing them how to read the story so as to get life, character, or character development, as the case may be, they may select other stories, and read them in the same way.

Essays.—The intellectual side of life is expressed in essays and prose composition. The special aims in reading essays are: (1) to get the author's thought; (2) to think with the author by seeing relations; (3) to knit the knowledge gained to what is already known.

The first step is to get the general idea of the composition. Then the parts upon which the general idea is based; if description, the things which go to make up the picture; if narrative, the events which form the narration; if argumentative, the points on which the author has based his argument, etc. In seeing the relation of these parts to each other and to the general idea—discriminating, comparing, judging—the pupil is thinking with the author.

The student has been using the knowledge he already has to interpret the new knowledge, but he ought consciously to bring up what he already knows on the subject, gained thru experience or previous reading. For instance, he has just read Carlyle's idea of a great man; he compares it with Emerson's idea as gained in previous reading, also with Lowell's idea. These ideas, together with his own knowledge and his experience of great men, constitute his body of knowledge of great men, which he will use in gaining new knowledge on the subject, which new knowledge will in turn be compared with the old.

Illustration:

THE MEN TO MAKE A STATE

The men, to make a state, must be intelligent men. I do not mean that they must know that two and two make four; or, that six per cent. a year is half per cent. a month. I take a wider and a higher range. I limit myself to no mere utilitarian intelligence. This has its place. And this will come almost unsought. The contact of the rough and rugged world will force men to it in self-defense. The lust of worldly gain will drag men to it for self-aggrandizement. But men so made will never make a state. The intelligence which that demands will take a wider and a higher range. Its study will be man. It will make history its cheap experience. It will read hearts. It will know men. It will first know *itself*. What else can govern men? Who else can know the men to govern men? . . .

The men, to make a state, must be honest men. I do not mean men that would never steal. I do not mean men that would scorn to cheat in making change. I mean men with a single *face*. I mean men with a single *eye*. I mean men with a single *tongue*. I mean men that consider always what is *right*; and do it at whatever cost. . . .

The men, to make a state, must be brave men. I do not mean the men that pick a quarrel. I do not mean the men that carry dirks. I do not mean the men that call themselves hard names; as Bouncers, Killers, and the like. I mean the men that walk with open face and unprotected breast. I mean the men that *do*, and do not *talk*. I mean the men that dare to stand alone. I mean the men that are today where they were yesterday, and will be there tomorrow. I mean the men that can stand still and take the storm. I mean the men that are afraid to *kill*, but not afraid to *die*. . . .

The men, to make a state, must be religious men. States are from God. States are dependent upon God. States are accountable to God. To leave God out of state is to be atheists. I do not mean that men must cant. I do not mean that men must wear long faces. I do not mean that men must talk of conscience, while they take your spoons. . . . I speak of men who feel and own a God. I speak of men who feel and own their sins. I speak of men who think the cross no shame. I speak of men who have it in their heart as well as on their brow. . . .

The men, to make a state, are made by faith. A man that has no faith is so much flesh. His heart a muscle; nothing more. He has no past, for reverence; no future, for reliance. He lives. So does a clam. Both die. Such men can never make a state. There must be *faith*, which furnishes the fulcrum Archimedes could not find, for the long lever that should move the world. There must be faith to look through clouds and storms up to the sun that shines as cheerily on high as on creation's morn. There must be faith that can lay hold on heaven, and let the earth swing from beneath it, if God will. . . .

The men, to make a state, are themselves made by obedience. Obedience is the health of human hearts; obedience to God; obedience to father and to mother, who are, to children, in the place of God; obedience to teachers and to masters, who are in the place of father and of mother; obedience to spiritual pastors, who are God's ministers; and to the powers that be, which are ordained of God. Obedience is but self-government in action; and he can never govern men who does not govern *himself*. Only such men *can* make a state.—*G. W. Doane.*

ANALYSIS

To get the author's thought.

1. General idea—the kind of men to make a state must be intelligent, honest, brave, religious. They must be made by faith, self-denial, and obedience.
2. What the author means by intelligent, honest, brave, religious, faith, self-denial, obedience.

To relate to the ideas already in the child's mind.

1. The child has interpreted the author by means of what he already knows of these characteristics.
2. The child should compare his judgments with the author's.
3. Select great statesmen and see if they have excelled in these characteristics.
4. Have statesmen failed because of lack of these characteristics?

To arouse interest in further reading.

What are the duties of a statesman which should call for these characteristics?

Superintendent James M. Greenwood has said:

If literature be the life of the people, it should also prepare for that kind of life in which the child is forced to live, immediately after passing out of school. While there may be room for discussion as to the style in which thought should be expressed, it is beyond dispute that the clearest writers, those who use the language to express unmistakably what they mean, those who deal with subjects that are nearest to the daily life of the people themselves, ought to become a part of the mental furnishing of each high-school pupil.

So far as possible pupils should be guided in their choice of reading thru their interests. Lists of books which are in the library should be made out in the various lines of reading, from which the pupils may select the books they wish to read. It is not necessary that all the pupils in a class read the same book, or books on the same subject, nor is it necessary that a pupil read a book from cover to cover. Many times only a portion of a book will appeal to a pupil, or be of value to him. This

is especially so in science books, books of poetry, and books where a part meets some interest started in the regular school work; as, a part of a book of history which relates to a topic in the history lesson. The teacher cannot guide the pupils' reading unless she makes a careful study of their interests and needs. She must lead them from the interests of today to higher and wider interests, and utilize at every step interests gained in other lines of work. She must take advantage of new interests closely related to old interests, or those naturally growing out of old interests; interests created by the pupil's environment, as Indian relics in Wisconsin; interests in current events coming to his notice, as a circus in town, the Spanish-American war, the celebration of Washington's birthday, etc.; interests created by the author's interests, as reading a book because another says it is good. Make the pupil's present interests the basis which shall determine his present line of reading. If he is interested in fiction only, then give him a list of fiction from which he may select a book to read. By questioning, by directing his attention, or by arousing his curiosity, he may be made interested in some character, place, fact, or event in the book, and this interest may be made the basis for future reading. Thus a pupil reading *Ivanhoe* may be led to read English history by arousing an interest in Richard the Lion-Hearted. Again, a pupil who has read a story of Holland may be led to read a book of travel in Holland, because of interest aroused in the manners and customs of that country. If the pupil's present interest is in history, science, or other lines of work, a similar plan may be pursued. The work will have to be largely individual.

The work in reading should be definite and clear. The student's judgments should be based upon facts he can point out. It is not enough that he says the music is smooth and flowing. He must recite or read the portions he considers smooth and flowing, and tell what makes them so. If he calls a poem imaginative, he must prove his statement by selecting the imaginative portions. The judgments should be *his own*, and based upon his own reading. As the student progresses, the reading may become more and more intensive, but it should never degenerate into parsing and analyzing. The reports should be oral. The recitation ought to be an exchange of impressions and feelings, a talking over of what has been found enjoyable, good, beautiful, and helpful. The pupil makes his report as a contribution to the whole, and stands ready to answer questions by his classmates and teachers, to discuss with them what he has found, and to compare his judgments with theirs. Thus all take part in the recitation, and attention is secured. By questioning, by directing the attention to what is essential, and by directing discussion, the pupil should be led into the right way of reading. Remember that in all this work the teacher must know, as far as possible, what is in the pupil's mind—for the pupil can understand and feel only by the

assistance of what he has already experienced, felt, and learned. He can assimilate new ideas only by means of his present ones. Every new relation of the idea helps to correct, make clear, and extend the meaning. Instead of trying to get the whole meaning in its one relation, it is often better to read on, getting at truth in different relations, and deepening and enriching experience at the same time.

It is impossible for a student at any one time of his life to comprehend the whole of a piece of literature, no matter how much time is spent in studying it.

*THE GREATER SCHOOL; OR, THE SCHOOL PLUS THE
LIBRARY GREATER THAN EITHER*

H. L. ELMENDORF, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE BUFFALO PUBLIC LIBRARY,
BUFFALO, N. Y.

The object of our compulsory, tax-supported system of education is to make good citizens. The good citizen is, without doubt, the happy and intelligent man; and no less an authority than President Eliot asserts that lifelong happiness and increasing intelligence are best assured by the formation in early youth of the taste for good books. Indeed, he explicitly says that "schooling which results in this taste for good reading, however unsystematic or eccentric the schooling may have been, has achieved a main end of democratic education; and that schooling which does not result in implanting this permanent taste has failed."

For many years educators have seen this fact more or less clearly, and school libraries have been somewhat generally used as a means toward supplementing text-book learning with the broader wisdom of general books, but the institution of the greater school by the federation of the public school and the public library is a much longer step toward true democratic education.

Nearly all school libraries have been made up of supplementary reading and reference-books for the children of the higher grades, small attention being paid to the little folk. Statistics show, however, that a large majority of children leave the public school before they are twelve years old. If our schooling fails unless we teach the love of good reading to all, it is evident that a more far-reaching plan must be found, and attractive, wholesome books must be furnished, not only for the few who persist to the higher grades, but for all, even the youngest. This enlargement of the scope of the school library might, no doubt, be easily accomplished, but if the books are supplied by the school authorities, the children are cut off from the books at the same time that they are cut off from school. If, on the other hand, the public library steps in and puts such books as the children will love right under the teacher's hand; if she

tells the children that these books are a part of a great collection in the public library, where as citizens they have not only welcome, but right; if she teaches them that, tho school days are soon over, reading days need never end, our means for the education of good citizens, of happy men and women, is complete.

When the Buffalo library was made free, in 1897, under contract with the city for its liberal support, plans for co-operation with the public schools were at once considered. The old library, altho it was supported only by private endowment and subscription, by means of one thousand free school tickets had reached out into the schools in a very public-spirited, tho very inadequate, way. In the reorganization, under the contract before referred to, it was provided that the schools should be represented in the board of control of the library by making their executive officer, the city superintendent of education, *ex officio* a member of the board of directors of the public library. The counsel and support of the state superintendent of public instruction, Hon. Charles R. Skinner, were also of great assistance in planning the new work. The official sanction of these school authorities was regarded as the first essential, and was readily secured.

As the proposed plan was both radical and expensive, it was determined by the directors of the library to make the experiment with ten schools only, the ten to be selected by the superintendent of schools and the librarian, from among those whose principals were willing to accept the scheme. All the school principals in the city were invited to a meeting, at which the scheme was thoroly explained, and they were given ample opportunity to understand and discuss it. The outlines of the plan were afterward embodied in a circular letter, which was sent to each principal, and two weeks were given in which to consider it and to decide, in consultation with the class teachers, whether application should be made for the installation of class-room libraries under the plan.

The scheme presented to the principals was, briefly, as follows: Each school selected was to deliver to the public library, reserving purely reference-books, all its school library; these books were to be examined, and those thought fit for the purpose graded and returned to the different class-rooms of the schools, together with enough books added by the public library to make the number of books in each room equal the number of children.

In response to the first invitation twenty-four principals applied for the libraries, and the selection of ten schools was a difficult matter. The distance of the school from the public library, the character of the district in which it was located, and the possession by both principals and teachers of such an intelligent sympathy with the idea as to give the experiment a fair test, were all considered in making the selection.

The old school libraries had been the accumulation of years, partly by gifts, but mostly by purchases made with city and state appropriations for the purpose, which amounted for each school, according to its size, to from fifteen to forty dollars a year. The entire collection as gathered at the public library was a very miscellaneous lot. There were some excellent books, many of them, however, worn to tatters. There were many others which were useless, or worse than useless, for children — Dr. Johnson's and Lord Bacon's works in diamond type, Bible stories in hieroglyphics, old guide-books, directories, patent-office and other government reports, and a considerable sprinkling of novels of a kind that suggested that the literary appetite of the purchaser had been consulted rather than the wants of the children. The trail of the wily subscription-book agents was much in evidence. The librarian's heart is hardened by experience to resist the charm and persistence and influence of these suave gentlemen, for he knows that their wares are seldom or never the best books, and only the best is good enough for children. Altogether the character of the books returned seemed to show a plain need that selection and purchase should be in the hands of a single-headed institution like the public library, which could be held responsible, rather than a composite body of principals and teachers.

After careful sifting, only about 20 per cent. of the school library books were thought fit to be returned, and more than five thousand volumes were added by the public library. These books were selected with the greatest care, in the effort to include only the best. Not only were the literary contents scrutinized, but the editions, in order that the text might be pure, and the type, illustrations, and binding be beautiful. They were bought, too, with the closest economy as to price. It is in all these things that the expert knowledge of the librarian is of service. If to the librarian's expert knowledge of the book the teacher will add her expert knowledge of the child, the combination should surely bring about the ideal, "the best reading for the largest number at the least cost."

The list, as finally made up, was submitted to State Superintendent Skinner and City Superintendent H. P. Emerson, and received their approval. With their approval also the state funds appropriated for school libraries were devoted to the purchase of purely reference-books, to be the property of the schools, thus making it possible for each school gradually to build up a good school reference library, relying entirely upon the public library for miscellaneous books.

The most difficult problem was the assignment of the proper books to the proper grades in the various schools. Many errors were made at the start, especially in giving children books too old for them. Two full years of constant observation and experiment have served to correct some mistakes and to emphasize the fact that no definite rule for grade and age can be made. Each particular school, each separate class, must

be studied with the teacher's help, before intelligent assignment of books can be made. For example, a class of children from a poor community where books are scarce, or one of foreign parentage, will require simpler books than one of equal age and equal school grade from a community where books abound in the homes. This fact greatly lessens the value of printed graded lists, which can only show safe books and assign them to approximate ages.

For keeping track of the books the simplest possible system of charging was devised to be kept by the teacher. An alphabetic list of the books by their titles, with spaces for the names of the pupils drawing them and for the date of drawing and date of return, was sent with the books. All the compilation of statistics from these records was made each month by assistants from the library. The library requires these statistics for the very simple reason that appropriations of money are dependent upon demonstrable results; and definite figures, obtained from trustworthy records of use, are the only results which can be shown.

Not only was the work of the teachers made as light as possible, but the responsibility also. Rules for the use of the books were of the teacher's making. Each teacher was given to understand that the books were for use, and for use in the way she thought best, except that they were not to be used as rewards or punishments; that they might be read in school, in the class, by the teacher, or taken home, but that the child should no more be deprived of his library book on account of some breach of discipline than of his text-book for a similar reason. The bad boy needs the good book most. Reasonable care of the books was required, but no more than of school property, and if loss or damage occurred, there was no money liability for the teacher.

The experiment was successful from the start. It pleased principals, teachers, and children alike, and, while the success varied with the interest and ability of the teachers, none wished to return to the old way. The usefulness of the books is in no way confined to the children who attend school. The public library in this way gains a welcome where it was unknown, or little understood. The contact of teachers and children in this unofficial way is good for both, and many most interesting and even touching stories of the effect of the books in the homes are told by the teachers.

Twelve schools have since been added, making twenty-two in all, with 359 class-room libraries. The number of volumes sent out in September, 1899, at the commencement of the school year, was 15,248. During the year additions and changes were made to the number of 5,005, making a total of 20,253 volumes. The libraries are changed once during the year by shifting from room to room, or from school to school, different libraries of the same grade. Assistants from the public library visit each class-room twice each month, and the number of additions and

changes gives some idea of the flexibility of the list. The circulation for home use from September 1, 1899, to June 1, 1900, was 169,193. A table follows showing the circulation by months and the classification of the books drawn:

SCHOOL CIRCULATION—SEPTEMBER, 1899, TO MAY, 1900

	Philosophy	Religion	Sociology	Science	Useful arts	Fine arts	Literature	History	Travel	Biography	Fiction	Total
September, 1899	2	1	139	815	171	37	1,563	905	498	351	6,991	11,473
October, " 13	..	..	232	2,050	408	69	4,310	1,726	1,016	673	16,510	27,007
November, " 13	..	..	189	1,953	354	61	4,287	1,707	1,020	610	16,088	26,277
December, " 4	..	..	113	1,398	221	50	2,697	1,106	691	413	10,626	17,319
January, 1900	4	..	98	1,261	236	48	2,926	1,049	663	423	10,333	17,041
February, " 4	2	..	82	1,137	228	48	2,411	954	646	405	9,451	15,367
March, " 3	..	..	135	1,630	285	69	3,551	1,242	908	619	13,708	22,150
April, " ..	..	..	112	1,280	237	45	2,985	934	675	461	10,540	17,269
May, " 1	..	..	68	1,155	236	30	2,678	806	588	386	9,342	15,290
Total	38	3	1,168	12,679	2,376	457	27,408	10,429	6,705	4,341	103,589	169,193

Thus far, less than half of the schools in the city have been reached, and the story is not told as if we had already attained, but criticism and discussion are invited that present methods may be improved, or better ones suggested.

The growth of the work has been as rapid as the supply of money and of trained, intelligent workers would permit. Neither library assistants nor teachers could safely go too fast. The ideal, however, is the closest federation of the two institutions; that federation to work toward the development of each individual child along the line of his own strongest inclination and greatest ability.

DISCUSSION

REUBEN POST HALLECK, Louisville, Ky.—I wish it were possible in Louisville to do some of the things which the Buffalo library and other libraries are doing for their students. I trust it will not be long before these privileges are ours, and I hope, while our progress is slow, that it will be sure. President Eliot's maxim ought to be every pupil's motto. Pupils who go out from the public schools and do not know what to do with their time are a personal disgrace to their teachers. A reading, thinking student will not feel bored, no matter what his surroundings may be. If pupils are taught to love to read, it will not be long before the dawn of better things.

H. L. ELMENDORF.—The work of the Buffalo library for the schools in general has been a recent movement. While the library was opened in 1837 and was very public-spirited, its privileges were given only to its best pupils until a very recent period.

R. C. METCALF, Boston, Mass.—For many years I have felt that a school library was a necessity, and I have acted on this theory since 1879, and my object is to teach children to love to read. Sets rather than single books will do this. In my work in 1879 I set aside one hour each week for a discussion of the works of certain authors, and

in this way acquainted the pupils with Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, and others. It was of incalculable value to the poor children who had no books in their homes, and they were the ones who became the most deeply interested and received the most help. From these books they learned good English. They learned to think. They learned to discriminate. Much of the good to be obtained depends upon the culture of the teacher and his knowledge of literature. He cannot give out to pupils what he does not himself possess. In the large majority of schools there is still lacking on the part of the teacher an appreciation of good literature.

WILLIAM M. SLATON, Atlanta, Ga.—I have been much interested in listening to these finely prepared papers, but what I would like to get from this meeting is some specific methods of how to do the work which is here pointed out as being so necessary. We are very much hampered in our work in Atlanta by a lack of knowledge of the plans and work of our public library, and I should like to have some methods pointed out for the instruction of the teachers, so that they may know how to lead the pupils to use the library independently. It is as much a part of the high-school work to teach students how to use books as it is to teach them what they contain. Teachers, as a class, do not understand this, and at present we must look to the library for most of the culture that comes from the use of books.

MISS ELLEN FITZ SIMONS, Charleston, S. C.—Our library is a subscription library, and it is not possible to help the schools as much as I should like, but so far as I can I make the material accessible to those who do use the library by means of bulletins and lists and other plans for calling attention to the books which we have on the various topics of interest.

MISS M. E. AHERN, of Chicago.—There is no active co-operation between the public library and the public schools of Chicago. There is some provision for such co-operation, but for the most part it is a dead-letter law.

In Cleveland there is the most hearty and active co-operation between the public libraries and the public schools. Many of the public schools are used as branch stations of the public library, and the young people of Cleveland are thoroly interested in and helped by the public library and its work.

The same is true of the public library of Toledo. This library prepares graded lists of the works on its shelves, and sends them to the different grades in the city schools, to bring the children to use more freely the children's room. The plan works very successfully.

Milwaukee also is proverbial for the fine work that is being done there in connection with the public schools. There are many other cities thru the western country where there is an active, live co-operation between the public libraries and the public schools.

THE FREE TRAVELING LIBRARY: AN AID TO EDUCATION AND A FACTOR IN THE NATIONAL LIFE

MRS. EUGENE B. HEARD, MIDDLETON, GA.

This paper will doubtless savor of provincialism. It could not be otherwise and speak the truth as to conditions that exist in the South. It is intended to deal plainly with the social and educational problems that confront our people, and to offer a remedy that will mitigate, if it cannot altogether remove, the evil.

To those reared in the centers of wealth, where for more than a century philanthropy has provided public and permanent libraries, the

necessity for similar or equivalent institutions in the rural districts is not apparent. Perhaps it would be a better form of statement to say that the fact that these districts have not these advantages does not occur to those more favorably situated. It may be laid down as a safe proposition that all enterprises that have for their object the betterment of mankind spring from a conscious necessity. My own recognition of the need of free libraries in the rural districts is not of recent date; but the facilities to put them into practical operation in those sections of the South traversed by the Seaboard Air Line Railway were furnished less than three years ago. The world has advanced to the point where the value, and even the necessity, of books is generally recognized. The advantages of *free* libraries is appreciated mainly by those who could not otherwise have access to them. The value of a free *traveling* library is greater because it represents the product of the number of libraries multiplied by the number of places served. To illustrate: The system of the Seaboard free traveling libraries which I have in charge consists of 2,000 volumes. These are subdivided into thirty cabinets or smaller libraries. In this subdivision variety and harmonious classification are duly observed. Under this system thirty communities are served at the same time. These cabinets, if allowed to remain three months in each place, would serve in the course of seven and one-half years thirty communities with every volume of the 2,000 for three months. That the usefulness of the traveling library is increased thirty-fold is proven by the logic of figures.

Undoubtedly it would be better to have a standing library of 2,000 volumes in each community, but this would require thirty times as much money, and to get this now is impossible. And yet to have the books pass over the circuit every few years will of itself beget a keener appreciation on the part of the people to be benefited.

For more than seven years I have studied the subject of rural libraries. Long before the work reached practical and effective materialization my mind had been full of plans and theories by which the people of these isolated districts might have these advantages. The first scheme to which I directed my efforts was to establish a small library in one community, and pass it to the next as soon as it had been utilized, and so on until the circuit was completed. This necessarily limited the sphere of work to those places of my personal acquaintance and even to those of my immediate vicinity. This was better than no library.

But for a work of this character to be effective and to accomplish its greatest usefulness it is necessary to attach it to some active, working organization, the very nature of which will give vitality and constancy to the library. Those enterprises that have their inspiration in patriotism and whose only working capital is enthusiasm are liable to periods of desuetude as well as times of activity. Those enterprises founded on business principles for the purpose of profit gather additional strength

as they progress, and will continue as long as the restless ambition of men and their unchanging love of money shall dominate the forces of the world.

Therefore, when nearly three years ago the Seaboard Air Line Railway Co. opened the way for a coalition of our plans and purposes, the ideal combination was reached and the pathway to successful work became clear. This effort on the part of the railway was more than generosity; it was more than business sagacity; it was more than philanthropy; it was the highest order of statesmanship. In no other way could the library movement have been so conspicuously presented. The world loves contrast. It loves novelty. Here were both. The novelty of a gigantic corporation, heretofore supposed to be soulless and altogether selfish, stepping out and with an extended hand offering light and pleasure and prosperity to the working common people, attracted their attention. It did more. It established confidence, declared a reciprocity of interests, and cleared the way for a better understanding between capital and labor.

And now I come to discuss, I hope in an orderly way, the three great questions that control the library work. Every lateral issue falls within one or the other of these questions.

1. Is the free traveling library a necessity?

That it is a luxury to the poor need not be argued. That it is an advantage does not admit of question. But is it such a necessity that our people cannot afford to do without it?

I would not knowingly offend any man or woman or child. Above all, I would not slander this southland. Born on its soil, reared among its people, the graves of my dead rest in its bosom, the feet of all my living tread its pathways, all my joys and my sorrows and my hopes are inseparably connected with my country's destiny. As dear to me as Mecca to the followers of Mohammed is this southland, and with all its faults I will love it forever. But I should be untrue to myself and to my people's best interest, were I not to say that there exist thruout all these southern states, in greater or less degree according to locality and previous advantages, conditions of direful and calamitous lack of necessary knowledge. There are exceptions, and brilliant exceptions. That the South has furnished to this republic the bravest of men has been demonstrated on every battlefield where its flag has been carried. That she has furnished more than her share of great orators and statesmen has been proven in the highest forum of the union. Nevertheless, among the masses of the common people the facilities of broader education have not existed.

These people are not to be blamed. In proportion to their opportunities they are the worthiest of citizens. For forty years the South has suffered from misfortunes, from mistakes, and from uncontrollable conditions. In no way have these disasters wrought more deeply than in

educational matters. Men now fifty years of age were deprived of school advantages by reason of the Civil War. Men of forty years, on account of the fearful distress and poverty following as a result of that war, were compelled to labor unceasingly during their youth. The high schools and colleges in the South are mainly the product of the last thirty years. The reasons for all this need not be detailed. The calamitous conditions exist. The truth is not overstated when I declare to you that in these so-called times of plenty and prosperity and hope there is no abundance sufficient to soothe the troubled hearts of thousands of our countrymen. There is no prosperity universal enough to lighten the burdens of tens of thousands of toiling men and women. There is no hope divine enough to illumine the darkened homes of millions of our people. Upon them the sun rises in pity and goes down in compassion. These people are not mendicants. They are workers, but workers under disadvantages. They need only opportunity and light. To withhold the one and deny the other is nothing short of national disaster. I am not speaking of children within the school age, but of men and women between the ages of eighteen and fifty, whose education was impossible for the reasons given. The public-school system is gradually being perfected, and as rapidly as financial prudence justifies. The children will be taken care of, tho in a limited way. But to reach and help these grown people is the question of the hour. They are already bowed down with the burdens of life. They deserve help. They are the stay of the country. They would scorn direct charity. The pride of the common people is great. Yet today they stand enslaved by circumstances, and their clanking chains may yet beat the death march to this republic.

To reach the public heart effectively and without offense is the art of arts. These people need and desire that knowledge that will enable them to work intelligently and successfully. There is but one way to reach this class. It is thru the free library and thru the medium of their children. No other method can be so effective. No other plan can be so graciously presented. There can be no doubt, there can be no challenge, that this work is a necessity.

2. Is the free traveling library practical?

The best answer to this question is found in the opinions of those who have received its benefits. From the towns where these libraries have been placed come scores of letters expressing the people's appreciation. The libraries are but the forerunners of other enterprises. Wherever the libraries have been placed, village improvements, societies, reading circles, mothers' clubs, rest halls, and other associations for the betterment of the people's condition have been established and successfully operated. Heretofore the plan has been to appoint a librarian in each of these towns, holding him responsible for the good care and safe return of the books. The popularity of the library depends largely on the tact of the

librarian. A poor librarian can destroy the effects of a library in a short time.

We are now developing a plan which will undoubtedly increase the usefulness of the work. It is the purpose of the management to place these libraries in the district schools, along the lines of the Seaboard Air Line Railway. This will give the teachers and pupils everyday access to all the books. The teachers will be made the librarians. These are generally well-educated young men and women, who will enter into the plan with pleasure and enthusiasm. Thru the pupils these books will be carried into the homes of the people, and thus reach the class that most needs the library. Therefore, with the railroad as a partner, representing live, active, and vigilant work, with the public schools a co-partner furnishing the medium of easy and safe distribution, the benefits desired cannot fail. There is nothing visionary or intangible in these plans to operate the free traveling library. It is a plain, business-like manner of politely and delicately conferring a benefit that requires simply common-sense in its management.

3. Is it worth the effort?

This question cannot be answered as yet. I can but declare my faith in its results and give persevering work to the cause. It is a maxim of law that for every wrong there is a remedy. And for every necessity there is resource for relief. We have shown that the necessity exists for a broader and more general culture among the masses of the people. It is needed to meet conditions as well as competition. It is needed to intelligently solve ever-recurring social and moral, financial and political, problems.

There was a time when men of comparatively limited opportunities achieved success and won the prizes of life. That time has passed. He who would keep abreast of the dawning century needs a trained head, skillful hands, and a courageous heart. Georgia has been an organized state for more than a century. During that time she has given to the world its best illustrations of manhood and womanhood in many of the vocations of life; yet within her mountain depths for ages has slept a wealth of gems whose golden faces never caught the sunlight's sparkle until a stranger's skillful hand set in motion wondrous machinery that coined Georgia's wealth for foreign coffers.

To read the simpler books on agriculture, on mechanics, and the practical sciences incites to deeper inquiry. Mental activity once begun gathers strength with momentum. Research once started furnishes limitless power. Ask the men who have achieved greatness—those who have from the humblest walks of life reached and kept the highest niche of fame—where and how they began their upward strides, and nine out of ten will tell you: "From the inspiration of some good book."

If the judicious selection and distribution of these free traveling

libraries contribute so materially to individual usefulness and happiness, what of its effect upon the nation's life? This republic is not yet a finished fabric. Robust and buoyant and hopeful as it stands, the day of governmental experiment has not passed. All statesmanship is not concentrated in the president and his cabinet, nor in Congress; nor is judicial interpretation infallible. The masses of the people are after all the sovereign of this republic. In the homes of the common people rests the ark of the covenant of this country's safety. To complete the purposes of the fathers, to make our country's the world's best form of government, the patriotism and wisdom of its people must contribute.

Patriotism is generated at the hearthstones of virtuous homes. It is first borne into the human heart on the soft strains of a mother's lullaby. It gathers strength amid the laughter of happy children. It grows strong beneath the shade of ancestral trees, and beside the rippling waters where our fathers dwelt. It catches perfume from the flowers planted upon the graves of our dead. It becomes stronger yet when the glorious legends and traditions of our country are learned, and it reaches perfection when one first looks upon his national flag. To uplift, to brighten the homes of our people is the law of the nation, is the opportunity of philanthropy and the statesmanship of Christianity.

Wisdom is the product of experience acting upon a trained intellect. Patriotism, however intense, does not fully equip the citizen. The library, whether it be book or magazine or newspaper, is the school of the adult. The capacity to distinguish the right from the wrong, the wise from the unwise, is as essential as power to do the right and wise. Knowledge is power, and without it patriotism and virtue are powerless. In every crisis of the world's history it has been the man of trained intelligence who has performed the duties of the hour. Education is cheaper than arsenals, stronger than fortresses, and the teacher is more powerful to protect than the policeman. The primary purpose of this free traveling library undertaking is to elevate the people of the more isolated rural districts, and to enlarge their opportunities for usefulness and happiness. The rights of these people can no more be disregarded than their necessities can be overlooked. They have fought from the ranks in the times of battle. They have paid with their toil the exactions of government in times of peace. They have furnished the new blood and brawn and brain that drive the machinery of national progress. In the sweet breath of the country is found the oxygen of mental and moral activity. Build strong and guard safely the homes of the common people, and in the pure atmosphere of their patriotism and virtue, communism and anarchy shall gasp and die, and the republic shall live proudly on. Build strong and guard safely the homes of the common people, and not all the armies that camp upon the land, nor all the navies that ride upon the sea, can ever furl this union's flag.

I cannot close this paper without giving public utterance to my own and the public appreciation of the efforts of the Seaboard Air Line Railway Co., and particularly of its general manager, Mr. E. St. John, to establish and foster the library movement. Every facility within the limit of sound business methods has been cheerfully given. It is their pride as well as ours. Nor can I express my sense of our obligation to Mr. Andrew Carnegie for his gifts and kindly interest in the welfare of our library and our people more fittingly than by quoting the words of Mr. George C. Grogan, of Elberton, Ga., before the convention of the Industrial Association at Southern Pines. Mr. Grogan said :

It is well known that Mr. Andrew Carnegie, of New York, has given \$2,000 to be expended in books for this library. To one of Mr. Carnegie's wealth the gift of this sum may be considered trifling; but when we consider the sentiment that inspired it this donation becomes invaluable. Especially does the judiciousness of this gift commend itself when we remember that Mr. Carnegie has said that he mainly owes his own success in life to the kindness of a gentleman who loaned him good books. The reason and inspiration of this gift are found in his own experience.

Born and reared as I was in the section most to be benefited by this library, having suffered many of the hardships and privations in common with the people of our once desolated southland, my first recollections are clustered close to where the booming cannons and smoking homes told of Sherman's march thru Georgia to the sea. Bred into the belief that all our ills and misfortunes should be laid at the door of the North, I declare to this audience, composed as it is of both sections, that this modest gift of a northern man, inspired by a desire to help the struggling masses of the common people, has done more to efface the last vestige of sectional rancor than all the pacific messages of presidents or all the resolutions of amnesty ever passed by Congress.

DISCUSSION

PRESIDENT WILLIAMS.—It is the province of the state to provide aid for the proper advancement of its people. If a state is justified in teaching its people how to read, it is justified in providing reading material for these same people. Where they cannot provide themselves with good literature it must give them free access to it as the means of self-preservation.

H. L. ELMENDORF.—If this movement deserves commendation for no other reason, the fact that it gives food for thought to the women of the rural districts would be a strong argument in its favor. One of the greatest causes of the number of people confined in our insane asylums is the monotonous life of the women in the rural districts. It is very fitting, therefore, that women should be the foremost workers in this movement, which is doing so much for womankind today. It has awakened the public conscience everywhere. Women have undertaken to secure the means of further bettering the condition of the rural districts.

There is no limit to the good which the traveling library has done in New York state. In Buffalo the library considers it part of its duty to supply those persons who cannot come to the library—those in hospitals, jails, engine houses, fire departments, street-car

barns, and other places where people are assembled — with small traveling libraries, which are doing a splendid work for the people of the state.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT G. R. GLENN, of Georgia.—The state should provide facilities by which the child can use what he learns in the school. It is a hard problem in our southern states to provide the schools which we have with the money to make our teaching effective, and it is out of the question for the state to provide traveling libraries, so we must depend on the railroad agencies or any other organization that will come to our relief. But to the women of our state belongs the credit of starting this movement and keeping it up. I look, therefore, to the partnership of women in all movements in the uplifting of mankind. Women's clubs are doing a noble work in arousing thought among our people, and in giving help which will make their work more effective.

MISS HARRISON.—One unacquainted with the conditions in our southern states, even in Georgia, is unable to get an adequate idea of the conditions. These traveling libraries bring the only hint of a higher and a better life which many of our people receive. There are 5,000 schools in the state of Georgia, and only ninety-eight libraries all told. One child in 500 has the use of these books.

MRS. COLEMAN, of South Carolina.—The inspiration of this traveling-library movement in this section of the country was first given by Mrs. Heard, of Georgia, and I want to testify that the beautiful sentiments given in her paper this afternoon are the principles which guide and govern her work in these southern communities.

MR. R. C. METCALF.—These theories and plans of library work which we have listened to this afternoon are all very edifying, but the library work for children should be largely in the hands of the public schools. Despite however much care that may be given, there is much viciousness in the material of public libraries, and I am no believer in turning children loose among books without a wise counselor to guide, and this must be furnished by the public schools.

PRESIDENT WILLIAMS.—We must not forget that the best part of our education is what one gives himself, and this self-education comes largely from a contact with books. Traveling libraries lead to public libraries, and while some of our speakers seem to think that poverty stands in the way of the library movement in their community, I have always thought that if people believe a thing ought to be done, it will be done. No state is so poor that it cannot get what the people want, and the magnificent work of the women of the South will ere long lead the men, the lawmakers, to adjust matters so that these wants, so aptly set forth, will be met.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION OF THE DEAF, BLIND, AND FEEBLE-MINDED

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 1900

EDUCATION OF THE DEAF

The department was called to order at 3:30 P. M. in St. Andrew's Lutheran Sunday School building, Charleston, with Miss McCowen, Chicago, Ill., vice-president of the Subdepartment for the Deaf, in the chair.

Prayer was offered by Rev. J. A. B. Scherer, pastor of St. Andrew's Lutheran Church.

In the absence of the secretary, Mr. E. A. Gruver, of New York city, was elected to act in that capacity.

The president, Mr. Warring Wilkinson, superintendent of the Institution for the Deaf, Berkeley, Cal., being absent, Dr. J. C. Gordon, superintendent of the Institution for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill., made the opening address.

Papers were read on the following topics:

1. "The Growth and Development of the Southern Schools for the Deaf," by J. R. Dobyns, superintendent of the Institution for the Deaf, Jackson, Miss.
Discussion by Superintendent N. F. Walker of the Institution for the Deaf, Spartanburg, S. C.
2. "The State of the Case," by Miss Mary S. Garrett, principal of the Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age, Philadelphia, Pa.
3. "Recent Changes of Method in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf," by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
4. "Statistics of Speech-Teaching in Schools for the Deaf in the United States," by Frank W. Booth, general secretary of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
5. "Day Schools for the Deaf, the Logical Outcome of Educational Progress," by Mrs. Marion Foster Washburne, of the Chicago Institute of Education, Chicago, Ill.
Discussion by James A. Foshay, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

In the school exhibit, which was held in the same building, this department was represented by the McCowen Oral School for Young Deaf Children, Chicago, Ill., with photographs of the school and its surroundings; the Volta Bureau, Hon. John Hitz, superintendent, with pamphlets and literature concerning the deaf, and an exhibit of the work in language in the Chinese School, and by a display of language charts; Miss Garrett and several pupils from her school, by an exhibition of work in speech and speech-reading; and by Superintendent N. F. Walker and Miss Nettie Rodgers, a graduate of the South Carolina School, who gave an exhibition of conversational speech and lip-reading.

The meeting adjourned at 6:45 o'clock, to convene in business session in the parlors of the Charleston Hotel at 8:30 P. M.

BUSINESS MEETING

The business meeting of the sixteenth section of the National Educational Association was called to order in the parlors of the Charleston Hotel, headquarters of the association, at 8:30 P. M., Wednesday, July 11, 1900.

In the absence of Dr. Warring Wilkinson, Berkeley, Cal., president of the Department for the Deaf, Blind, and Feeble-Minded, Dr. J. C. Gordon, Jacksonville, Ill., was unanimously chosen president *pro tempore*; and in the absence of the secretary, Dr. E. A. Fay, Washington, D. C., Mr. E. A. Gruver, of New York, was chosen secretary *pro tempore*.

The question of the reorganization of the department was discussed, and, on motion, it was voted to unite the three sections of the department, heretofore known as the Section for the Deaf, the Section for the Blind, and the Section for the Feeble-Minded, so that they will work as one section, with common officers and a common program.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—Miss Mary McCowen, Chicago, Ill.

Vice-President—Mr. E. R. Johnstone, Vineland, N. J.

Secretary—Mr. E. A. Gruver, New York city.

A committee on organization, with Mr. E. E. Allen, of Overbrook, Pa., as chairman, was appointed to report on by-laws at the next annual meeting, and an executive committee, with Miss McCowen as chairman, to prepare the program for 1901.

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12

EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

The department met at 3:30 P. M., Vice-President Edward E. Allen, principal of the Pennsylvania School, in the chair; W. L. Walker, of Cedar Springs, S. C., acting secretary.

After briefly setting forth the object of the meetings, the chairman called for the following papers, which were read:

1. "A Sketch of the Conception Entertained by the Better Professional Thought of the Day Concerning the Function of Schools for the Blind," by Superintendent Dudley Williams, Academy for the Blind, Macon, Ga.

2. "The Higher Education of the Blind," by John E. Swearingen, Institution for the Deaf and Blind, Cedar Springs, S. C.

3. "Ethics of Child Culture," by Miss Sara Whalen, State School for the Blind, Ogden, Utah.

A short discussion followed the reading of the papers, consisting mainly of questions put by the audience and answered by Superintendent N. F. Walker of the Cedar Springs (S. C.) Institution, and by the chairman.

Adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 13

EDUCATION OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED

The department was called to order at 3:30 P. M. by Vice-President Margaret Bancroft, principal of the Haddonfield (N. J.) Training School; Dr. Bailey, of Philadelphia, acting secretary. Miss Bancroft delivered an opening address, summing up the work of the past and forecasting the needs of the future.

"The Treatment of Defectives in the Public Schools" was the subject of an address by Colonel Francis W. Parker, principal of the Chicago Institute.

A paper on "The Training of the Feeble-Minded in Institutions" was read by Dr. E. R. Johnstone, principal of the Training School for Feeble-Minded, Vineland, N. J.

Among those who participated in the discussion, Mrs. Marion Foster Washburne elaborated Miss Bancroft's suggestion of classes for the higher grades of feeble-minded children in charge of specially qualified teachers in the public schools.

The section adjourned to examine the industrial exhibit of the work of feeble-minded children, the most extensive and elaborate being from the Haddonfield Training School.

Adjourned.

E. A. GRUVER,

General Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTHERN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

SUPERINTENDENT J. R. DOBVNS, INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF,
JACKSON, MISS.

I have included in the list of southern state schools for the education of the deaf the following, viz.: Kentucky, established in 1823; Virginia, in 1839; Tennessee and North Carolina, in 1845; Georgia, in 1846; South Carolina, in 1849; Louisiana, in 1832; Mississippi, in 1854; Texas, in 1857; Alabama, in 1858; Arkansas, in 1868; West Virginia, in 1870; Florida, in 1885. While this proves to be the "unlucky number thirteen," we can remember that the original number of states was the same.

In considering this subject we must bear in mind, as we always do when considering the growth of anything in the South, that a terrible civil war devastated this section of the country. Some of these institutions, after they had been established, were wiped off the face of the earth, and their second struggle for existence was harder than the first. While those of the North and West have been built out of the abundance of the people, those of the South have been provided for out of the poverty of the citizens.

Growth.—Their growth has kept pace with the increase in population; their development has been, like other schools for the deaf, as remarkable as the age in which we live. They opened originally with a total attendance of ninety—an average of seven. The enrollment last year was 2,623. They began with one teacher in each school. To carry on the work last year required 244 instructors. Their aggregate original annual appropriations for support were \$84,000. They expended for the same purpose during the last fiscal year \$431,004. The original value of their buildings and grounds was \$48,144. The present value is \$1,977,500. They were opened in various kinds of buildings; some were in rented buildings and some in family dwellings. Georgia and Texas inaugurated their work in log cabins which belonged to them. The buildings of the former are now worth \$85,000; of the latter, \$300,000. From the mean, uncomfortable, and inadequate quarters in which they were started, all except two have grown into imposing, comfortable, and ample brick and stone buildings. From humble suppliants at the feet of legislatures, begging for recognition and pleading for support, they have grown to that stature which commands recognition and demands support.

Development.—From small classes formed to cultivate the power to express thought in the sign and written languages they have developed into great schools for the upbuilding of the physical, intellectual, and moral manhood of the deaf. The best illustration of their development is found in the number and character of various branches of instruction in the education of the deaf, most of which are taught in the southern schools. Those of the handiwork are as follows, viz.: baking, barbering, basket-making, blacksmithing, bookbinding, bricklaying, broom-making, cabinet-making, calcimining, carpentry, chalk-engraving, cementing, chair-making, cooking, coopery, dressmaking, embroidery, engineering, fancywork, farming, floriculture, gardening, glazing, harness-repairing, house-work, horticulture, ironing, knitting, manual training, mattress-making, millinery, painting, paperhanging, plastering, plate-engraving, photography, printing, sewing, shoemaking, sloyd, stone-laying, tailoring, typewriting, venetian iron-work, weaving, wood-carving, wood-working, and the use of tools.

The intellectual and æsthetic natures of the pupils are provided for by their instruction in reading, history, mathematics, science, philosophy, literature, governmental science, speech and speech-reading, art, painting, decorating, engraving, and modeling.

The high moral characters of officers and teachers employed in these schools, and the systematic instruction given, show the development along the spiritual line. So thoro has been the development in all directions that the deaf of the South today stand in need of nothing to place them upon a level with the hearing men and women except *ephphatha*. When we remember that our Savior performed a miracle to enable a man to speak, is it wonderful that the world looks with awe upon the developments in the education of the deaf?

The useful, intellectual, and moral qualities of the graduates of these schools afford a general proof of the broadest development.

The time allowed to this paper would not be sufficient for naming the long list of bright pupils whose gratifying progress has been the inspiration of teachers and the life of our schools. The records here and there are illuminated with the names of pupils whose accomplishments are so brilliant that their products are worthy to be classed with those of the masters. Their embroideries fascinate; their portraits speak; their paintings re-create; their models breathe. It is not necessary for me to repeat here the long list of men and women, the products of these schools, whose consistent Christian lives have been so conspicuous as to make them bright and shining lights. Shall not the influences for good thus set in motion be reckoned as the measure of this development?

From statistics which I had already gathered before undertaking the preparation of this paper I am satisfied that those who have gone out from these schools within the last thirty years are now making, in dollars

STATISTICS OF SOUTHERN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF—1870-1899

	Kentucky	Virginia	Tennessee	N. Carolina (Raleigh)	Georgia	S. Carolina	Louisiana	Mississippi	Texas	Alabama	Arkansas	W. Virginia	Florida	Texas Col.	N. Carolina (Morragantown)	Grand totals
1870-1879																
Average number of pupils.....	102	97	118	121	64	25	34	47	39	53	66	57				833
Male.....	54	55	71	70	33	11	14	23	25	24	38	35				460
Female.....	48	42	47	51	31	14	20	24	14	29	28	22				373
Number of instructors.....	6	8	8	8	5	3	3	4	3	5	4	5				61
Male.....	5	7	6	7	4	2	2	4	2	3	3	3				46
Female.....	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2				15
Deaf.....	3	3	3	4	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2				28
Articulation.....																
Value of buildings and grounds.....	\$80,000	\$175,000	\$130,000	\$50,000	\$35,000	\$30,000	\$225,000	\$50,000	\$25,000	\$50,000	\$25,000	\$75,000				\$950,000
Expended for buildings and grounds.....	8,611	2,661	20,192	26,000	6,000	4,833	500	18,000	24,042	48,000	2,800	25,541				187,180
Expended for support.....	92,499	212,000	120,570	239,005	77,873	74,038	36,923	62,000	75,385	92,021	89,970	142,660				1,314,964
1880-1889																
Average number of pupils.....	172	98	142	119	89	61	42	85	146	61	99	77	10	31		1,222
Male.....	98	53	86	62	62	30	22	45	90	36	54	45	7	22		693
Female.....	74	45	56	57	27	31	20	40	56	25	45	32	3	9		529
Number of instructors.....	11	10	8	8	6	5	4	6	9	6	6	6	2	3		90
Male.....	7	8	5	6	5	3	2	4	4	3	3	4	1	1		56
Female.....	4	2	3	2	1	2	2	2	5	3	3	2	1	2		34
Deaf.....	5	4	3	4	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3		1		39
Articulation.....																14
Value of buildings and grounds.....	\$170,000	\$200,000	\$150,000	\$100,000	\$60,000	\$54,000	\$25,000	\$75,000	\$130,000	\$75,000	\$85,000	\$70,000	\$16,000	\$33,000		\$1,243,000
Expended for buildings and grounds.....	90,972		30,884	13,044	35,997	26,881	500	42,300	114,195	14,500	74,784	2,756				440,813
Expended for support.....	317,466	200,122	234,740	294,605	142,542	67,821	50,000	116,675	213,080	99,104	150,767	246,996	3,700	21,500		2,159,058
1890-1899																
Average number of pupils.....	303	120	227	114	145	108	99	93	269	133	209	116	44	40	102	2,124
Male.....	170	63	131	57	78	56	50	45	154	68	114	60	22	24	52	1,146
Female.....	133	57	96	55	67	52	49	48	115	65	95	56	22	16	50	978
Number of instructors.....	22	12	11	10	10	9	7	9	18	11	16	10	5	4	18	172
Male.....	10	9	6	6	6	4	3	6	9	6	6	7	2	2	7	89
Female.....	12	3	5	4	4	5	4	3	9	5	10	3	3	2	11	83
Deaf.....	5	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	5	1	1	4	57
Articulation.....	6	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	4	4	2	1	2		7	44
Value of buildings and grounds.....	\$143,500	\$150,000	\$75,000	\$55,000	\$85,000	\$61,000	\$300,000	\$75,000	\$300,000	\$100,000	\$800,000	\$90,000	\$18,000	\$50,000	\$175,000	\$1,977,500
Expended for buildings and grounds.....	85,609	15,482	33,054	113,100	41,500	8,920	37,084	37,084	41,338	23,000	69,150	22,093	10,500	18,900	60,000	613,230
Expended for support.....	474,553	236,880	291,576	248,000	184,835	153,772	153,000	166,799	367,799	244,868	260,022	296,775	90,052	106,157	130,000	3,404,035
Number of volumes in library.....	2,200	600	950	1,000	1,200	925	400	700	900	300	1,200	400	250	700	1,300	13,225
Total number instructed.....	1,485	846	1,018	1,121	805	407		500	825	300	616	600	150	75	278	9,196

and cents, annually more than the legislatures of the states appropriate to maintain the schools. I have very carefully compiled, from the "Tabular Statements of American Schools for the Deaf," as published in the *Annals*, the preceding statistical table covering the period from 1870 to 1899 inclusive. I have divided this table into decades, so that by looking backward we may have an idea of what is forward. I beg to assure you that whatever I have left unsaid may be read between the lines of this table.

I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to the *American Annals of the Deaf*, to the *Histories of American Schools of the Deaf, 1817-1893*, published by the Volta Bureau, and to the various superintendents of southern schools.

THE STATE OF THE CASE

MARY S. GARRETT, PRINCIPAL OF HOME FOR THE TRAINING OF DEAF CHILDREN, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

When Ericsson invented the screw propeller for steam navigation, the whole board of the British Admiralty, first lord and all, "demonstrated" that it would be impossible to steer a vessel propelled by a screw applied at the stern. We can easily imagine the discouragements that the young engineer must have had in the course of his work on his experiment.

This same kind of discouragement has been the portion of all those who have claimed and endeavored to show how nearly so-called defective children can be made to be like normal children, provided the same opportunities for all-around development are given them that are or should be the portion of every normal child. Only the minority of the parents and teachers of these children realize what they can be trained to be, and how to do it; so that the present state of the case is that, instead of adding to their opportunities for development, the majority of these children, altho they lack one sense, are actually given less than normal children are given. Of schools for the deaf there are many, but of opportunities such as hearing children have in infancy and early youth there are conspicuously few. We have some examples of parents of these children who, by taking it for granted that they can do what normal children can do, kindly and firmly guide them to this end; who do not deceive themselves with the idea that it is kindness to their afflicted charges to allow them to be selfish, self-indulgent, and helpless; and who, by proper training, have brought them to be cultivated, happy, useful, and symmetrical in their characters.

I have for many years taken the ground that all deaf children who are not imbecile can be thus trained. But, "You can't do it," has been the expression which I have heard more than any other. I might have been discouraged and have believed this, had it not been for the work of a few mothers with their deaf children which convinced me that all the other little ones need is merely the opportunities which normal children have.

The opportunity is nothing mysterious or peculiar; it is merely that, just as the little hearing baby is taught thru its ear almost from birth, the little deaf child should get the same repetition of this natural, everyday language thru its eye, and gradually be led to communicate thru speech just as the hearing child does, and should have no more manual signs made to it than the hearing child has. The little deaf child should in every way have part and parcel in the home life and responsibilities. It will not do to have any more interruptions in the deaf child's opportunities than in the hearing child's, nor is it possible to get the results without strictly using all the means. Unfortunately the majority of the parents of deaf children are blind to their possibilities, and are so bound by the tradition that they *cannot* do things that the children rarely have the proper opportunities given them. No one has a right to say what such children can or cannot do who has not given them these all-around chances from birth to learn thru the eye what hearing children learn thru the ear in infancy and early youth. Any little deaf child who is not imbecile can be trained to oral speech and educated thru it with hearing children, provided its parents, friends, and teachers give it the opportunities which are its birthright.

A clever charity worker said in an address in Philadelphia some time ago something like this: "No institution should exist which does not work for the final result of making itself unnecessary." Altho my sister and I founded in Pennsylvania eight years ago a Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age, and altho we desire that such homes should be founded in every state, we hope that the day is not far distant when such schools will have outlived their usefulness. We trust that every parent of a defective child, and all the friends and relatives, and those who come in contact with such children, will realize that the strict application of the principles above referred to will never fail to bring the results.

We try to make our cottages as nearly as possible like the ideal home, but the conditions cannot be quite as favorable for an afflicted child as if it were in its own home, surrounded only by the influences of and contact with normal people, provided every one of those normal people intelligently realizes that the child must be given every opportunity. At the same time, we are steadily realizing that by getting these little children at as early an age as possible, and surrounding them with the conditions which lead them to the acquirement and use of articulate speech, we can prepare them to return to their homes and hold their own in schools for hearing children, and be educated with them.

We are working with sixty-two children, most of whom are deaf-born, and all of whom came to us without speech or language. Among these about eight find articulation quite difficult, as they accomplish correct articulation more slowly than the other children; but there are none who

do not advance rapidly in lip-reading. The remedy for the eight is, of course, a little longer training.

Of the eleven members of our first class with whom we opened eight years ago, six are already in schools with hearing children; three more will go in September; one was removed by her parents nearly two years ago; and the tenth would have been ready to go if she had not also been removed for fourteen months by her parents. Of the three who will go in September, one would have gone two years ago but that her mother removed her and kept her two years out of school; and another is one of the cases in which articulation is especially difficult, and she required a longer time.

All our little ones receive manual training according to their ages, and one of our boys from the first class went from us to an industrial school for hearing boys, and is reported as doing splendid work in the shops as well as the classes, and is, therefore, learning his trade, as he will certainly have to ply it, among hearing people.

Many of our little ones have no homes, or no suitable homes, waiting for them when they are ready to leave us, and part of our work is to find such homes for them when they are prepared to attend schools with hearing children.

No deaf-born child who has completed with us his preparatory course of learning articulate speech, speech-reading, and language has failed to hold his own with hearing children. Several children have been removed whose parents were unwilling to allow them the all-year-round uninterrupted opportunity for learning speech and language, which is as absolutely indispensable for deaf children at as early an age as possible as it is for hearing children, as a preparation for their school education.

I do not think our duty to such children is accomplished until every one is given this opportunity by those who are responsible for his existence. This leads to the burning question of the right of parents who are thus afflicted to bring other afflicted people into the world, and it seems to me that our whole duty to our kind requires legislation which will prevent the marriage of persons who are liable to transmit defects to their offspring.

CHANGES OF METHOD IN THE PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB

A. L. E. CROUTER, SUPERINTENDENT, INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF, MOUNT AIRY, PA.

In 1870, influenced by the movement in favor of some recognition of the merits of speech-teaching consequent upon the establishment of oral schools for the education of the deaf in Massachusetts and in New York, and by the report of a visit to European oral schools by Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet wherein the introduction of articulation-teaching in all American schools for the deaf was strenuously urged, the management of the

Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb introduced articulation-teaching for such pupils as might be able to profit by it, thus recognizing the desirability for teaching speech to its pupils, at least as an accomplishment, and changing the school from a sign-language school into what is popularly known as a combined-system school.

The sign-language method, the method of De l'Épée, Sicard, and their successors in France and in America, pervaded every department of the institution during the period from 1820 to 1870. So easy of acquisition, so all-absorbing of the mental faculties, so enchanting to its users, teachers and pupils alike, it had become the one easy and acceptable means of communication and instruction thruout the school, and any step limiting its use or weakening its functions in connection with school work or social intercourse was received with many and great apprehensions. Signs for words, for ideas, for persons and places, in schoolroom and lecture-room work, had, in the course of fifty years, become so imbedded in the thought and practice of the school that they were regarded as the *sine qua non* of all successful effort.

Under such conditions the outlook for successful speech- or articulation-teaching was far from encouraging, when, in 1870, the first attempts at such work in the institution were made. The method introduced, one still pursued in many combined-system schools, provided from thirty to forty-five minutes' daily instruction in speech, or articulation, and lip-reading; the various classes, in whole or in part, going in turn to the instructor charged with the duty of teaching speech to the whole school. At best the instruction thus afforded amounted to little more than a certain sort of vocal drill, tiring alike to both teacher and pupils. In no sense could it be regarded as instruction by oral methods.

Recognizing these unfavorable conditions, the authorities of the school in 1881 resolved to introduce separate oral instruction, at least for a portion of the pupils. This was eleven years after the introduction of articulation-teaching under combined-system methods. The experience of these eleven years was sufficiently convincing of the great difficulty, if not utter impossibility, of securing good speech and good lip-reading with only thirty or forty-five minutes' daily instruction, the remainder of the time being given to instruction under very different and antagonistic methods.

The next step was the establishment, at some distance from the main school, of a separate oral department for a portion of the pupils. This department, conducted at first as a day school, at the end of its fifth year contained ninety pupils and nine teachers. In 1885 it was changed from a day to a boarding school.

This important step was taken very advisedly. No class of defectives require for their development more specialized methods of training or more wholesome environing influences than the deaf. The managers of

the institution, recognizing the many advantages of home environment in the education of normal children, were fully sensible of the many arguments since then so widely exploited in furthering the interests of day schools for the deaf. They, however, felt with Dr. Nathan Oppenheim that, while "a household is primarily designed for the needs, comforts, and pleasures of normal persons, it can only with difficulty subordinate its natural usefulness to the needs of abnormal children," and, realizing the serious harm that would be certain to result in the education of deaf children should there be failure to appreciate, to the fullest extent, the great differences between normal and defective children, were led, very wisely, to decide in favor of the boarding rather than the day-school system for this department. In our experience under the day-school plan it was found very difficult to control attendance, to enforce discipline, or to secure satisfactory and helpful and healthful home influences. With the change to a boarding school, all these unfavorable conditions were remedied, and the work of the department almost immediately assumed a higher and better tone.

The work of the institution was prosecuted at this period (1883-88) in the following manner: in the main school in manual or sign-language classes with instruction in articulation in half- and three-quarter-hour periods to a portion of the pupils; in two oral classes, formed in 1883-84, in the same department, and from which signs and spelling as means of instruction were excluded; and in oral classes in the separate oral department. Instruction was continued under this classification for five years, the orally taught classes slowly increasing in number each year. The articulation classes grew smaller, their speech-work in comparison less and less satisfactory, until the year 1888, when articulation-teaching of this character ceased altogether. Since then the work of the school has been practically confined to two methods only, the oral and the manual. Intermittent speech-work has been banished from the curriculum.

Comparative tests of the results under the two methods were conducted for a period of five years (1888 to 1892 inclusive), grade for grade, class for class. The examinations, based on the work pursued in the manual department, were taken alike by the pupils of both departments, and in no one instance were orally taught pupils, of equal grade, found inferior to manually taught pupils; in many respects their work was superior. In the language tests their work was almost invariably superior; in statement of facts, as in history or geography, they also frequently excelled. The results of these tests were remarkable. They proved conclusively that the congenital deaf, the adventitious deaf, and the semi-deaf—in fact, all deaf children of good health and good mental powers—may be successfully taught by oral methods alone.

Upon the transfer of the institution to Mount Airy in 1892, the separation of the oral from the manual department was made complete by

merging the two oral classes of the manual department into classes hitherto taught in the separate oral department. The merging of the pupils of these two classes with pupils similarly instructed, but without sign-environment, brought to light some interesting contrasts. It was found in the case of the former that their speech and speech habits were not so good nor so firmly fixed; that their lip-reading was not so reliable; and that their attainments were not in general so high. This was true class for class and pupil for pupil, and whether deaf-born, semi-deaf, or semi-mute. When closely compared with pupils who had enjoyed complete separate oral instruction, it was clearly shown that their years of sign-environment had told upon them for the worse.

The injurious effect of sign-environment upon pupils orally taught received further demonstration in our experience at Mount Airy, when, on account of the greatly increased number of pupils under oral instruction, we were compelled to associate intermediate oral classes with manual classes in the same hall. The work of the pupils of these classes, in so far as their speech and lip-reading were concerned, greatly deteriorated, emphasizing in marked degree the statement already made that speech methods and sign or manual methods do not and cannot combine to the advantage of pupils instructed under what are known as combined-system methods.

Prior to the year 1892 the growth of the oral department during the ten years of its existence was slow. With the removal of the school in that year to Mount Airy, and with the passage of an act by the legislature, in the session of 1893, requiring all new pupils received into the school to be placed under oral instruction, and to be maintained under oral methods of instruction until it was plainly shown that they could not be benefited by it, the oral department has rapidly increased. The following comparative table gives the yearly increase from 1881 to 1899 inclusive:

Department	'81	'82	'83	'84	'85	'86	'87	'88	'89	'90	'91	'92	'93	'94	'95	'96	'97	'98	'99
Manual	319	317	297	332	337	337	340	313	315	312	312	274	200	176	152	121	93	66	48
Oral	36	52	66	69	87	96	96	120	120	120	125	170	260	304	350	390	410	440	452
Total	355	369	363	401	424	433	436	433	435	432	437	444	460	480	502	511	509	506	500

From this statement it will be seen that in 1881, when the separate oral department was established, the manual department contained very nearly 90 per cent. of the total attendance, and the oral department a little over 10 per cent.; that at the beginning of the competitive examinations, in 1888, the manual department contained over 72 per cent. of the total attendance, and the oral department less than 28 per cent.; whereas in 1899, completely reversing their relative positions, the oral department contained over 90 per cent. of the total attendance, and the manual department less than 10 per cent. Thus had the oral method in a

competitive trial of nineteen years, 1881 to 1899 inclusive, forced itself to the front by sheer force of merit.

During this long period of trial, extending over almost twenty years, there were cases of apparent oral failure; and in such instances the authorities of the school always stood ready to transfer to the manual department, in the hope that its supposed superior merits, as a means of instruction, might do for such pupils what the oral method seemed incapable of accomplishing. I have some striking statistics to submit on this point: From 1881, when separate oral instruction was introduced, to 1899, there were received into the school 1,130 pupils, of whom 671 were placed under oral instruction and 459 under manual. Of these 671 oral pupils 71 failed to make satisfactory progress under that form of instruction, and were transferred to the manual department for instruction under manual methods. In other words, of the large number of pupils orally taught during this period, but $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. were regarded as failures. But were these failures owing to the method of instruction pursued, or were they rather the result of inferior mental powers on the part of the pupils themselves? Their history under manual instruction must answer the question. And when I say that of these seventy-one pupils transferred from the oral to the manual department during these nineteen years, but three, less than 5 per cent., attained even average success under manual methods, it seems to me the answer that it was not the method, but the mental condition of the pupils, that was at fault, is at once conclusive and complete.

But let me apply this failure test to the work of the oral department when it was more fully organized, say from 1892 to 1899 inclusive. During this period there were received into the institution 516 pupils, of whom 493 were placed under oral instruction and 23 under manual. Under oral instruction, but 20 of these pupils have been regarded as failures, and transferred from the oral department to the manual. That is, in a period of eight years, with a total of 493 pupils placed under oral instruction, the percentage of failure is not quite $4\frac{1}{4}$; and today, with a total of 500 pupils under instruction, 452 orally and 48 manually, there are but 14 oral failures in the school—under 3 per cent. of the total attendance.

With such experiences as these, covering a period of almost twenty years, I am forced to conclude that "when a deaf child cannot be educated by the application of proper oral methods, it is useless to hope for any marked success under any method." And after a most careful comparative examination of the relative merits of oral and manual methods of teaching the deaf, extending over this long period, and including almost every phase and variety of such methods of instruction, I fully believe that proper oral methods—by which I mean the use of speech and speech-reading, writing, pictures, and the free use of books—are fully adequate to the best education of the deaf.

STATISTICS OF SPEECH-TEACHING IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES

FRANK W. BOOTH, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
TO PROMOTE THE TEACHING OF SPEECH TO THE DEAF, MOUNT AIRY,
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Speech-teaching in America upon its present permanent basis dates back for its beginning to 1867, when the Chelmsford, Mass., school was started by Harriet B. Rogers. From that year and from that school the movement has grown rapidly, but it was not until seventeen years had passed, or until the year 1884, that statistics of speech-teaching were collected and given us. In that year, in response to a request of the first Convention of Articulation Teachers, meeting in New York, the *American Annals of the Deaf* incorporated a column in its annual statistical tables giving the number of pupils "taught speech" in the several schools in the country, which column has been retained in the annual tables published up to this time. In 1892, in response to a request of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, the *Annals* introduced still another column showing the number of pupils in the schools "taught wholly by the oral method." This column has also been retained up to the present time (with a change, however, in its title, made in 1896, so that it now reads: "taught wholly or chiefly by the oral method"). The footings of the *Annals* tables for the years 1884, 1892, 1893, and 1899 are shown in the following table, together with computed percentages based upon the footings. Returns as to pupils "taught wholly or chiefly by the auricular method" are also given in the table:

STATISTICS OF SPEECH-TEACHING IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES

(Compiled from the *American Annals of the Deaf*)

Year	Total schools in the United States	NUMBER OF PUPILS				PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS		
		Total pupils	Taught speech	Taught wholly or chiefly ¹ by the oral method	Taught wholly or chiefly ¹ by the auricular method	Taught speech	Taught wholly or chiefly by the oral method	Taught wholly or chiefly by the auricular method
1884	61	7,482	2,041			27.2		
1892	80	7,940	3,924	1,581		49.4	19.9	
1893	79	8,304	4,485	2,056	80	54.0	24.7	0.96
1899	112	10,087	6,236	4,089	128	61.8	40.5	1.27

¹ The words "or chiefly" were added to the designation of this column in 1896.

In the year 1886 the *Annals* added a column to its tables showing the number of articulation teachers employed in the schools for the deaf in America. For purpose of comparison, and to show percentages of increase in contrast, the footings of 1886 and 1899 are presented so far as they show the total number of pupils in the schools, the number taught speech, and the number of articulation teachers :

STATISTICS OF SPEECH-TEACHING IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES

(Compiled from the *American Annals of the Deaf*)

	1886	1899	Increase in thirteen years	Percentage of increase in thirteen years
Total pupils.....	8,050 ¹	10,087 ¹	2,037	23.3
Taught speech	2,484	6,236	3,752	151.0
Articulation teachers.....	134	561	427	318.6

In thirteen years the figures thus show an increase of 23 per cent. in pupilage—a fair growth, keeping up probably with the normal increase in population of the country. This growth is accompanied, however, with the extraordinary increase in the same time of 151 per cent. in the number of pupils taught speech, and with the still more extraordinary increase of 318 per cent. in the number of articulation teachers. The inquiry may arise: Why the very much greater percentage of increase in the number of teachers teaching speech in comparison with the percentage of increase of pupils taught speech? The explanation is: There has taken place a great change, not only in the quantity of speech-work done, but also in its character, the old “half-hour” speech classes having largely given way to the “all-day” classes, thus requiring a much larger number of teachers to instruct the same or any given number of pupils.

As time goes on, changes in methods are inevitable; and in the case of a versatile people, such as is found in this country, a variety of methods prevailing and practiced is also inevitable. To meet these conditions, and to cover them statistically, an inquiry has within the past two years been instituted by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, the lines of which follow and conform to the several varieties of methods actually in use in the various schools of the country at the present time. The inquiry in its several lines aims to show: (1) the number of pupils in the schools; (2) the number taught by speech and speech-reading, without being taught at all by the sign-language or manual alphabet; (3) the number taught by speech and speech-reading, together with a manual alphabet, without being taught at all by the sign-language; (4) the number taught

¹ The figures for 1886 indicate the number of pupils in attendance during the year. The figures for 1899 indicate the number of pupils present on a specified day (November 10).

by speech and speech-reading, and also taught by the sign-language and manual alphabet; (5) the number taught speech and speech-reading as an accomplishment, but speech not used as a means of instruction. The returns covering the above lines of inquiry have been made up for the two years 1899 and 1900, and have been published by Dr. Bell in the *Association Review*. For purpose of comparison the footings of Dr. Bell's tables of returns for the two years are presented in the table below:

STATISTICS OF SPEECH-TEACHING IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES

(Compiled from the *Association Review*)

Year	Number of schools reporting	Total	NUMBER OF PUPILS					PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS				
			Taught by speech and speech-reading			Taught speech and speech-reading		Taught by speech and speech-reading			Taught speech and speech-reading	
			No manual spelling No sign-language	Taught also by manual spelling		Speech not used as a means of instruction	Returns unclassified	No manual spelling No sign-language	Taught also by manual spelling		Speech not used as a means of instruction	Returns unclassified
				No sign-language	Taught also by sign-language				No sign-language	Taught also by sign-language		
1899	86 ¹	9,349	2,496	1,549	972	535	478	26.7	16.5	10.4	5.7	5.1
1900	109 ²	9,786	2,757	1,643	995	582	430	28.2	16.8	10.2	5.9	4.4

An interesting series of tables recently published by Dr. J. C. Gordon, of the Illinois Institution, shows the amount and the character of the speech-teaching as practiced in the schools in the several geographical divisions of the country. The tables show that in the entire United States 43 per cent. of the deaf children in school are taught by oral methods exclusively, 18 per cent. by "mixed" or "combined" methods, and 30 per cent. by "sign" or "manual" methods exclusively; in the New England states 61 per cent. are taught by oral methods exclusively, 31 per cent. by "mixed" or "combined" methods, and 8 per cent. by "sign" or "manual" methods exclusively; in the middle states 61 per cent. are taught by oral methods exclusively, 27 per cent. by "mixed" or "combined" methods, and 12 per cent. by "sign" or "manual" methods exclusively; in the central and western states 41 per cent. are taught by oral methods exclusively, 17 per cent. by "mixed" or "combined" methods, and 42 per cent. by "sign" or "manual" methods exclusively; in the southern states 24 per cent. are taught by oral methods exclusively, 7 per cent. by "mixed" or "combined" methods, and 69 per cent. by "sign" or "manual" methods exclusively.

¹ Fifteen schools did not report.

² Six schools did not report.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

JOHN E. SWEARINGEN, INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AND BLIND, CEDAR SPRINGS, S. C.

[AN ABSTRACT]

Ours is an intellectual age. Thought now dominates the world of man almost as effectually as light and heat control the world of plant and animal life, and the nation, the class, or the individual that does not feel and recognize its power can never be anything more than "a hewer of wood and a drawer of water." The dominion of brain has superseded the dominion of brawn, and today he that possesses a ready and well-trained mind has within him a power that supplies or creates resources for the satisfaction of all his wants. Hence, the school and the college have become essential factors in our civilization, for in all countries the problem of life has largely been resolved into the problem of education. Even our marked industrial progress is directly attributable to this subtle intellectual force. A people's advancement is measured by its enlightenment, and the recognition of this fact has made education one of the most important functions of the modern state. Knowledge, therefore, is no longer the possession of the favored few, for its acquisition has been rendered compulsory by the exigencies of life, and in many communities by the additional force of strict legal enactments.

This tendency toward the widespread dissemination of truth is universal in its scope, not only embracing every nationality, but also including every class and almost every individual. The spirit that has organized our common-school system has not neglected those who by reason of physical infirmity are shut out from its advantages. The blind youth of the country are being trained in forty-two special schools, where the appliances and methods of instruction are better adapted to their peculiar needs; and in them these pupils are learning that life is not all shadow, even tho the eye perceives nothing of the wonderful effects of light and color, nothing of the beauty and grace of form and movement, nothing of the grandeur and sublimity of the works of man and nature. These two-score institutions have done, and are still doing, much to encourage and uplift the blind, and the practical philanthropy that established them brought a greater blessing than vision to the hundreds that have learned in them the joys of knowledge, the beauty of truth, the power of thought, the love of independence, the dignity of labor, and the obligation of work.

Higher education is becoming more and more a necessity for all classes, in consequence of the continually increasing demand that competition is making on skill and training. The specialist now controls every department of industry, and whether the workman toils in the shop, the laboratory, or the library, he must bring to his task all the power and

efficiency of which he is capable before he can make sure of success. This tendency affects the blind most vitally, since it requires that thoroness, accuracy, and mastery of details which are gained only after months and years of unwearied application. The man that lacks these traits cannot perform excellent work of any kind, and this is essentially true of the realm of thought, where the blind find their greatest opportunities to win their greatest triumphs.

Possibly the greatest obstacle in the way of higher education of the blind lies in their own diffidence, irresolution, and lack of energy. When the available text-books in embossed type were much fewer than at present, the more ambitious and determined spirits mastered the curriculum of some of our best colleges, and these students uniformly assert that they were not specially handicapped or overworked. Now that many text-books may be had, the blind youth that wishes a degree has only to make a considerable outlay in these to bring under his fingers geometric and trigonometric diagrams, the classics of different languages, and scientific laws and formulæ. The supply of such books is inadequate, but this deficiency can be made up by studying with classmates. If the blind student brings to this joint work alertness, discrimination, interest, power of analysis, appreciation, and the desire to give as well as to receive assistance, his lack of sight will be a help rather than a hindrance. It will enable him to work with several instead of one pair of eyes, to view each subject from the standpoint of others as well as from his own, to perceive aspects and relations that would have escaped his attention, to learn the sympathy that worth always gives to merit, and with all this to know the deep pleasures afforded by the friendship of those whose aims and ideals are the products and acme of all that springs from "knowledge, virtue, refinement, and religion." The blind boy or girl that has this spirit needs nothing besides except the preparation that is demanded of all, and if this is assured, his high resolve must certainly bear him to success.

But this is the end rather than the beginning of a college course. Men who have never been forced to do without eyes measure those who have by an altogether false standard. They seem to forget that, tho sight may be one of our most valuable possessions, it is still only a means of conveying impressions to the mind. Professors and students alike are too ready to discredit the ability of the blind, and to discourage their efforts the moment they present themselves for entrance examination. This spirit of questioning and discouragement is by no means stimulating to the blind; but it must be met and conquered before their higher education can be realized. When once met it becomes equally as strong a help in attaining this end in each individual case.

If this be the attitude of scholarship, observation, and experience, it is hardly to be expected that untutored classmates are more credulous.

The translations of Horace and Cicero from memory or oral reading, the writing of modern-language dictations, the mental solving of complex mathematical problems, and the ability to get by hearing what others get by sight, are novelties that they are always ready to test. This interest is the blind student's opportunity. If properly employed, it will crystallize into an abiding spirit of helpfulness that is of inestimable value. His competency to do the work that he has undertaken must be recognized both by instructors and classmates, but the former can be gained all the more easily if the latter be used to secure it.

The conditions that make this possible are thoro preparation and the disposition to return favors. Without the one, any student is a drag to the class; and without the other, the blind student forfeits his right to expect what he stands in absolute need of. The attitude of doubt that many hold toward the higher education of the blind is partly due to the ill-advised course pursued by some that cannot see. Praised and petted at home for doing things that are required of others, the blind boy and girl not infrequently forms an exaggerated opinion of his own powers, and expects from strangers that partiality which is shown by his immediate home circle. Ignorant of his weakness, and oftentimes unacquainted with real work, he enters college, learns too late his own deficiency, fails, and goes back to friends to soothe his vanity by joining in his denunciation of the hostility and narrow-mindedness of mankind. Companions with sight who meet the same difficulty go back to their books, master them, and soon qualify themselves for what they wish to do; but the blind youth folds his hands, and the college community attributes to the lack of sight what is a direct consequence of the want of application, energy, and determination. A few such instances give rise to the opinion that blindness and incompetency are synonymous; thus the failure of one reacts on all. To remove this obstacle is the mission of the special schools for the blind, and the management of these should see that no graduate attempts a college course unless he possesses the preparation that insures at least a successful beginning.

The written work that a college course requires is not so burdensome as might at first be supposed. With the typewriter the blind student can readily do any writing that is necessary, and anything that requires special thought and revision can be written with a stilus and tablet. A knowledge of some system of point-writing is invaluable, and where no typewriter is accessible college-mates are more than willing to copy from dictation any written exercise that is imposed. In every instance with which I am acquainted the blind student had no difficulty in doing all the writing he wished, and if experience is any indication, we may expect that no student without sight need anticipate difficulty on that account. Oral exercises are sometimes substituted without loss, but this cannot remove the necessity for written work, altho the thoroness, alertness, and

penetration it demands are no small part of education. Copying in "Braille" or "New York point" should be reduced to a minimum, since the time thus spent results only in placing the blind student on an equality with seeing classmates, and is therefore a tax on strength and endurance that has no great practical benefit.

What, then, is the conclusion of the matter? That the higher education of the blind is both needful and practical will be readily admitted, but that this is not recognized by the general educator is equally as true. The question must be worked out by the blind themselves, and its solution depends less on dollars and cents than upon the spirit actuating those who have a desire for education and the will to satisfy it. The 480 colleges of the country afford ample opportunity to all, and the drag-chain prejudice that has hitherto held down the blind can be destroyed only by the unrestricted mingling of sighted and sightless in the college class-room. That we are in some measure handicapped is not to be denied, but that we are able to overcome this limitation by work is also evident to every thinking mind. Let college authorities everywhere give to blind students the same welcome and encouragement they give to others, the same duties and the same privileges; and they will find these too are capable of making worthy use of their advantages.

THE CLAIMS OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED

MARGARET BANCROFT, PRINCIPAL OF THE HADDONFIELD TRAINING
SCHOOL, HADDONFIELD, N. J.

[AN ABSTRACT]

The memorable events of the passing week, the crowded sessions, the learned papers and discussions, all these have shown rapid strides in educational purpose and technique; and, as applied to the vast army of normal children, would seemingly show that the race is always to the swift and the victory to the strong. But in the quiet of this gathering at the fag end of this great convention we surely must not lose sight of the paramount claims on our attention and sympathy of the less richly endowed little ones who in this age of progress toward perfection have too often received but little share of the advantages so freely accorded to their more fortunate brothers and sisters.

The first step in satisfying the claims of mentally deficient children is to see that training schools are established in every state, and day schools, with facilities for the special training of backward children, in every city. Some may ask: "Cannot these children be trained in their own homes or with other children?" I answer, "No;" for the conditions in which such boys and girls are placed are such as to make suitable training an impossibility. In dealing with such children every cause and effect

should be carefully studied by the skilled practitioner and the student in psychic phenomena, in order to remove, if possible, the bodily obstruction, whatever it may be, which impairs or prevents the normal working of the mind.

Backward and mentally deficient children need specially trained teachers, and also a human environment adapted to their peculiar needs. They must be under the care and influence of those who can comprehend with sympathetic intelligence their peculiar phases of mind—phases at once complicated, delicate, and sensitive in the extreme. Therefore to place them in the care of teachers not especially trained, or in classes with normal children, is a procedure as unintelligent as it is unkind. We must surround them by the persons, the objects, and the scenery which will develop their limited powers as fully as such favorable conditions alone can make possible. This can be done only by providing state and private schools in which the selection of teachers, of methods, and of appliances shall be made with intelligent reference to the special needs of such children.

Let me say one word in regard to the proper teachers for these children. Knowledge of psychology gives an insight into the work which will be highly beneficial, and we do not speak disparagingly of it; but given two teachers, otherwise well qualified, that one will be the more successful who is possessed of a motherly instinct and a sympathetic nature. Should you add to essential characteristics a suitable practical training and a working knowledge of psychology, you have the perfect teacher for mentally deficient children. Take away the sympathetic nature and the mother-love, and substitute merely the cool, calculating, scientifically trained teacher, and place such a teacher over these children, and you will have no satisfactory results. We want common-sense brought to bear in this matter. Therefore I would urge the establishment of training classes for teachers for mentally deficient children. These classes should be attached to good schools for such children, where teachers in training would get a practical knowledge by daily experience. In this way efficiency would be secured, the teacher getting at the same time a practical and a psychological training.

In view of these considerations may I be permitted to urge that a representative from our work be placed upon your committee which at present represents secondary schools and high schools, but which has at present no members representing the interests of the blind, the deaf, or the mentally deficient? We need the mentality which may accrue from this union, and you need the practical knowledge which we shall be able to bring to your meetings. There is every reason to feel that such a representation would result in benefit to all concerned. We urge the appointing of a delegate from schools for mentally deficient children and one representing the interests of backward children; and that the papers

and discussions in these meetings be reported and printed in our magazine; thus giving to the teachers in our institutions the benefit of your advanced knowledge.

I desire to call attention to the needs of the southern states and to express the hope that this association will use its influence to secure the establishment of state schools of this kind in the South. We have on an average one mentally deficient child to every five hundred in the population, and practically no provision in the South for their training. I also call the attention of the public to our private schools for neurotic children. I see no reason why these schools, which are doing good work in this line, should not receive endowments as do our colleges and universities.

In the well-conducted private school where individual work is done in the class a better knowledge can be obtained as to real results than in any other way. If these private schools should receive from time to time small endowments, they would be enabled to pursue a course of scientific work which would be impossible in our larger institutions. One of these schools, with an average attendance of less than twenty-five children, spends annually, in caring for and training them, \$23,000. With such an expense as this you can readily see that the school could not afford the additional cost of extra scientific experiments. I have no doubt that other private schools could send a similar report, and that they all desire to invite inquiry and inspection. For my own part I would urge that the private schools should be open to state inspection.

Like Cato, who always finished every speech with the words, "Carthage must be destroyed," I shall always, in pleading for the mentally deficient child, strongly urge that such children be unsexed. For this there are two reasons: first, that there should be no possibility of such children's propagating their kind; secondly, for humane reasons. This idea, given out two years ago, received thoughtful consideration and resulted in good. I hope that the next two years will see some state, if not states, sufficiently advanced in civilization and humanity to pass a state law requiring the unsexing of all those unfitted to propagate their kind. This law should apply to all cases of pronounced mental, physical, and moral deficiency. In this way the action of the state will radically remove a great part of the underlying cause of degeneracy.

For the same end, the thoughtful and highly enlightened members of this great educational association, as they return to their respective fields of labor, must use their influence in making the teachers in our schools see to it that students under their care, from kindergarten to college, should be taught the laws governing physical and moral development, so clearly, so positively, that each boy and girl, as body and mind advance to maturity, may see it to be their sacred obligation to prepare themselves to perpetuate physical and mental soundness. This will do away with impurity of thought and action.

Since I last spoke before this association I have been more than gratified to find that the terms "idiot" and "imbecile" are gradually being dropped; "mentally deficient" and "backward" are the words substituted. Chicago employs the term "neurotic," which, thus far, is the best name for the class of children in which we are interested. In the work we are called to do as educators we find that all our pupils, even those regarded as normal, are more or less deficient in some mental or physical feature or endowment; and I wish that, as applied to the class of pupils in which our department of the association is especially interested, the term "defective" might be dropped. Unless you make a division which will place all who are not absolutely perfect, physically, mentally, and morally, on the "defective" list, you have no right to make any division. We therefore respectfully request that, in the future, this department be known as the department for the blind, deaf, and neurotic.

The new theory of evolution puts forth the idea that the fittest are responsible for the rest. Shall not we, who, we trust, are fittest, feel our sacred responsibility in having intrusted to our care these weaker little ones who have come into this great world imperfectly fitted to carry life's heavy burden? The normal child can, to a great extent, manage his own education; and yet it would seem that almost all our educational thinking looks to the care and development of the mentally sound and capable. While recognizing the importance and the wisdom of giving our best efforts in good measure to the training of the large body of our youth who are mentally strong, I would most earnestly solicit for the less fortunate a measure of thought and effort commensurate with their urgent needs.

ON THE TRAINING OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED

E. R. JOHNSTONE, PRINCIPAL OF NEW JERSEY TRAINING SCHOOL FOR FEEBLE-MINDED, VINELAND, N. J.

In considering the care and training of the feeble-minded today I shall have time to touch but lightly upon one of the greatest, if not the greatest, of the sociological problems of the world.

The term "feeble-minded" is used to include all degrees of defect, from the speechless, helpless, profound idiot up to the child but slightly below normal and often differing from normal only in that he lacks what is usually called good common-sense. Most specialists, for convenience, recognize three divisions: the idiotic or lowest grade, the imbecile or middle grade, and the feeble-minded or highest grade. While theoretically these classes are distinct, in practice no line can be drawn, and children often pass from one grade to another in the course of training.

Ten per cent. of public-school children are defective to such an extent that the attention of a specialist should be given them. There is hardly

a primary school in the country which does not contain its backward child, who is so far backward that the public-school system does not reach him ; and he drifts from class to class year after year. Occasionally he is promoted, only because the teacher can do no more for him, and finally, unfit for the buffets of the world, he is turned into it to sink into more hopeless dependence.

The census of 1890 gave more than 95,000 feeble-minded and idiotic persons in the United States. Ohio had more than 8,200 ; Indiana, 5,500 ; Michigan, 3,200 ; New Jersey, 3,600 ; and so on thru the states, the proportion being about the same in all. These figures probably fall far short of the facts, for it is hard to get accurate statistics, because parents are sensitive and are unwilling to believe, and even more unwilling to admit, that their children are feeble-minded. Now, altho the most prolific cause of feeble-mindedness is degeneracy, there are many other causes.

We find among our institution records many instances of children being born feeble-minded because of some accident just at the time of birth, or because of unusual disease on the part of the mother. Some became feeble-minded shortly after birth because of fever or other illness which the sensitive brain could not withstand.

In the feeble-mindedness caused by degeneracy our chief work must be preventive. Many, if not most, of the insane, epileptic, criminals, paupers, vagrants, and prostitutes, and some of the blind, deaf, and consumptives, are degenerates. Their offspring do not of necessity exhibit the same form of degeneracy as they do, but most of them partake of that form called feeble-mindedness. Therefore, right here, preventive measures must be used. No longer should any degenerate be permitted to reproduce his kind.

Provision is now made in the special institutions of the country for less than 10,000 of the host of feeble-minded. Most of the remaining 86,000, and over, are in the hospitals for the insane, the poor-farms, the orphans' homes, or running at large in the village or the slums of the great cities. Chicago alone has more than 2,500.

The feeble-minded child comes to us for training in all forms of mental, moral, and physical asymmetry. His powers may equal those of the normal child of ten, or they may be no better than those of a babe a few months old. His acts are purposeless or immature. His attention, imagination, memory, and observation are often almost wanting. His will is weak, and his judgment is at fault. His ideas of propriety are often lacking and his conception of common morality erroneous. Physically he is usually deficient. His features are sometimes repulsive, often out of proportion. The eye wanders restlessly or stares insensibly. The weak, flabby, unreliable hand, the unsteady gait, the open mouth, the automatic movements of the limbs, are all conspicuous signs of his feebleness. This being, this creature representing the sum of man's

infirmities, is one of God's children. In the Middle Ages he was thought to be possessed with evil spirits. The Greeks carried him to the mountains and left him to perish. Even until the end of the eighteenth century he was supposed to be beyond human help, and so was neglected by teacher and physician; and even the church considered him a child of the devil. But we in the nineteenth century are learning better. We are coming to recognize him as one of those of whom Christ said: "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these, my brethren, ye have done it unto me."

Beginning with the attempt by the celebrated French physician Itart to train the "Savage of Averyon," about the year 1880, the work has been carried on nobly and tirelessly up to the present time.

Each step in the training of the feeble-minded must be reduced to its simplest form. The progress made by a normal child in one month often requires a year to accomplish by the feeble-minded child, and many of the things the normal child learns from no other teacher than nature and his own exuberant spirits we must teach our child. He must learn to walk and run and play, laugh, shout, and sing. These are all brain-producers. The weak body, the weak mind, and the weak moral sense go hand in hand. Strengthen the one and the others are made stronger. Of all the forms of physical exercise play properly guided is undoubtedly the most valuable. As most feeble-minded children play but little, their efforts must constantly be encouraged. The child who makes a success of play, that is, who gets out of it the highest mental, moral, and physical training, is carrying an ideal to completion with all the force at his command. He is increasing his gray matter. The trainer must be with his children at play as well as at work. This is a field for training too much neglected in the public school. The great ethical effects of playing fair on the playground, upon living fair in the future, is too often lost because of the absence of the moral force of a good teacher at play-time. Special gymnastic exercises must have a place in our curriculum, but they should ever be secondary to play.

By combining music with games the wandering attention of the feeble-minded child, so hard to find and keep, is more easily held. Music itself is a very important branch.

The sensory cells of a child's brain are developed in patches, which intercommunicate by means of nerve-filaments. As each patch increases in size and strength, it increases, strengthens, and correlates all adjacent patches. All knowledge of the external world comes thru one or more of the special senses.

Therefore our child's eye must be taught to see, his ear to hear, his nose to smell, his tongue to taste, and his hand to feel; and thus we shall increase the potency of his brain. The educational value of the work-bench has long been appreciated in the schools for the defectives.

Our industrial departments are our laboratories. In the summer time we substitute the garden, the rake, and the shovel for the work-bench, hammer, or needle.

In the study of the so-called "ordinary school branches" the work among the feeble-minded is one of the simplest. Arithmetic is practically limited to the four fundamentals. Grammar consists of simple language lessons intended to give correct forms of expression. Geography begins with the roads, fields, woods, springs, etc., found in the immediate neighborhood, and learned by actual contact. History consists of stories. In reading the child begins with the things he understands. Seguin reports a case as follows: "When will R—— be taught to read? When his senses will have conveyed to his mind enough correct objective impressions. His store of ideas, of names, qualities, and actions is yet too small. But when he will be put in the possession of the art of reading he shall not be exposed by an imbecile teacher to read what he does not understand, because for a long time he will be taught to read only what he will have written, and write only what his mind shall dictate to his hand."

One thing more: I must emphasize a point which has to a great extent hampered the growth—mental, moral, and physical—of humanity. It is this: teachers and trainers almost universally call attention to the evil rather than to the good; to the failures rather than to the successes of their children. Down thru the centuries this prevailed until Christ said, "Thou shalt," and so, like a ray of sunshine across the storm clouds of depression, he started the loving gospel of encouragement rather than the discouraging "Thou shalt not" of former days. As Christian men and women we must follow his teaching. We have fallen into the old ways, and must rise to the needs of our children. We must rather commend them for their good actions than blame them for their bad ones. We must raise our pupils by making them conscious of their strength and power, and not force them lower by fastening around their necks the millstones of failure. The loving, trusting, impressionable souls of these school children of the country are in the hands of us, their teachers. To them we seem very near to God. We must walk circumspectly, for God holds each of us responsible for whatsoever we do unto them.

DEPARTMENT OF INDIAN EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1900

The session of this department opened at Freundschaftsbund Hall at 10 A. M.; Dr. J. G. Bulloch, Cheyenne Agency, S. D., in the chair. After prayer by Rev. Charles S. Vedder, and a vocal solo by Miss Quigley, addresses of welcome were made by Henry P. Archer, superintendent of city schools, Charleston, and W. K. Tate, principal of the Memminger Normal School of Charleston. Responses were given by Rev. H. B. Frissell, Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, Hampton, Va.; Professor O. H. Bakeless, Carlisle Indian School, Carlisle, Pa.; and Miss Estelle Reel, superintendent of Indian schools, Washington, D. C.

The program of the department for the several days was as follows:

SECOND SESSION.—FRIDAY, JULY 6, 10 A. M.

Prayer—Rev. E. O. Watson, pastor of Bethel M. E. Church.

Piano solo—Professor Saul, of Charleston.

Address—"What is the Relation of the Indian of the Present Decade to the Indian of the Future?" Dr. H. B. Frissell, principal of Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

Discussion—C. D. Rakestraw, supervisor of Indian schools, and F. F. Avery, Crow Creek, S. D.

Paper—"Sanitary Conditions," Dr. J. G. Bulloch, Cheyenne Agency, S. D.

THIRD SESSION.—MONDAY, JULY 9, 10 A. M.

Prayer—Rev. H. B. Frissell, Hampton, Va.

Piano solo—Professor Saul, of Charleston.

Address—"The Training of Teachers for Indian Schools," Professor Charles Bartlett Dyke, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

Paper—"The Proper Relation between Literary and Industrial Education in Indian Schools," A. J. Standing, assistant superintendent, Carlisle Indian School, Carlisle, Pa.

Paper—"The Health of the Indian," Dr. C. C. Wainwright, San Jacinto, Cal.

Paper—"The Teaching of Trades to the Indian," F. K. Rogers, Hampton Institute, Va.

Paper—"The Training of the Indian Girl as the Uplifter of the Home," Miss Josephine E. Richards, Hampton, Va.

FOURTH SESSION.—MONDAY, JULY 9, 2 P. M.

Address—Colonel Francis W. Parker, Chicago Institute, Chicago, Ill.

Paper—"Kindergarten," Miss Mary Griffith Richards, Haskell Institute, Kansas.

Paper—"More Systematic Training along Industrial Lines," Miss Kate E. Hunt, Haskell Institute, Kansas.

Paper—"Kindergarten Methods," Miss Blanche Finley, Hampton Institute, Va.

FIFTH SESSION.—TUESDAY, JULY 10, 10 A. M.

Prayer—Rev. T. A. Reed, of Charleston.

Piano solo—Professor Saul.

Address—Dr. J. M. Green, president of State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

Address—President W. M. Beardshear, Ames Agricultural College, Iowa.

Discussion—"Rapid Progress in Literary Work of Indian Children Who Have Had Industrial Training," Professor O. H. Bakeless, Carlisle, Pa.

Paper—"Practical Methods in Indian Education," John H. Seger, superintendent of Seger School, Colony, Okla.

SIXTH SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, JULY 11, 10 A. M.

Paper—"More Systematic Training along Industrial Lines," Mrs. Cora M. Dunn, superintendent of Rainy Mountain School, Okla.

Paper—"The Teaching of English in the Indian Schools," Miss M. J. Sherman, Hampton Institute, Va.

Paper—"The Outlook for the New Indian," Mrs. Jessie W. Cook, Carlisle, Pa.

SEVENTH SESSION.—THURSDAY, JULY 12, 10 A. M.

Paper—"The Field Matron's Work," Mrs. Lida W. Quimby, Tacoma, Wash.

Paper—"Domestic Science," Mrs. Lillie McCoy, Washington, D. C.

Paper—"Dry-Weather Farming," John Seger, superintendent of Seger School, Colony, Okla.

Closing address—Miss Estelle Reel, superintendent of Indian schools, Washington, D. C.

GEORGE H. BENJAMIN,

Acting Secretary.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE INDIAN PROBLEM

REV. H. B. FRISSELL, PRINCIPAL OF HAMPTON NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE, HAMPTON, VA.

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT]

I realize that in speaking to the audience gathered here I am addressing many who know much more of the Indian problem than I do—men and women who have devoted their lives to its solution, whose daily contact with the red man in his own home has given them opportunities of understanding him and his needs such as are not possible to us who live at a distance and gain much of our knowledge at second hand or from occasional visits to the Indian's home. And yet there are some advantages in viewing objects at a distance. Those of us who have to do with eastern schools are watching with sympathetic interest the work which the great body of western Indian workers are accomplishing, realizing to some extent the great difficulties under which you labor, rejoicing in your successes, and modestly forming opinions as to the things that need still to be done before our brethren in red shall attain to the full stature of American citizenship. Allow me to thank you and our superintendent of Indian schools for the opportunity of saying a few words to you on the problem to the solution of which many of you have given your lives.

I am grateful, too, for the privilege of speaking of this subject before an audience composed largely of southern men and women, who are struggling with the greatest race problem which this or any other country has had to meet; for, while the Indian and negro problems are very unlike, yet they have many things in common. The western reservation resembles to some extent the southern plantation, and I believe that those of us who have to do with the education and civilization of Indians can learn many

things from the dealings of our southern friends with the plantation negro. While we all rejoice in the fact that slavery is a thing of the past, yet I firmly believe that under the most favorable conditions it was a much more successful school for the training of a barbarous race than is the reservation. Slavery brought the colored man into close contact with his white brother, training him in habits of work, giving him a knowledge of the white man's language and religion. Never, I believe, in the history of our civilization has a great mass of barbarous people advanced so rapidly as have the blacks on this continent in the last three hundred years. On almost all the southern plantations, and in the cities also, negro mechanics were bred, as well as excellent blacksmiths, good carpenters, and house-builders capable of executing plans of high architectural merit. The negro was taught to work, to be an agriculturist, a mechanic, a material producer of something useful. We can hardly claim such results from our reservation system. It separates the Indian from the white man, it pauperizes him by giving him rations, and while of late years instruction in agriculture and industrial pursuits has been given, yet we have been slow to realize that the opportunity and disposition to labor make the basis of all our civilization.

The Indian's point of view.—In order to understand the difficulties that we, as Indian workers, have had to meet, it will be necessary to consider the attitude in which the Indian and the white man have stood to one another. The Indian in his wild state was a natural aristocrat. He looked with contempt upon the white man, considering him as belonging to an altogether lower order of creation. Like the men who came to England with the Conqueror, whose names were written in the *Doomsday Book* entitling them to land and to lives of luxury while others labored, so, I believe, the Indian considered himself a superior being whose ownership of land gave him the right to live without labor, which, however, it was quite proper and fit that we poor white people should perform. He also despised the white man as a soldier. He did not believe in his courage or in his ability to contend with him. One who has had long years of dealing with the Indian told me of the remarks that were made by the Sioux at the time of the Custer massacre. They spoke of the whites as children unfit to bear arms. They also had a contempt for white morality, and not without reason. Their treaties had been broken; the white men they were accustomed to see about the reservations twenty years ago were not of such a character as to command respect for themselves or the civilization which they represented. Not only did they despise the white man, but they hated him as well. The race prejudice which is so strong in the white race is vastly stronger, I believe, in the Indian race. The children from their earliest infancy are taught to hate the white man. He represents to them all that is bad. It is not strange, then, that progress in the education of Indian children by white

people was slow, nor that those who have gone back from our Indian schools to the West have had a hard fight. They have had to struggle against a race prejudice which had behind it the sanction of religion and was bound up with all the tribal customs of the people. It is a cause for thankfulness that they have done as well as they have. Many a brave fight has been fought by those students who have gone out from our schools, and the progress of the last thirty years is largely due to the influence they have exerted. Many of them have failed, as was to be expected. They have been exposed to the sneers of the whites, who are not always glad to have intelligence and business ability increase too rapidly among the Indians. Little has been said of their struggles to do right, or of their successes, but their failures have been made known to the whole country.

Annihilation of the Indian is still much more popular with a large portion of the people of this country than is assimilation. When you talk with a white man on the borders of a reservation about the education and uplift of the Indian, you are quite likely to meet with the sort of sympathy which General Whittlesey met with in one of his visits to the Crows of Montana. The rough westerner who drove the stage-coach said to him: "Are you one of them that is trying to tame these Indians? Well, I'll tell you how I tame 'em. There's a well in my backyard; there ain't no water in it, but there's seven tame Indians in it."

It is because the Indian problem is so much the problem of educating the white man and lifting him out of his barbarism that it is so discouraging. Some years since a company of legislators visited an Indian school on the sabbath. In his address to the school one of these lawmakers said: "The Bible tells us that it is right to lift an ox or an ass out of a ditch on the sabbath day, and I reckon that is what the principal of this school is trying to do for us."

What long years of struggle it has taken to make the average American citizen believe that there are any possibilities in his red brother! There are few things more significant as to the attitude of the ordinary well-dressed American citizen than to hear his remarks in visiting a class of Indian boys and girls; he speaks of them as tho they were "dumb driven cattle." "Are you civilized?" was the question put by a visitor to an intelligent Sioux boy. "No," said he; "are you?"

When we are asked, then, why it is that it takes so long to civilize 250,000 Indians, one answer certainly is that we have had to wait to civilize white men about them. The education of the white and red races has had to go on together, and I for one believe that God has left this red race with us that he might teach us some lessons in righteousness, in truth, in love, and in self-sacrifice.

Many of the men in Washington look upon those who come there to plead the cause of the Indian as wild fanatics, who take time which ought to be devoted to the discussion of the currency, the tariff, or the river and harbor bill. And yet year after year they have been obliged to take the time to discuss questions concerning the homes and lands and schools of native Americans. I believe that no part of the education of our lawmakers at Washington has been more wholesome and helpful to them or to the country than those discussions. If there is to come to us as a nation any good out of what seems to many a public calamity in the expansion of our rule over the islands of the sea, I believe it will be not so much because of our added commerce and increased wealth as because we shall be obliged to consider more and more what the relation of the wise ought to be toward the ignorant—what duties the civilized owe to the uncivilized. We shall be obliged to learn that we, who are strong, ought to bear the infirmities of the weak.

What has been gained.—What, then, has been gained by these years of struggle? A lifelong friend of the Indian took me aside in Boston the other day and said to me: "You know how some of us here in Boston have been exposed to the gibes and sneers of those who think that it is vain to try to uplift the Indian, and that there is no profit in all this work. Tell me, are you losing heart? How does it seem to you? Is it really worth while?" I am sure that all of you who are before me tonight feel that this work which you are doing is really worth while. You do not need to be told of the improved sentiment at Washington, or of the advance of appropriations for Indian schools from \$20,000 in 1876 to \$2,936,080 in 1899. Nor need I dwell upon the vast improvement there has been in honest dealing on the part of the government. Dr. Edward Everett Hale once told at Mohonk of an interview with Charles Sumner in Washington, in the year 1865, when he said to him: "Look here, Sumner, you have got these colored people free, and there seems to be a chance that you will get an amendment to the constitution thru. Why don't you take care of the Indians now?" Dr. Hale said that he paused for a whole minute before replying, adding that it was the only time that he ever saw him look thoroly dejected. Then he said: "Hale, I don't think you know what you ask." I said I guessed I knew what I asked. "I don't think you do," he answered; "Hale, the whole Indian system in this country is so rotten that anybody who takes hold of it has to tear it all up from the roots and turn it all bottom-side up. There isn't a thing in it which is right, and everything has got to be torn up and planted over again before it will live." But, as Dr. Hale went on to say, it has been torn up by the roots, and things have been turned over and over again. What Charles Sumner said of the Indian service in 1865 could not be said with truth today. Altho there still remains much land to be possessed, altho our senators and representatives are not yet all saints,

still there is an earnest endeavor on the part of the majority of them to give the Indian his rights. We have had at the head of the Indian Office for years men who have labored diligently and honestly for the uplifting of the Indian. The whole tone of the Indian service at Washington has undergone a change within the last thirty years for which we have reason to be thankful.

My opportunities for observation in the field have been limited compared with yours, but I have seen great improvement there also in the twenty years since I have had to do with Indian affairs. Tho it is still true that the agent is sometimes much more the agent of cattlemen, land-grabbers, and lumber trusts than of the Indian, and while it must be confessed that the rights of the Indian have been sacrificed to the supposed necessity of pushing war measures and expanding our territory, there is yet no reason to doubt that there has been, and still is, a great movement forward. There are many good agents in the field; our Indian inspectors are, for the most part, intelligent men, who have thoro knowledge of their work, and the superintendents and teachers of the Indian schools are a fine body of men and women. Here civil-service reform has had fair play, and most of these people have been chosen, not to pay political debts, nor thru the influence of senators or representatives, but because of their ability to teach and their interest in their work.

Progress has been made.—I believe it is fair to say that what we call the state has made progress in its Indian work. I wish that I could say as much for the church. It is not worth while to discuss here the oft-argued question of government aid for mission schools; I think there has been a distinct loss in power since such men as Bishop Whipple, Dr. Strieby, and others went to Washington to advocate just measures of legislation. They were an education to the church as well as to the state. I feel that the Indian cause needs the help of every possible influence for good, whether it comes thru Catholic priest or Protestant layman. I do not believe in the infallibility of the pope or of the General Assembly. The work of both needs inspection and supervision by the people; but I wish both might have every possible chance to work for the poor and ignorant of every race. It may have been wise to withdraw government aid from sectarian schools. It certainly was not wise for the churches to withdraw their help from the Indians, nor to feel that the government could do the work of the church. I am much more in sympathy with a Catholic who fights for appropriations and keeps up his own contributions than with a Protestant who gives up appropriations and withdraws his support. When, in response to the cry of separation of church and state, the Protestant churches gave up their government appropriations, there was a distinct promise on their part that private beneficence should take the place of government help; that the Indian should in no wise be neglected. The promise has not been kept. Just

at the time when the Indian needed most the help of faithful Christian missionaries in the passage from barbarism to civilization, church aid was largely withdrawn. The work of such men as Bishop Hare and Bishop Whipple, the Riggses and the Williamsons, was much curtailed. The Unitarians gave up the work among the Crows; the Friends relinquished White Institute, where excellent work was done. The failure on some reservations of the land-in-severalty bill was distinctly traceable to this cause.

The wonderful progress of the last twenty years among the Indians is largely due to the work which the early missionaries performed. The Minnesota massacre of 1862, where 500 whites, with women and children, were slaughtered in retaliation for real or fancied wrongs, resulted in the defeat of 2,000 warriors, of whom thirty-nine were hanged and over three hundred held for three years in jail. It was the beginning of the advance of the great Sioux nation. From the work of a few missionaries among those imprisoned men, who for the first time listened to the gospel, grew seven churches and an impulse which created among the Sioux universal respect for the representatives of Christianity and a confidence in their teaching which has gone far toward making possible their progress in later years. These Indians and their friends were all finally assigned to Devil's Lake, Sisseton, Santee, and Flandreau agencies, in Dakota, with plenty of land, but no food except what they could earn by their own labor. Fortunately, they were long kept under good and permanent agents, who saw that they were provided with seeds, implements, etc., and who wisely assisted them in cultivating and, in some cases, selling their land. The result is that they, 3,500 in number, are today self-supporting and the most progressive of all the Sioux. The eight hundred Santees, descendants of those who thirty-two years ago were condemned to death, and who were so hated by the whites of Minnesota that they threatened to hang the missionaries who taught them while in prison, are now homesteaded, Christianized American citizens and voters.

Give the Indian in general such treatment as this handful of desperate Sioux warriors received, and the trouble is over. The past century has been one of blundering rather than of dishonor, and from the first it has been a question of men rather than of measures. Personal contact has been the mainspring of all Indian progress in this country. It is the secret of the wonderful success of Major Pratt, Rev. Dr. Williamson and his sons, and the Riggses of Dakota, of Archdeacon Kirby in British America, of Mr. Duncan's great work in Alaska; and it is the vital point in all uplifting work. The touch of the noble lives which are being spent in the service of the red man is better than any spoken word. The first step with the Indian is to gain his confidence; and no man, saint or sinner, who ever trusted an Indian has found his confidence misplaced. More

than a hundred thousand Indians are today challenging American Christianity to do its best for them, and I am glad to say here that not a few of their own people have come to the front and are now holding the remoter outposts as teachers and catechists, setting such examples of decent living as make them leaders in progress and types of what all Indians with a fair chance may become. The Christian church should take no backward step.

Tribal system weakened.—Let me speak briefly of the improvement among the Indians in the matter of land, homes, and schools. Altho the land-in-severalty bill has not effected in some cases what was hoped for it, there is no doubt of the valuable results that have been brought about thru the allotment of land to individual Indians. The hold of the tribal system has been gradually weakened, and the rude shacks with their stacks of hay and grain make it clear, even to the superficial observer, that the Indian's roving days are over. Altho it is undoubtedly true that some of the reservations have been opened to the whites before the Indians were ready for it, and altho the onset of the lower element of whites upon the Indian lands has resulted, in many instances, in the demoralization of the Indian, yet it is only thru this hard process that he is to come to stronger manhood. There is no question that the giving up of the agent, the letting in of whisky, the leasing of the Indians' land to the white man, have usually resulted in a temporary backward movement; yet even in the worst of these cases, among such tribes as the Omahas and the Winnebagoes, where drunkenness and licentiousness have held alarming sway, there is evidence of a consciousness on their part of their degraded condition and a reaching out toward better things. In the case of the Sioux Indians, where the agents have been retained while the allotment was going on, and where there was more help from missionaries, the change has come without such dreadful demoralization.

Occasionally visits to the agencies along the Missouri river have made clear the vast improvement that is going on. Twenty years ago citizens' clothing was the exception; now it is the rule. The coat has replaced the blanket, leggings are giving way to trousers, and the curious bond that comes from wearing the same style of garments is felt. It is like speaking the same language, and results at once in increased friendliness. Citizens of Pierre, Chamberlain, and other towns near the reservations, who are certainly not likely to be prejudiced in favor of their Indian neighbors, spoke to me of the changes for the better among the Indians in the last few years, especially of their civilized appearance, and of their straightforward business dealings. The vices of civilization, as represented by whisky and gambling, stand always between the Indian and progress, but in spite of this the contact at Crow Creek, Lower Brule, and elsewhere with white settlers has been invaluable. The universal testimony is: "The more of it the better." There has been marked

improvement in the quality of white frontiersmen. The "scum" of twenty years ago is giving place to a class of good citizens. The Indian can learn much from them, and they will, I believe, do him substantial good as they gradually surround him. Rough and careless at first they certainly are, but the better element soon takes hold. Courts are established, and there is a fair show all around.

Reservation life dying.—These changing conditions, however, have their dangers. Agents and thoughtful men are anxious. Reservation life is dead or dying. It must go. The time is ripe, not for destruction, however, but for development, and the old life, the old system, must be used only as a foundation for the new, and to this end ought to be carefully studied. Among the 15,000 Sioux the encampments are, for the most part, broken up, and the people settled chiefly on the river bottoms, where they can get wood and water. In certain parts of Dakota the Indians have covered the land as far as the eye can reach with farms of from one to thirty acres, all protected by wire fences, each with its log hut, and beside it one or two summer tepees, as graceful as the other is ugly and crude. Many of the farmers are shareholders in reaping machines, and I was much impressed by seeing a returned Hampton student driving a self-binder around his own wheat fields. Generally the men are in the fields, the women either with them or at work about the house. The old relation of brave and squaw is passing away before the influence of homestead life, just as the tepee must vanish before the mud-roofed log hut, which represents the first forward (if well-nigh fatal) step in civilization. Untidy and ill-ventilated as it is, it fixes its owner, putting an end to his nomadic life, making possible the use of chairs, tables, and dishes, and the development of a home attachment. The fact that these houses have but one room is not so dangerous to morality as one would suppose, but only because the Indian is not grossly sensuous. Christian teaching is, of course, on the side of soap and water; and it is curious to notice how largely the use of these articles is affected by the proximity of church and schoolhouse. A missionary visitor demands and is acknowledged to have a right to a chair, a bed, clean dishes, and soap and towels.

What remains to be done.—What are the things that remain to be accomplished? In the first place, it is important to remember that in dealing with these Indians we are dealing with people of very various degrees of development, and methods of work which are applicable to one tribe are not at all applicable to others. This has been especially true of the land-in-severalty bill. While no one can doubt the value of this bill, it is very doubtful whether all tribes are equally ready to take their own part in life's struggle. Instead of making them independent, it has, in some cases, really made them paupers. Not only ought regard to be had to the progress of the Indian, but to the condition of the

country in which he lives. As Mr. Grinnell says in his recent book, *The Indians of Today*: "To force allotments on a tribe living in a region where the average yearly rainfall is only a foot or fifteen inches may be a real hardship, even though on the pretense that the acres given them are grazing lands. Each receives twice as much as if it were farming land. In a very large number of cases these so-called grazing lands produce nothing, not even enough vegetation to keep a single cow. Sometimes they are without water, even without access to water." To insist that the Indians become self-supporting on such land is to ask what is impossible. Mr. Grinnell instances the Oneida Indians as showing how the Allotment Act, when applied to a race that has had contact with whites for three hundred years, is most helpful, while in the case of the Apaches, who speak only their own tongue and inhabit a desert, it is disastrous. How harmful the allotment bill has been in certain cases as regards the introduction of liquor, the failure of the parents to send their children to school, and in the matter of idleness, resulting from the leasing of land, we all know. We are obliged to remember that the Indians are, for the most part, children; that they have the weaknesses of children; and that, while we are to help them toward manhood as rapidly as possible, they will not attain to it in a day, nor in a single generation. While wisdom must be shown in the passage from barbarism to civilization, it is important that both agents and Indians understand that the reservation is a temporary expedient; that, while it may be necessary for those who are unable to care for themselves, the government and all who have to do with its schools are striving to fit the young Indians for the fuller, freer life of citizenship. In order to do this, discontent with the reservation system must be produced. It is sometimes said of the schools off the reservation that when their students return they are not willing to live as their parents did. It is much to be hoped that their school life will bring about just this result. If school life, either in the East or in the West, makes students unwilling to meet the difficulties of the situation, it is open to criticism, but a wholesome discontent is a most hopeful sign.

A good sign.—The petition of the Lower Brule Sioux, asking that their annuity of rations and clothing be stopped, and that they be allowed to sell a portion of their land and purchase cattle with the proceeds, is a move in the right direction. The sooner the ration system can be stopped the better. No student goes back from school who does not feel the degradation of it. While the beef-killing, with its brutalizing influence, has been discontinued on some of the reservations, on others it still remains, and the biweekly pilgrimage from the distant parts of the reservation to the agency still continues. By this means regular work on the farm and the raising of crops and of animals is prevented, while the old roving habit, which is so opposed to all progress in civilization, is cultivated.

In spite of all that has been done toward the education of the Indian, it is estimated that only about one-half of the Indian youths of school age are receiving instruction. This is a poor showing. There ought to be school accommodation for every Indian child. The sooner we come to compulsory education for every child in this country the better. To give citizenship to people without requiring their education is the greatest unwisdom. The system of day schools so successfully started and carried on by Major Wright on the Pine Ridge reservation and by others in the Indian country, which makes the school the center for improvement in home life and agriculture, and gives the agent a hold on Indian families in remote parts of the reservation, is of the greatest value. More use ought to be made of the common day school in the uplifting of the community. The introduction of cooking and sewing, as well as some simple lessons in harvesting and the use of garden tools, together with instruction in the common English branches, would make these schools a great power for good on the reservation.

The reservation boarding schools, with their gardens and farms, are most useful. Just as far as possible there ought to be built up about these schools mills for the grinding of wheat and small manufactories for the construction of articles used on the reservations, where the Indians may become familiar with the usages of civilized life. It is a shame that so large a part of the Indians' supplies should be bought elsewhere, when the Indians need so much the training and the work which might be used in their production. The non-reservation schools, both eastern and western, ought to have close relations with one another and with the reservation schools. They ought to develop certain special lines of work and instruction that the Indians need. If one devote itself to agriculture especially, then another could make a specialty of business methods, others of certain trades, and still others of normal training. Instead of struggling with one another for pupils, as has sometimes happened, they should be thoroly in harmony with one another. Each of these schools ought to be a sort of experiment station in Indian education, demonstrating what can be done along special lines. We are all indebted to Major Pratt for the success which has attended the pushing of the outing system. Each Indian institution, in addition to the regular work which it has to do, should try to develop some specialty, which should be of value to all. As a rule, it seems to me that we in the East ought to do advanced work, admitting only those who have passed thru the western schools, and not competing for a lower grade of pupils. Coming east ought to be considered a reward of merit for good work in western institutions.

Many difficulties.—I have been impressed with the difficulties under which the heads of government Indian schools have labored because of their inability to control the appointment of their subordinates. As long as teachers are appointed in Washington and the head of the school has

little or no voice in the matter, so long will the schools lack harmony. No superintendent can really be held responsible for the management of his school until he has a controlling influence. We all believe in the reform brought about by the civil service, in the taking out from the hands of politicians the appointments of superintendent and teachers. But if civil-service reform rules stand in the way of the appointment of teachers by the head of a school, they should be modified to correct this abuse.

The main object of the education of the Indian should be to make him self-supporting, and, as Mr. Grinnell says: "An aim quite as important as this, indeed included in it, is to make the Indians less unlike us than they are. They exist as an element of our population; they are Americans, and they should be put in a position to develop into a constituent part of our new race, just as the immigrants from a dozen foreign lands have developed into good, useful citizens of these United States." These two problems—as to how the Indian can be made self-supporting and thus gain the self-respect and independence which are impossible without it, and how he can be made one with the white race of the land—should be continually before the mind of every Indian worker. We ought to rejoice in the coming of the railroad, of trade, of every influence that helps to make the Indian one of us. While each race has its own peculiarities, and while, as Mr. Leupp, in a recent article in the *Southern Workman*, declares, it is "improvement, not transformation," of the Indian that is needed; while we are to realize that the Indian can never be an Anglo-Saxon; while we are to develop the noble qualities which the Indian possesses, we must also realize that it is not good for any individual or race to be alone.

In closing I wish to extend my congratulations to those who are laboring for the advancement of the Indian because of the success that has attended their efforts. I believe with Bishop Whipple that Indian workers are the best-paid workers in the world, and that no missionary work promises swifter or more satisfactory returns than that among the red men of this land.

THE PROPER RELATION BETWEEN LITERARY AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN INDIAN SCHOOLS

A. J. STANDING, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, CARLISLE INDIAN SCHOOL, CARLISLE, PA.

[AN ABSTRACT]

The purpose of education is primarily to qualify for self-support and the general work and business of life in all ways. The Indians of today, being for the most part only about one generation removed from the nomadic state, and having had to undergo within this brief period a complete change in mode of life, have no accumulated knowledge of the

requirements of civilized life or how to obtain a living in any of the great variety of avenues that present themselves to the white boy or girl, whose parents for generations, perhaps, have followed some special vocation, with which the children of the family from their earliest years become familiar, and, when old enough, engage in for the purpose of self-support. They are, therefore, at a peculiar disadvantage in the struggle for bread and home, except in so far as they are cared for by the government. This special care, however, is intended, and properly so, to be but temporary, and the government has for many years been following various plans intending to lead the Indian to self-support and independence, with the design of ending the need for the special care and guardianship that is now assumed to be necessary.

Wonderfully handicapped by a multiplicity of tongues and a life generally beyond the limit of settlements, and consequent teaching by observation, the Indian made but slow progress in the way the government desired he should go, until the day of Indian schools was inaugurated. The early results obtained in these schools seemed so full of promise for the future that education in schools has become the main policy and hope of the nation for Indian civilization.

The conditions presented by the Indians of today, which call for a special class of schools for them, are that nearly all of those who attend will, in the battle of life, have to support themselves by manual labor of some kind. A very large proportion also have had nothing in the shape of home training, while all must be instructed in the English language to such an extent that it shall be their language for the future, so learned as never to be forgotten. It is easy to see, therefore, that the needs of the Indian are not met by the ordinary district school, nor by the ordinary boarding school or academy; that to civilize, educate, and train the Indian industrially something more than either of these is needed. The effort to meet this need has evolved the system of Indian schools as they now exist, comprising all grades, from the reservation day school to the most complete of the system as represented by the manifold interests and pursuits of Carlisle.

The experience so far gained has shown that self-support, the prime object of Indian schools, has been attained in the proportion in which they properly combine industrial training with literary education. The latter, while desirable for all, will furnish bread to the few only, but the competent laborer, male or female, is in a position of comparative independence on the question of subsistence.

The aim, then, of Indian education should be that during the receptive and formative period of life every young Indian should receive such industrial education as will place him clearly beyond the ranks of the incapable—among the competent working and producing classes. To do this, rational industrial education is a necessity, and so much of

the school period of life as may be needed should be devoted to its attainment. Any Indian school, of whatever class, that fails to give this or makes it a secondary consideration is failing of its chief end and object. Care should be taken everywhere and at all times to honor the worker, of whatever degree, and by no means admit that a farmer or mechanic is not as worthy of respect as a teacher or clerk.

My experience with the administration of Indian schools has been that vastly more thought and attention has been bestowed on the literary course of study to be pursued, which publishers' text-books shall be used, and what particular method of writing shall be taught, than upon the industrial education that can and should be given to every Indian child of suitable physique.

I should like to see the force and equipment for teaching the various industrial occupations in Indian schools as well organized and as complete as now is the case with the department of literary training. This should embrace all the household occupations of the school, so conducted as to convey the idea that the time so spent was just as profitably spent as in the schoolroom. The same general idea should be carried to all the outdoor interests and occupations of the school, the farm, the stock, the trades. Give them an equal place with the schoolroom, not a secondary one, and how much more popular such interests would become! It is the nature of the young to enjoy physical effort, so that it does not become drudgery.

I will admit that in practice education in industries is not applicable to all schools alike, but the principle is; and that of itself is vastly important. There are, however, but few schools where some really good practical work cannot be done along some productive line, selected as the specialty of the school by reason of its location or condition—as gardening, or fruit culture, or farming—on such a moderate scale that it shall be thoroly instructive as well as productive.

I do not wish to be understood as recommending an attempt to carry on a multiplicity of industries, such as Carlisle and some other large schools have in operation, in places where they would be out of place; but in every school, large or small, I would implant the idea that those who have ability to produce with their hands the necessities of life are as worthy, as honorable, and as successful as those who do the same thing by their ability to teach or to practice a profession.

The prime need in industrial education is intelligent agriculture, which includes also gardening and fruit culture, dairying, care of stock, etc. We have the promise of the One who changes not that “so long as the world endures seed-time and harvest shall not fail.” Here, then, is supplied the prime necessity of life, the means to live.

It is not my purpose to particularize as to methods by which industrial education should be pursued in Indian schools, but to urge that it be

given its rightful place and due consideration; that as much care, thought, and talent be expended on the proper industrial equipment and methods as is now the case on the schoolroom work and appliances. But few among the Indians now in school will be able to live by their literary attainments exclusively; the many will depend on their hands; therefore, let the main effort be in the direction that is going to be of the greatest good to the greatest number. I make the assertion that the competent manual worker will be more likely to develop into an independent, self-supporting person than the one who is teaching or clerking for a living, depending on the pleasure or needs of others for the salary on which he or she lives. A bushel of wheat or corn has its cash value; so has fat stock, the shoeing of a horse, the building of a house, or skilled labor in any direction; and the Indian who has grain or stock to sell or skill in the occupations mentioned will not be apt to want for bread.

I offer just one incident in illustration of my position. It is an axiom of the Carlisle school that every pupil must have some practice in agricultural pursuits; this is obtained in part on the school farms, but mainly under the outing system. A boy who had been several years at school returned to his home. His father and neighbors had bought a self-binding reaper. The agent was to come on a certain day and set the machine up, and show the Indians how to work it. He did not come. The boy, having used a similar machine during his school life at Carlisle, put this one together and cut the crop. The agent came and asked who had done the work. The Indian told him his son had set up the reaper and started it. "Well," said the agent, "I am paying men \$4 a day for just that work, and would as soon pay your son as anybody."

Let us therefore give the chief place in our Indian schools to those pursuits which will give to the many manual skill and ability needed for self-support; which will be in about the proportion of ninety-nine manual workers to one lawyer or doctor.

It requires no gift of prophecy to foretell that if such a policy in Indian education be adopted and continued, combined with the Carlisle outing system, the day will not be far distant when the government can justly say to the Indian: "You are no longer incompetent; you are able, you are skilled, you have the opportunity; henceforth make your own living, take care of yourselves; the duties of national guardianship have been performed; such care is no longer necessary for you; you are citizens of the republic; enjoy your liberty, your homes, your property; vote, hold office, do your best; and Uncle Sam will be proud of his red children."

THE HEALTH OF THE INDIAN

DR. C. C. WAINWRIGHT, SAN JACINTO, CAL.

[AN ABSTRACT]

Dr. Wainwright said that upon the health of the Indian rests the whole superstructure of Indian education. To give him greater power of resistance, to unfetter him from his deteriorating habits, to force him above the half-civilized life to which he has been subdued, to utilize the material we have so that a generation will come forth in a higher scale of evolution, are tasks to which we must apply ourselves even more assiduously the coming year because of the many encouragements in the past.

Does the Indians' health average good? Do they as a race compare favorably in health and vigor with their white neighbors? Does the Indian child grow up with a promise of longevity? are questions direct and important. If we begin among the Indians where they live and move, divest the whole subject of any sentiment, arrange systematic work for every able-bodied adult, compel him to labor for his own benefit, thus establishing the habit of a perfect industry among the American Indians, we shall strike from them the fetters that bind them to so many degenerating, debasing, and slavish customs. They and their children will be regenerated mentally, morally, and physically. I desire to emphasize the possible blessings that will come to these people and their children thru systematic manual labor. Work purifies the blood and is preventive of disease. All else that is uplifting and beneficial will follow habits of industry.

*THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR INDIAN SCHOOLS*CHARLES BARTLETT DYKE, HAMPTON NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE,
HAMPTON, VA.

[AN ABSTRACT]

The teacher is the maker and protector of our American civilization, and with him rests the future of the American Indian. In common with all other teachers, he must possess the spirit of service. All else falls into insignificance compared with this first essential. This spirit of service cannot be a general, diffused, vague sort of thing. It must be definite, concrete devotion to the uplifting of a race. It is thru wise religious training, thru constant suggestion, thru the inspiration of the ideals already attained by "returned students," that these natural impulses are to be converted into a sustained spirit of service.

The second essential of the Indian teacher is fellowship with the world. Not until a white man has seen something of the inner life of other races does he realize the vastness of his birthright. What he is

born into the Indian child must acquire, if he is to survive on the face of the earth. The teachers of the Indian child must, then, feel their fellowship with all humanity.

It is common to hear of the folly of attempting to make an Indian into a white man, and there is truth in the assertion; but the Indian should live in and become a part of the white man's civilization. The general atmosphere of civilization breathed into the life of the Indian for generations must conduce to this fellowship with the world, but more important is the conscious training given thru certain subjects of study. Especially is this true of every kind of trade work. The ability to supply to the public what the public needs establishes a bond of sympathy, and the Indian wheelwright or mason or electrician becomes an integral part of humanity with the satisfaction of humanity's wants, while the Indian girl rises into a new sphere of life with her successful production of the food and clothing of civilization.

Hon. Willlam T. Harris emphasizes the necessity of language as the instrument which "makes possible human social organization. The most practical knowledge of all, it will be admitted, is a knowledge of human nature—a knowledge that enables one to combine with his fellow-men and to share with them the physical and spiritual wealth of the race."

Again, the Indian teacher should go into his work with some absorbing interest of his own—some hobby, some fad, if you will—for the inspiration of a teacher is his own interest.

The lack of professional training I regard as the greatest weakness among Indian teachers. If the teacher of white children needs to know the principles and aims of education, how much more does the Indian teacher need to know them who is to enter upon a much more difficult work!

But the professional training of the Indian teachers should include more than a knowledge of the principles and aims of education. You and I are born with an economic sense. That sense of money-making, of getting on in the world, has found deep root in all Americans. The Indian is without this economic sense. He must be taught to seize upon existing conditions and to use them to his own advantage. The Indian teacher must be the center of social and economic progress.

Next comes practice-teaching, under careful supervision, with a maximum of responsibility. I wish to place the emphasis on these two points: careful supervision and responsibility. In the judgment of the Committee on Normal Schools at the Los Angeles meeting last year, practice-teaching, under careful supervision, ranks as the most valuable course in the professional training of teachers. While actual teaching contributes much to the theory of education, it also gives training in the application of 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. To assume the responsibility of a schoolroom is a powerful force in the development of a teacher. Familiarity with programs, with good text-books, and with all the minor details of the schoolroom is no slight aid; but responsibility transforms the careless, impertinent, sullen, impatient student into the careful, polite, cheerful, self-controlled teacher. One of our Indian girls last year, who was notorious for her sulkiness, met her Waterloo in the practice room, where she was obliged to deal with her exact facsimile. What should she do with Susie? If Susie made a mistake she would not read again. She would just stand still and look as if she did not see or hear anybody in the world. The foresight, the quick encouragement, the determined will necessary in dealing with Susie, the delight of success, actually changed this girl's entire demeanor, and the responsibility thrown upon her developed an undreamed-of strength which will make her a most valuable teacher of her race.

But let us not think for a moment that practice-teaching alone is sufficient. Practice-teaching establishes right habits of the teaching art. Leaders in education, as in any sphere of human activity, must have right habits of work, but they must also be masters of themselves and capable of directing their own powers at will. This is to be attained only thru a knowledge of the principles of society and education.

To summarize: In my opinion the function of the teacher of Indian schools is one on which the very lives of his pupils depend. It is the substitution of civilization for barbarism. That teacher alone can effect this work who goes into it with a spirit of service, with a conscious substitution of the ideals of civilization for those of barbarism. This demands wisely chosen subject-matter, a knowledge of society and of the laws of mind. It demands enthusiasm guided by the principles of psychology and sociology, and it involves the application of these principles under supervision. Teachers with this training will bring their pupils into a fellowship with the civilized world, and the Indian will then become a valuable American citizen.

THE TEACHING OF TRADES TO THE INDIAN

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[AN ABSTRACT]

My first experience with Indians was in the late summer of 1897, when I met a score or more who had just arrived at Hampton. When these Indians arrived, many of them were not more than once removed from barbarism and had been transported from 1,500 to 2,000 miles, in order

that they might complete their education by industrial training at Hampton. One question that bothered me was: Has the Indian the mental capacity for the complicated problems associated with the trades? This has been solved to my entire satisfaction in the affirmative.

I have reached the point where I feel that genius should be recognized in red, black, or white, but that the diverting of an Indian from his natural bent is not to be done without serious consideration and especially good reasons. An interesting incident connected with this thought comes to my mind. A young Papago arrived at Hampton a year ago, and, when questioned as to what he wanted to do there, surprised us by saying that he wished to learn the machinist's trade. This, from a Papago seemed so incongruous that we questioned him thoroly, thinking his desire might be only a passing one, which had been aroused, perhaps, by visiting the machine shops before being questioned by us. However, he stood persistently by his first choice, saying that in some parts of his country there were silver mines, and that he had seen some of the mining machinery and knew that they sometimes needed men to set it up and run it. He thought he could find good employment at least as a helper. He was allowed to spend two days a week in the machine shop, and has shown that he has the necessary qualification for a very good machinist, and he is anxious to keep on. The machinist's trade can be grasped only by one of considerable mental ability, and he must have much good judgment in tracing out cause and effect. It seems to me that what this particular boy must have in order to be most useful is not so much ability to do the delicate handwork necessary to build machinery as ability to size up the general assemblage of parts, to know how things go together and how to repair broken pieces.

Except in a few cases, Hampton does not believe in the machinist's trade for Indians, but rather emphasizes those industries which may be of use in smaller communities, and that relate more directly to their own home life, as, for instance, house-building, wheelwrighting, blacksmithing, shoe- and harness-making. We feel more and more, too, that in many cases a part of several trades is more beneficial than one. Thus house-building should have as a foundation carpentry, but allied with it should be some knowledge of painting, plastering, bricklaying, and enough tin-smithing to enable one to do flashing, gutter, and spout work.

Wheelwrighting, blacksmithing, and a little painting would go well together, and shoe- and harness-making are also closely connected. With all of these trades there should be incorporated as much of agriculture as it is possible to give.

Blacksmithing seems to be as popular a trade as any, and one in which the Indian seems to excel. It is considerable of a revelation to see one toiling away, blowing his own fire, and striking the red-hot iron, with the perspiration rolling from his head in streams.

The Indian boy does very well in mechanical drawing, which should be taught in connection with all trades when the plan of one's work can be expressed on paper. For instance, such trades as the machinist's, carpentry, wheelwrighting, and bricklaying should include mechanical drawing, but printing would not especially need it. Painters, tailors, shoe- and harness-makers should be taught free-hand drawing.

The one thing more than all others to be considered in teaching a trade to Indians is power of adaptability. Teaching a full trade for the sake of its industrial value alone does not appeal to many people who know the Indian's home life and the difficulty he will have among his own people of making a livelihood. In most cases it seems to me that the trade, after all, is only of secondary importance, and the real thing to be gained is the feeling of power which comes with the accomplishment of any difficult task. Let us look for a minute at the blacksmith's trade for the Indian. (I have mentioned before in this paper that it is as popular as any we teach.)

I do not feel that the utilitarian accomplishments of bending, upsetting, and welding, while they are of inestimable value, are the only good things the boy has gotten out of the practice at the forge, but that along with all these processes in the thousand and one modifications and applications comes a mental stimulus, a power of concentration and adaptability, which leads to healthier activities and growth. The same thing is true of any trade or occupation; but as the boy's own inclination and love for a particular kind of skill must be acknowledged to a certain extent in the selection of a handicraft for him, it follows that there will be a general diversity of trades among the boys from any reservation.

Character-building is, after all, the keynote in any kind of education. It may seem to be entirely submerged at times, but, be it classical or industrial, the outcome is not a mere bunch of facts gleaned from the fields of literature and labor, but, along with such, a large measure of power and possibility. Many times to all of us has come the stereotyped expression that the Indian's education is all a mistake, and that it simply in the end makes less of a man of him than he would have been had he grown up in the old way. This may be true in some instances, and it may seem true in many more, taking the present time into consideration, but the thing to be considered is that this is, after all, only the seed-time; the harvest is not yet, tho I think we begin to see signs of its approach.

If I thought we were making carpenters, blacksmiths, and wheelwrights of the Indians, and that they got out of the trades only the cold, hard facts which provide a means of livelihood, I should feel that we were doing a progressive work. What I do believe is that the power that comes with reading and writing, welding and planing, cooking and sewing,

is upbuilding to any race, causing it to grow until its influence is felt as a factor in the common good of mankind. In these days the lack of such power will surely send a race to the wall.

*THE TRAINING OF THE INDIAN GIRL AS THE UPLIFTER
OF THE HOME*

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[AN ABSTRACT]

Miss Alice Fletcher once told of a visit she paid to Sitting Bull, and the plea he made, in view of the changed conditions, for the women of his race.

"Take pity on my women," said he, "for they have no future. The young men can be like the white men—till the soil, supply the food and clothing; they will take the work out of the hands of the women, and the women, to whom we have owed everything in the past, will be stripped of all which gave them power and position among the people. Give a future to my women."

We are surely working along the line of the old chief's appeal when we consider how the Indian woman, as she ceases to set up the tepee, can become the true uplifter of the home.

Let us consider some of the crying needs of the Indian home of the present day, and also the training which will best fit the Indian girls in our schools to meet those needs.

Let us note first the lack of system in the domestic arrangements of the household, of promptness and orderliness. I think those of us who have firm faith in many native virtues of the Indian would hesitate to claim punctuality and dispatch as among them. The reason may not be far to seek; for, after all, one does not have to go back a very long way in his history to get quite beyond clocks and bells, and all the civilized appliances for keeping the Anglo-Saxon "up to the minute," and enabling a great community of busy workers to act in unison. But what a transformation it would effect in the hogan of the Southwest and the shack of the Northwest, not to mention certain frame houses of some of the more well-to-do, if there were regular hours, and those early ones, for rising and retiring; if meals were prepared and cleared away at set times; if beds were put in order the first thing in the morning; if Monday were washing day, Tuesday ironing day, and so on thru the weekly calendar of a thrifty household! Illustrative of the axiom that "order is heaven's first law," I recall an address of Bishop Hare's to a company of Indian students, in which he drew a most practical lesson from the command to the disciples to make the multitude sit down by

hundreds and fifties, as he carried the principle even into the cabin cupboards and charged the girls to see that the dishes there were arranged in orderly fashion—plates in one pile, saucers in another.

Most closely linked to orderliness is cleanliness. We remember reading a graphic and appalling description of the minutiae of house-cleaning operations by a young Indian field matron and her assistant in a neighboring cabin, where the cellar for keeping supplies was a hole under one of the beds, and where other things were on a similar plane of untidiness. A recent letter from the teacher of a camp school speaks of her little pupils as "so bright, quick, ambitious to learn, but oh! so dirty." A running stream furnishes a bath-tub in summer, but in winter a bath is an unheard-of luxury, and a change of clothes once a week or once a month is not to be thought of. It is quite true that on many reservations a crusade against dirt must be waged against great odds, even by the most willing-hearted. The scarcity of water, the clouds of prairie dust, the stream of unkempt visitors, the constant presence of four-footed hangers-on—these are anything but helpful to the young housekeeper. In some favored sections these difficulties do not exist; in not a few instances they are bravely overcome; but the question is an intensely practical one: What sort of training will best prepare our girls to fight these obstacles in their own homes, or in the homes of Indians among whom they may be working?

It is not enough to teach these girls how to sweep and scrub and wash and iron; we must strive so to get them in the habit of being neat in person and surroundings that they really cannot be comfortable otherwise. Perhaps nothing does this more effectually than the "outing system," when the home to which the pupil is sent is of the right sort. The living week after week in a quiet, refined, well-ordered household is of inestimable value in fostering a "noble discontent" with dirt and disorder.

In addition to this we have found a housekeeping cottage to be a very helpful adjunct to the training in dormitories, cooking classes, laundry, etc., during the school year. A member of the faculty was accompanied on a trip to the West one summer by a friend. The latter, struck with the dearth of cooking utensils in the log cabins they visited, remarked: "Why don't you build a cottage at Hampton, put into it a stove, kettle, frying-pan, one or two spoons, and a very few dishes, and teach the girls to keep house with only such appliances?" The suggestion was acted upon. A tiny, three-roomed cottage (built when we brought on married couples) was fitted up for classes in housekeeping. Its equipment was somewhat more ample than the above, but there was no patent egg-beater, there was not even a rolling-pin until an Indian boy made one in the shop. The screen in the little parlor was the handiwork of a girl who had learned to use tools, and the lounge was a small iron bedstead,

with mattress and cushions covered with blue denim. Four days in the week a squad of three girls went out to the cottage with the lady in charge, after school, and prepared their evening meal. Milk and flour were furnished them; also fifty cents a week, afterward increased to sixty, with which other supplies were purchased. Careful forethought and economy were thus cultivated. The menus were written down in a blank book, and accounts were strictly kept. The girls learned to make bread and biscuit, and to prepare many simple dishes, sometimes even to make their own butter. They were taught to utilize odds and ends, also how to scrimp a little here if they wished to launch out there. The table was neatly spread with a white table-cloth and napkins, and sometimes decorated with flowers. Once a week the custom was to invite another teacher to take tea with them, and then one girl must act as hostess and another do the necessary waiting. The whole spirit of the thing was wonderfully suggestive of a little bit of home set down in the midst of the great school. When Mrs. Dorchester, wife of the then superintendent of Indian schools, visited Hampton, she gave her cordial approval of the scheme. It seemed that she had felt the need of something similar in the western schools, and had pleaded for a small house adjoining the main buildings, where girls could be so trained. Now, she said, she felt she could urge it the more strongly, since she had actually seen her "model cottage." This work has now been merged in that of the Abby May Home, where the girls in the advanced course have lived together as a small family, and where pupils from the middle class have gone to prepare meals; and in that of the domestic-science building, with its courses in sewing, cooking, sloyd, and dairying, and also its model dining-room and bedroom, the latter with all its furniture, except the bed and the mirror, made by the girls.

The hygienic value of cleanliness cannot be too strongly impressed upon future home-makers, and this naturally broadens out into ideas of ventilation, drainage, and the prevention of tuberculosis by care and sanitary precautions. Where girls leave school before they have taken up a text-book on physiology and hygiene, it seems most desirable that simple oral lessons be given them along these lines. Wholesome food also, as has been so often said, is a subject in which they need instruction, especially in regard to the addition of milk, cereals, and vegetables to their bill of fare.

A love for house decorations has to be cultivated rather than implanted in the Indian. One evening the past winter a company of Indian boys and girls met with some of their teachers to discuss the question: "How can we improve our homes?" Besides taking up more important matters, the raising of flowers was touched upon, and the choice of pictures. Just here comes in the desirability of some means of earning a little money when at home, a need which seems admirably met by the

lace-making introduced by Miss Carter, since two or three dollars even will provide a few yards of scrim for the windows, pretty denim for a table-cover, and seeds for the garden or window box. If a taste for reading has been duly fostered at school—and this surely is far truer education than the mere recitation of allotted lessons in history and geography—then with the proceeds of her toil in odd moments she can subscribe for some magazine, which will be a welcome guest every month. All possible encouragement, we believe, should also be given to the beautiful native industries, in order that the beadwork, pottery, and basket-weaving of her grandmother may not be lost arts to the Indian girl of the period. Here, too, is a means, not only for cultivating a taste for what is really artistic in itself, but, thru its commercial value, of helping to make the home comfortable and attractive. But “home is not merely four square walls.” Back of “the outward and visible signs” of order and purity we want the “inward, spiritual grace,” the atmosphere of uprightness and goodness, which the children of the household will drink in as plants the sunshine. Of course, the very corner-stone of such a happy family life must be the mutual love and respect of its united head. And just here, it seems to me, not a few young educated Indians make shipwreck, tho the mistake is not confined surely to our brothers and sisters in red. I have wondered whether, as teachers, we did as much as we might to inspire them with high and sacred ideals of all that pertains to home, and with the need of earnest thought in the choice of a life-companion.

Is there not sometimes danger that, while thus striving to steer clear of the Scylla, we fall upon Charybdis, and send our girls out into life's battle without due training how to meet one of its most fateful issues? May not even a few quiet talks during their last year from someone in the school, or from some sweet, wise woman who has a home of her own outside, which the girls themselves would recognize as ideal, do much to fortify them in this direction?

There is another point which may need to be guarded. We are proud and happy when we hear that one of our girls has received an appointment as employé or teacher in a government school, and is useful and self-supporting. Perhaps, when the young teacher goes home for her vacation with fresh, pretty clothes, and money in her purse, and talks of her pupils, her methods, her hopes of promotion, some former school-mate, now tied hand and foot by her duties to her husband and children, looks wistfully at her friend's career, and feels as if she alone were realizing the visions of uplifting their race, which they used to share while their hearts were thrilled by earnest commencement speakers. Perhaps her own life seems to her rather a failure. But if her humble home is an object-lesson to all who enter it, if gentleness and kindness reign there, if the boys and girls after they grow up are trained in Christian

citizenship and taught by example to "lend a hand" to all around them who need help, who shall say that her mission is not even more heaven-sent than her friend's?

KINDERGARTEN WORK AMONG THE INDIANS

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[AN ABSTRACT]

The Indian kindergarten might correctly be called an awakening school, for much that is gained from the home life by the child of the developed races is missed by a great majority of the Indian children. Often our Indian children of five or six years are unable to enunciate clearly enough to be understood—frequently unable to speak—a word of English. They possess little, if any, of the creative spirit. We find it wise, therefore, to admit children at a younger age than is desirable, as a rule, in other races.

During the first year we give, as nearly as possible, what the child would get in a well-ordered home. The year's work centers around our large family of dolls, who must be frequently washed and dressed, whose house and beds demand regular care.

On Monday the miniature wash-tubs and boards are brought into play. The dolls' clothes and bedding and a number of lunch napkins are rubbed and rinsed and hung on lines across the window. The next morning they are sprinkled, ironed, and folded away in the trunk made for them by the older children. The aim is not infant prodigies in the art of laundry work, but the cultivation of a work spirit in the most unrestrained, happy way.

No attempt is made to teach color, form, and number with the first three or four kindergarten gifts that are used. The bright balls are used as balls to be freely rolled and tossed and swung; all that is learned of form and color is by observation. The blocks of the third and fourth gifts, both enlarged and of regular size, are used for free and suggested building—most suggested at first; for instance, making a chair by nailing an oblong piece of soft wood to a cube. These constructive exercises take the place of the more formal occupations of card sewing, weaving, paper-folding, and parquetry, and particularly in the furniture supply much-needed toys.

The sand table, with its tools and dishes, has a place in each day's progress.

Teaching of songs is not paramount; those of few and simple words are occasionally taught. Stories and pictures are used most freely. The sense games and finger plays and rhythmic games of skipping, hopping,

running, etc., to piano music, have been found of special value in the development of the Indian child.

By the second year in kindergarten the child is ready for little house-keeping duties, which take the place to some extent, tho not entirely, of the doll work. Each little one has a chair to dust, or plants to water, or a room in the doll-house to care for, or similar work. The duties are assigned for two weeks perhaps, and then changes are made.

These children make doll sheets and blankets, cotton scrap-books, assorting forms, sizes, and colors. A great deal of nailing and gardening is among the occupations given. Creative and skill games are added to the sense and rhythmic games.

The older or third-year children are well prepared to do more progressive sewing, basket-weaving, braiding lamp-mats, nailing prepared pieces of wood into more elaborate doll furniture, making seed-boxes, bird-houses, and little wagons. Nor has domestic work lost its value and interest for these children. Wash day is greeted with the enthusiasm of the first year, and much pride is taken in doing alone the "hard" house-keeping duties. The gardening has become quite scientific, and now we can water and rake, raising and selling vegetables enough to buy tools. Thus the child gets a fair start in accuracy, responsibility, ambition, and ideas; and the primary school comes fresh and full of interest to meet the demands of growth.

Our child knows nothing of the geometrical side of the gifts; he has not known the tablets, sticks, and rings, but he has watched the work of the sun, wind, and rain in his garden. He knows where the grasshopper and cricket live; he has seen the birds build and brood in the bird-house of his own making; and he listens eagerly for the morning song. He has, in short, some of the knowledge of "The Barefoot Boy," and he goes to work with a will and independence. It is the fair, true start that gives the child of any race the surest chance of reaching the goal—this goal being self-support and independence.

SANITARY CONDITIONS AMONG THE INDIANS

DR. J. G. BULLOCH, CHEYENNE AGENCY, S. D.

[AN ABSTRACT]

The best sanitary conditions should be maintained. By enforcing absolute cleanliness in every department, less sickness will reward the management. Diphtheria, measles, and like diseases should be avoided, especially since defective sight and hearing, weak lungs, and other ills result, often following the child so afflicted thru life and sending him to an early grave. More precaution should be taken on reservations and at schools. against letting refuse drain into the drinking water. Too much

attention cannot be given to the subject of pure water for drinking purposes.

Careful attention should be given to the care of vaults, stables, and all outhouses, which should be renovated frequently, and whitewashed inside and out, at least once a year. Rain-water and drinking-water tanks should be cleaned at least once annually. The lakes and ponds near should receive careful attention; in a word, everything with which the child comes in contact should be kept scrupulously clean.

All floors should be sprinkled before being swept, since diseases are often transmitted by the flying dust. Weekly baths and good drainage should be enforced. After illness in a school or home the room where the patient lay should be thoroly disinfected, blankets washed, pillows and mattresses sunned, furniture washed, and sulphur burned in the room.

One great cause of sickness among the camp Indians is the keeping of provisions in the tepees. Visiting Indians often prove fertile sources of infection, and a certificate of health should be given by the agent and physician to all Indians who wish to visit another reservation. No agent should allow visitors on any reserve who have not brought such a health certificate.

Severe cases of scrofula and cases of tuberculosis should be isolated at schools, and Indians so afflicted should not be permitted to live with the healthy Indians. The aged and infirm should be carefully looked after on each reservation.

PRACTICAL METHODS IN INDIAN EDUCATION

MR. JOHN SEGER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SEGER COLONY SCHOOL,
COLONY, OKLA.

In my opinion, the only way to teach the Indian self-support and the value of property is to devise some plan whereby, without special urging, he may be induced to support himself by his own efforts.

I give you, herewith, a short history of my experiences with Indians, and a brief outline of the plan we are at present following.

My first experiment originated thru my proposing to three Indian boys at our school that, if they would each milk a cow thru the summer, I would give them the calf which the cow had. Altho they had never milked a cow in their lives, they agreed to do their best, and were duly rewarded. This placed them in a conspicuous position among the other children, as being owners of property, and it enabled me the next spring to get ten boys to volunteer to raise corn. The agent thought the idea so unpromising that he said the boys might have all the corn they could raise.

The Indians then regarded all work as degrading, and these boys knew they would be taunted and ridiculed as squaws all thru the season.

Nevertheless they persevered and had great success with their crop. I marketed the corn for them, and with the proceeds purchased thirty-five head of cattle, which I divided among them, branding each boy's cattle with a distinct brand, thus giving him an individual ownership.

The success of the boys naturally had its effect on the other children, and the next spring I had volunteers enough to undertake to raise 100 acres of corn, giving half of the crop to the government for the use of the land. From this land we raised about 3,000 bushels of corn, and with the proceeds of the boys' share I bought 100 head of heifers. We were obliged to bring these cattle from a distance of 140 miles, and altho the country for the whole distance was entirely wild, and inhabited only by Indians, yet with three of these Indian boys we drove up the cattle, swimming them across rivers and watching them at night, occupying ten days in the journey.

When we arrived at the school, the children manifested the most intense interest in the herd, and all who were receiving wages wanted to use it in the purchase of cattle for themselves. Even the girls caught the enthusiasm to become property-owners. This spirit I encouraged, and allowed those who were earning wages to use a part of it each month in creating a fund with which to buy cattle. We worked along this line until our school herd numbered about 400 head.

It was not long before our success in this venture attracted the attention of the inspectors, and eventually the Indian Office. The government officials reasoned that, if the school could raise cattle profitably, why not the Indians, and thus make them self-supporting? Following this up, they secured an appropriation to buy 400 head of cattle, to be issued to the adult Indians of the reservation. The agent on learning of this advised the Indian Office that it was impracticable for the Indians to engage at that time in the raising of cattle, as they were continually moving about, sometimes being absent on a buffalo hunt three months at a time. He therefore recommended that these 400 head of cattle be given to my school, which was done.

While I had control of the herd no white man had anything to do with their care, they being looked after altogether by Indian boys under my supervision. This I considered the very best education I could give them. The plan I had in view was eventually, thru this herd of cattle, to make the schools of the agency self-supporting.

I also had in mind the establishing of a large pasture, which I proposed inclosing with a wire fence. Around this pasture I would locate young Indians as they married and settled down in life. They would be obliged to care for the fence and keep their cattle inside the pasture. As the care of their cattle would occupy but a portion of their time, I also included in my plan the allotting to each individual settling around the pasture land enough to make a small farm. As their ponies were not

adapted to plowing the prairie sod, cattle might be taken from the herd and broken in as oxen. In preparation for this I had some oxen at the school which I trained the Indian boys to drive and handle.

At the time of my resignation from the school superintendency our herd consisted of 1,000 head. By careful breeding we had improved their grade to a degree far above the native Texan stock with which we began.

Almost from the very first the parents of the children manifested a deep interest in the success of the project, and encouraged and aided it in every possible way. A number of Indian chiefs made donations toward it, and a single Indian woman gave fifty head of cattle to the school to be the property of her daughter, and her husband also gave a large number of ponies to the boys for use in caring for the herd. These and many other instances are evidence of what may be expected from the Indians if their ambition and spirit of emulation are aroused.

At our present institution in Oklahoma, the Seger Colony School, we are pursuing the same object of making it self-supporting and have adopted the plan of stock-raising and farming in conjunction, of which I shall speak later.

This school was started seven years ago, at which time 100 head of cattle were given us by the government. These cattle cost \$1,300, and for the last five years this small herd has supplied the school with over \$1,000 worth of beef each year, besides proving a practical education for our boys. Our herd now numbers 141, of an excellent grade.

The main features of the plan I am at present endeavoring to carry out are as follows:

The land is divided into sections of perhaps one hundred acres each, and upon each section four families are located, giving each about twenty-five acres. These four families thus form a group and are of mutual assistance to each other in their farm-work. Upon locating they are required to sign a contract by which they agree to remain on their farms at least three years; to haul the lumber and build a suitable house on the farm; to keep at least one cow, a hog, and a small amount of poultry; to give half of their crops toward the support of the school; and that not more than one of the four shall be absent from home at a time, so that the others may look after his premises. Other restrictions tending to prevent the Indian from wasting his capital, in the prodigal fashion so characteristic of him, may be incorporated.

The Indians must earn the horses they need, but all implements necessary for conducting their farms are furnished by the school.

The first year the land is planted in cotton and the second year in wheat. When the cotton is well up, cattle may be allowed to run in it without damage. The interval between the planting of the cotton and picking time is about three months, and during this period work is provided for them in some shop, so that they can make a living. When the

cotton is ready to pick, the whole school assists. When the crop is sold, half goes to the family raising it and half to the school. The profits are invested in cattle, which is considered the very best investment, bringing on the average a return of 25 per cent. on the capital invested. This is repeated at the end of each season, and in three years I estimate that each family will be worth \$1,000 and be able to support itself. If they will allow me to write the agreement as to what they shall do, I am positive this result can be attained in every case. The cattle belonging to each family are held as security for the observance of their contract.

In our colony at present we have over 70 per cent. of the Indians in houses. It is a rare sight to see an Indian wearing a blanket. I wanted to take an Indian boy's picture as he looked a few years ago and as he looks now, but he would not think of having his picture taken with his legs bare.

In this connection, also, it may not be amiss to say a word regarding their religious and social development. There is a splendid field here for missionary work, and religious teaching is an element that is very much needed.

Some young men of the tribe, having been elected to leadership, came to me and asked my advice as to their course, saying they wanted to do what was best for their people. I told them that as long as I had been among them I had known of nothing that had kept them back so much as their religion. I said: "You have your sun dance and other dances, and you are apt to change again to some other kind of religion. The white people's religion has remained unchanged for thousands of years, and my advice to you would be to throw aside your heathen worship and become Christians." They replied: "We know nothing about the Christian religion." To this I said: "A man has come here to explain it to you. He will tell you everything about the Christian religion, the existence of God, the birth of Christ, his crucifixion, and that he died for us. All of you who would learn about this religion and become Christians come over and give him your hand." The whole camp immediately came over and shook hands with him. Soon after they built a church, and have since built a parsonage. Already they have expended over \$6,000 in this work.

An Indian club-house has also been built. The funds for this were raised at the Lake Mohonk conference by the friends of Indian education, and turned over to Mr. Walter Roe, a nephew of E. P. Roe, the novelist. It is known as "The Lodge," and, in addition to tables with magazines, games, etc., it is fitted up with all the appliances for house-keeping. When a family comes to visit, it must bring its own provisions and live and eat in a civilized manner. Other rooms are provided with cots, and the visiting Indians bring their bedding with them and put it down on these cots, thus doing away with camp life entirely. The

Lodge also has bath-rooms and everything necessary for cleanliness. When an Indian or an Indian family comes to stay at the Lodge, they must keep it neat while there and leave it in good condition. Mr. Roe receives a great deal of clothing, which he gives to the old and young, but not to the middle-aged. To these he gives cloth and lets them make their own clothes.

Here also there is a sewing machine, and the Indians learn to use it in making their clothes. The result is that all the Indians dress in citizens' clothes, and they take great pride in imitating white people in dress.

Mr. Roe and his friends have undertaken to hire a matron for the Lodge, and have asked Mr. Andrew Carnegie for a donation. The Lodge plan is excellently adapted for relieving the Indians of the evils of camp life.

At every Indian school there should be a good hospital, and every girl who leaves school should know how to take care of the sick. Often they are twenty-five miles from a physician, and the girls ought to know how to give medicine and use hygienic means in caring for the sick. The boys will learn it by being treated in a hygienic way, and the whole family will also profit by the knowledge of the girls.

Report of Committee on Necrology

To the Members of the National Educational Association:

Your Committee on Necrology appointed at Charleston submits herewith the following list, with accompanying sketches, of active members who have died since the last report published in the volume of proceedings for 1899 (Los Angeles meeting):

ZALMON RICHARDS	- - - - -	Washington, D. C.
WILLIAM EVARTS SHELDON	- - - - -	Boston, Mass.
JAMES HENRY SMART	- - - - -	Lafayette, Ind.
HENRY BARNARD	- - - - -	Hartford, Conn.
HENRIETTA B. AYRES	- - - - -	Denver, Colo.
ELIAS J. BEARDSLEY	- - - - -	Elmira, N. Y.
H. R. BLAISDELL	- - - - -	Covington, Ky.
EMANUEL R. BOYER	- - - - -	Chicago, Ill.
JOHN BRADEN	- - - - -	Nashville, Tenn.
CHARLES M. DAVIS	- - - - -	Bayonne, N. J.
LARKIN DUNTON	- - - - -	Boston, Mass.
AUGUST E. ENGSTROM	- - - - -	Cannon Falls, Minn.
GEORGE L. FARNHAM	- - - - -	Riverside, Cal.
JOHN T. FLAVIN	- - - - -	Watertown, Wis.
LOUIS H. GALBREATH	- - - - -	Charleston, Ill.
S. OLIN GARRISON	- - - - -	Vineland, N. J.
HENRY B. GWYNN	- - - - -	Baltimore, Md.
JAMES HANNAN	- - - - -	Chicago, Ill.
HENRY S. JONES	- - - - -	Houston, Tex.
FREDERICK H. LANE	- - - - -	New York, N. Y.
ANGELINA N. MILLER	- - - - -	Denver, Colo.
W. H. MORGAN	- - - - -	Cincinnati, O.
JAMES RUSSELL OLIN	- - - - -	Belmont, Mass.
FRANK OSTRANDER	- - - - -	West Superior, Wis.
EDWIN H. OWEN	- - - - -	Carlinville, Ill.
S. S. PARR	- - - - -	St. Cloud, Minn.
MRS. MATILDA S. POUCHER	- - - - -	Oswego, N. Y.
WILLIAM H. SHELLEY	- - - - -	Baltimore, Md.
JULIA C. SILCOX	- - - - -	Cleveland, O.
CHRISTINE GORDON SULLIVAN	- - - - -	Cincinnati, O.
MARTHA J. B. THOMAS	- - - - -	Bayonne City, N. J.
SAMUEL GARDNER WILLIAMS	- - - - -	Ithaca, N. Y.

The committee has found it difficult to obtain material for memorial sketches in time for publication in the volume of proceedings, and regrets that several of the sketches are not as full as the merits of the deceased members would justify.

Inasmuch as the Council of Education has made provision for a memorial address on the life and educational services of Dr. Henry Barnard, to be presented at the next annual meeting, only a brief sketch of this distinguished educator appears in this report.

Respectfully submitted,

EMERSON E. WHITE, *Chairman*,
E. ORAM LYTE,
AARON GOVE,
ROBERT C. METCALF,
ALEX. HOGG,

Committee.

Zalmon Richards¹

Zalmon Richards was born in Cummington, Mass., August 11, 1811. His father was the possessor of a small farm in this rugged hill town in the western part of the state.

Soon after he was three years old he commenced attending school. His first school dame was named Sybil Bates, and she had a powerful influence in shaping the religious and moral principles that controlled his after-life. At a very early age he began to "do the chores" and to work with his father on the farm, and he matriculated in the "little red schoolhouse" of the district, where until ten years old he attended school annually a summer and winter term of about ten weeks each; and from his tenth to his fourteenth year, as his services on the farm became more valuable, he could be spared only for the winter term.

A little later he attended for a short period a "select school" in his native town, and still later its successor, the Cummington Academy, where he was able to drink somewhat deeper of the Pierian spring.

After listening to a very eloquent and impressive temperance lecture in his early youth he pledged himself to total abstinence, and that pledge was never violated. When about fifteen years old he made a public profession of religion and united with a church of the Baptist denomination, in which communion he continued ever after, a devoted and active member.

At the age of seventeen he began to teach a country district school on a salary of \$8 a month and "board around." It was about this time that he resolved to get a college education and devote his life to teaching. As his father was unable to assist him in this, he was obliged to depend wholly upon his own resources, which consisted mainly in teaching before entering college and during the college vacations, and such small sums as he might be able to borrow to be repaid after his graduation. By attendance at Cummington Academy, Southampton Academy, and some private instruction, he completed his preparatory studies and entered Williams College in 1832. Here he met with a second teacher, Professor Mark Hopkins, who had great influence upon his future. He was graduated from that institution in 1836, and was later granted the degree of M.A.

Immediately after his college graduation he became principal of the academy in his native town and held the position for three years. Meanwhile he married his accomplished assistant teacher. He and his wife then received a call to take charge of an academy at Stillwater, N. Y., which was accepted, and they entered upon their duties in September, 1839. A successful administration of this academy for a period of ten years followed, and during this time he was engaged at intervals in conducting teachers' institutes in Saratoga county, N. Y., and, at the instance of Governor Eaton and other warm friends of education, in the state of Vermont. These institutes were then a new feature in educational work.

On December 1, 1848, he became principal of the preparatory department of Columbian College, Washington, D. C., and continued in charge of that institution about four years. While thus engaged he was active in the organization and conduct of the Columbian Teachers' Association of Washington, which continued for some years and did much good in its time.

In 1852 he established in Washington a private school, named the Union Academy, which was favorably known and well supported until the breaking out of the Civil War in 1861. Many of the patrons of the school were from the South, and their withdrawal from the city at that time, and the disturbed state of affairs generally, seriously interfered with the school.

In 1855 he was active in organizing the Young Men's Christian Association of Washington, the third association of the kind organized in the United States. He was elected its first president, filled that office for two years, and continued an active and interested member to the close of his life.

¹By request of the chairman of the Committee on Necrology, the amended spellings adopted by the Board of Directors are not used in this report.

In 1861 he was appointed to a clerkship in the Treasury Department; subsequently, he was assigned to duty in the Bureau of Statistics, and filled that office until 1867. He was, in the same year also, elected a member of the common council of the city and the president of that body. While in the Bureau of Statistics, by consent of his chief, he made a large collection of school statistics, somewhat in the line of work afterward undertaken by the Bureau of Education, but he did not succeed in having the information tabulated and published.

For two years he conducted a local normal institute for teachers of the Washington city public schools.

He was one of the three members of the Christian Commission selected to represent the District of Columbia during the Civil War, and faithfully ministered to the sick and wounded in the hospitals.

He was active in securing the passage by Congress of the bill establishing the National Department of Education, was appointed to a prominent clerkship in it when organized in 1867, and held the office until 1869, when the department was made a bureau of the Interior Department and a change was made in its head.

While holding this office he was elected a member of the board of aldermen of the city of Washington, and president of the board. Through his efforts an ordinance was passed by the city council creating the office of superintendent of public schools, and he was appointed the first incumbent of the position in 1869, and held the office one year.

In 1871, under the territorial form of government, he was appointed auditor for the District of Columbia and held the office for three years.

Up to this time he had acquired a handsome property in the city, and apparently had abundant means to supply all his wants in his advancing years. But unfortunately he had allowed the use of his name in indorsing paper for some of his intimate friends, who became involved so heavily in debt that most of his own property was sacrificed in its liquidation, and he was left in straitened and embarrassing circumstances which clouded and embittered his old age. After his retirement from all public office he taught a small private school in his own residence for a while.

He died in Washington, D. C., November 1, 1899, in the eighty-ninth year of his age.

His life, which almost spanned the nineteenth century, coterminous with the history of our country from the administration of Madison to that of McKinley, was full of activities resulting, now in gratifying success, and now in grievous disappointment; but running through all there was a remarkable, persistent devotion to what he most earnestly believed to be his foreordained mission as an educator.

The National Educational Association was the educational interest with which he was connected the longest time and for which he had the deepest attachment. He was one of the thirty-eight delegates who met in the Athenæum building in Philadelphia, Pa., August 26, 1857, and framed and signed the constitution of the National Teachers' Association, which developed into the National Educational Association in 1870. He was elected its first president, presided at the first annual meeting, held at Cincinnati, O., in 1858, was a constant attendant at the meetings held from that date down to 1896, when failing health intervened, and he always took an active part in its proceedings.

He was a member of the Committee of Three which in 1886, at Washington, D. C., secured articles of incorporation for the National Educational Association; for some years he was a member of the Board of Trustees constituting the body corporate of the association, and was the custodian of its publications.

He prepared and read at the meeting held at Toronto, Can., in 1891, a valuable historical sketch of the association, which is published in brochure form. The numerous papers read by him and reports of his discussions are to be found scattered all through its published volumes.

Even in his last days, when the hand of affliction was laid heavy upon him, when his body refused ready obedience to an exceptionally strong will, and the mental brightness

of his prime was gradually fading into twilight, his glimmering thoughts seemed to linger about the great institution with whose origin and growth he had been so closely identified.

J. ORMOND WILSON.

William Evarts Sheldon

William Evarts Sheldon was born in Dorset, Vt., October 22, 1832, and died in Boston April 16, 1900, being suddenly summoned while signing a business letter. He studied at Middlebury College and received the degree of A.M. His early life was devoted to teaching, and the last twenty-five years to journalism and business. He began his teaching in the common schools of his native state. He came to Massachusetts in 1853, and taught the high school of Abington. In 1858 he took charge of the grammar school of West Newton, and in 1864 became master of the Hancock School, Boston, which position he filled with marked ability until 1870, when he left it to engage in business. While master of the Hancock School he was made supervising principal of the primary schools in that section of the city, and introduced advanced methods of primary instruction. His experience in business was not wholly satisfactory, and he became principal of the Waltham grammar school, which position he resigned to take charge of the advertising department of a Boston daily. In 1875 he became manager of the advertising department of the *Journal of Education*, holding the position until his death. While connected with the *Journal* he was editor of the *Primary Teacher*, later known as the *American Teacher*. He was an enthusiastic advocate of the kindergarten, and helped to organize the Kindergarten Department of the National Educational Association.

Mr. Sheldon took from the first an active interest in all movements for the improvement of public education. He early became an active member of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association and of the American Institute of Instruction, and was one of the two New England educators who participated in the organization of the National Teachers' Association in Philadelphia in 1857, when he was chosen the first secretary of that body. He was president of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association in 1863-64; of the American Institute of Instruction in 1867; and of the National Educational Association in 1887, presiding at the famous Chicago meeting—one of the largest meetings of the association yet held. He was secretary of this association in 1857 (as above stated), and again in 1882, 1883, 1885, and 1886. For forty-three years he was a member of the organization, and very few men have had greater influence in its councils, and no one has been more devoted to its best interests. As a presiding officer he had few equals. He was always courteous, and his genial personality won friends. He was the soul of good nature and kindness; was a clear thinker on his feet; had a ready command of choice language, and a clear and ringing voice, with sufficient force and compass to reach the largest audiences. He had the ability to say what he wished to say, in such a way that his hearers were not left in doubt as to his meaning.

Mr. Sheldon resided in West Newton for forty-two years. He took a deep interest in the improvement of the town, and was a leader in whatever concerned its civic life. He was an active member of the Congregational church. He was married in 1854 to Miss Mary A. Soule, who, with one daughter and two granddaughters—children of a younger daughter, deceased—survives him.

The following tribute to Dr. Sheldon's memory is paid by Mr. Alexander Hogg, of Fort Worth, Tex.:

"I first met Mr. Sheldon at the meeting of the National Educational Association in Detroit, in 1874, and I shall never forget the cordiality with which I was received by him and others. I was at that time a citizen of Alabama, and traveled all the way to Detroit to become a member of that then small body of educators. This was but a decade after the Civil War, and yet a most fraternal feeling already existed between educators north and

south. It must be said that no other class of men have done more to bring about a restoration of the union than these same schoolmasters. Among those whom I met at Detroit, William E. Sheldon was, if not the first, among the foremost in this good work. It has been to me a great privilege to be associated with him in the National Educational Association for a quarter of a century. He has always been to me a brother beloved, and I would like to pay this humble tribute to his noble character and life."

James Henry Smart

James Henry Smart, LL.D., was born at Center Harbor, N. H., June 30, 1841. His early schooling was in the rural schools. At eleven years of age he entered the high school of Concord, where he prepared for college, but was prevented from taking a college course. At eighteen he taught a district school, and the next year took charge of a graded school in Laconia, N. H. The next three years he taught in different schools. In 1863 he became principal of a public school in Toledo, O., and in 1865 accepted the superintendency of the public schools of Fort Wayne, Ind., filling the position for ten years with marked success. He early became an active and leading member of the Indiana State Teachers' Association.

In 1874 he was elected state superintendent of public instruction, and filled the position, by re-election, for three successive terms, or six years. He secured important school legislation, and gave a new impulse to the public schools of the state. The new law creating the office of county superintendent of schools was in danger of repeal when he entered the office, but, by well-directed and persistent efforts, he saved the system. He left the office with a high reputation, not only in Indiana, but among educators in other states.

In 1883 Dr. Smart was elected president of Purdue University, at Lafayette, Ind., and continued in this position until his death in February, 1900. His administration was characterized by high executive ability. He developed with wise efforts the excellent plan of organization which had been devised and put into operation by his predecessor, making Purdue University one of the best-equipped and most successful institutions of technology and applied science in the United States. The resources of the institution were greatly increased during his administration. In all the years of his connection with the university he suffered from a serious affection of the eyes, and later from failing health. For more than two years many of his duties were discharged by Vice-President Stone, now his successor as president.

Dr. Smart filled various other positions of trust and honor. He served as trustee of the state university, and, for six years, of the state normal school. He was a member of the state board of education for nearly thirty years. In 1872 he was assistant commissioner for Indiana to the Vienna exposition; in 1878 he served as United States commissioner to the Paris exposition, and in 1898 as representative commissioner for the United States to the Agricultural Congress at The Hague. He was the twentieth president of the National Educational Association, presiding at the meeting in Atlanta, Ga., in 1881, and was president of the American Association of Agricultural Colleges in 1890. In 1870 Dartmouth College conferred upon him the degree of A.M., and in 1883 the Indiana University gave him the degree of LL.D.

Dr. Smart filled the various positions to which he was called with marked ability and success. His perception was keen, his judgment practical, his energy untiring, his purpose persistent, and his dealings with men politic and winning. In the accomplishment of his purposes he made a careful study of conditions, and was tactful in adapting means thereto. His plans in all positions held looked to practical results, and he kept a firm grasp on details.

In addition to papers and reports, and a little manual on gymnastics, he published, prior to 1880, four small volumes, viz.: *An Ideal School System for a State*, *The Institute System of the United States*, *A Commentary on the School Laws of Indiana*, and *The Schools of Indiana*.

Henry Barnard

Henry Barnard, LL.D., was born in Hartford, Conn., in January, 1811, and died in the city of his birth July 6, 1900. He graduated from Yale College in 1830 and then studied law. He began his career as an advocate of public education as early as 1835, and as a member of the Connecticut legislature in 1837 rendered most important service in securing legislation which reorganized the common schools of the state. He was made secretary of the state board of education and in this capacity wrote a number of able reports. He afterward held a similar position in Rhode Island, where he won an apparently impossible victory for state schools. It is reported that he made over a thousand speeches in this little state, winning the people to the support of public schools. He was early an eloquent advocate of normal training, and participated in Horace Mann's efforts which resulted in the establishment of the first normal school in the United States.

In these early years Mr. Barnard was a very eloquent and convincing orator. He pleaded the cause of public education before the legislatures in ten states, and he was officially connected with the schools not only of Connecticut and Rhode Island, but also of Wisconsin and Maryland. He was appointed United States Commissioner of Education in 1867, and held the position until 1870, when he was succeeded by General John Eaton. After his retirement from the commissionership he held no official position.

In 1855 Dr. Barnard founded the *American Journal of Education*, and published thirty-one volumes. He was not strong in business or executive ability. The receipts from subscriptions and sales of the *Journal* fell much below the cost of publication, and a considerable fortune was sunk in its continuance. In its scope and ability this publication is not equaled by any single publication in the world. As Editor George P. Brown has happily put it: "He built for himself a great monument, but expended all his fortune in doing it. Dr. Barnard was a noble example of the devotion of large endowments to a great cause without expectation of financial reward."

Henrietta B. Ayres

Miss Henrietta B. Ayres was born at Hagaman's Mills, Montgomery county, N. Y., in 1846. At the age of twelve years she removed with her parents to Cleveland, O. She completed her studies in the public schools of that city in 1865. She began teaching in the schools of Cleveland in the following year and continued in that service until 1881. Her work in the schools of Denver, Colo., commenced in 1882, and at the time of her death she was a teacher in the Gilpin School of that city.

She became an active member of the National Educational Association in 1892. Her death occurred at Cleveland, O., August 24, 1900.

Elias J. Beardsley

Elias J. Beardsley, superintendent of schools and secretary of the board of education of the city of Elmira, N. Y., died at his home on March 2, 1899. He was born in Catherine, Schuyler county, N. Y., on July 7, 1833. In early life he attended the public schools in that vicinity, and prepared for college at Havana Union School and Newark Academy. He was graduated from Union College in the class of 1855. He later received

the degree of A.M. from that institution. He turned his mind to teaching while preparing for college, and in 1851, when nineteen years of age, taught his first school. He taught three successive fall and winter terms in his native district, and on leaving college taught one year in Dundee Academy and several years in district schools.

Superintendent Beardsley came to Elmira in the fall of 1858, and began to teach in District School No. 3, and taught in various schools of the city until August, 1889, when he was appointed superintendent of city schools. This office he filled until his death. He gave a remarkably long and faithful service to the city of Elmira, having devoted twenty-nine years as principal and ten years as superintendent to the interests of the schools.

Mr. Beardsley was married about forty years ago to Miss Iva Brown, of Elmira, who, with one son, survives him.

Henry R. Blaisdell

Henry R. Blaisdell was born in Beaver, Pa., November 1, 1837. His early years were spent in Boston, Mass., where he received his preparatory education. In 1856 he graduated from the Lowell (Mass.) High School, with highest honors. In 1860 he graduated from Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

He came to Kentucky and began his life-work as an educator in 1860, teaching Latin and mathematics for one year in the Millersburg Female College. In 1861 he removed to Flemingsburg, Ky., and was principal of the Flemingsburg Seminary from 1861 to 1865, when he took charge of the Maysville Seminary, being principal of that institution for fifteen years.

He was elected principal of the high school of Paris, Ky., in 1880, and filled with great acceptability this position for eight years, when he resigned to take the presidency of the Wheeling Female College, Wheeling, W. Va., from 1887 to 1891. In 1891 he returned again to Kentucky, and was elected principal of Covington High School, in which position he continued until the time of his death, March 14, 1899.

He had been a member of the National Educational Association variously from 1874 to 1893, since which time his active membership had been continuous.

Emanuel R. Boyer

When Emanuel R. Boyer died at his home in Chicago, February 24, 1900, one of the most progressive and promising men among the educators of America passed away. Only a week before, his splendid physique and robust health indicated years of increasing usefulness to come. But a visit to Hull House resulted in a heavy cold, which developed into pneumonia, and, in spite of the most faithful efforts of physicians and friends, laid the strong man low in one week.

Mr. Boyer was born, of Quaker ancestry, near York, Pa., April 15, 1851. While a lad he came with his parents to Fulton county, Ill. His early years were spent on the farm, and his early education was acquired in country schools. When twenty-one years of age he began teaching in country schools, and soon entered the Illinois State Normal University at Normal, from which he graduated in 1879. After graduation he became principal of the public schools in Astoria, Ill., and after two years' service was called to a similar position at Lewistown, Ill. Soon after graduation he married Miss Emily A. Sherman, a classmate at the normal school, who, with four children, survives him.

From 1883 to 1886 he was county superintendent of the schools of Fulton county. He then became instructor for a short time in the University of Illinois. In 1890, after a residence of two years, he graduated from Harvard University with the degree of A.B. His special study was biology, which he pursued with eminent success. In 1890 he

became connected with the high schools of Chicago, serving in succession at Lake, Englewood, and Hyde Park.

When Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews became superintendent of Chicago he selected Mr. Boyer as his general assistant.

In the fall of 1899 he was called to become general director and business manager of the Chicago Institute. Before leaving the service of the city board of education he was appointed to prepare the educational exhibit of Chicago for the Paris exposition. This work he completed after his connection with the Chicago schools had ceased.

He prepared and published a *Manual of Biology*, which was used in the high schools of Chicago. He also published other contributions to science. His success as a teacher and manager of school affairs was phenomenal.

John Braden

John Braden, D.D., was born in New York city, August 18, 1826. At the age of sixteen he went west to care for himself. In 1853 he graduated from Ohio Wesleyan University. Subsequently he received the degree of D.D. from the Iowa Wesleyan University. The same year he became a teacher in Xenia Female College. He was ordained as a minister of the M. E. church in 1854. From 1859 to 1861 he was president of Carlisle Academy. In 1861 he became pastor of the York Street Church of Cincinnati. At the close of the Civil War, in response to a call for workers among the freedmen of the South, he became president of a school which afterward became Central Tennessee College, which position he held until the time of his death, June 10, 1900.

His greatest educational work consisted in the organization and upbuilding of Central Tennessee College for colored students. More than 6,000 colored young people had come under the influence of his life and teaching, and carried into their life-work the results of his consecrated enthusiasm and inspiring influence.

He had frequently attended the National Educational Association since 1884 and had been continuously an active member since 1895.

Charles M. Davis

Charles M. Davis was born in Bloomfield, N. J., in 1824. He received his early education in Bloomfield Seminary. He graduated from Princeton College at the head of his class, and was later granted the degree of A.M. by that institution.

After graduation he established the Bloomfield Classical School, which he conducted until 1867, when he became principal of Newark Academy, where he remained six years. During this period he was appointed superintendent of the public schools of Essex county, which position he held for twenty-three years.

He was associated with the late Rev. Charles F. Deems and others in the American Institute of Christian Philosophy, and was for many years the secretary of that body. This labor of love for the promotion of Christian scholarship was characteristic of his broad intellectual culture and profound spirituality.

In 1891 he was appointed superintendent of the Bayonne public schools, which position he held at the time of his death, August 1, 1900.

Mr. Davis was vice-president of the Council of Education of the State of New Jersey and a member of the State Sanitary Commission. He had been an active member of the National Educational Association since 1893.

Larkin Dunton

Larkin Dunton, LL.D., was born at Concord, Me., July 22, 1828. His early training in the primitive and exacting school of experience did not crush his masterful spirit, but rather left it molded, refined, and strengthened. His desire for an education was such that at nineteen years of age he bought his time that he might attend school.

He fitted for college at Hallowell Academy, where he served as an assistant teacher during the most of his preparatory course. He graduated from Waterville College, now Colby College, in 1855. He paid his college expenses largely by teaching.

After leaving college he read law and was admitted to the Kennebec bar. He practiced law and taught school for several years, but when he was elected to the principalship of the Bath High School, he abandoned the law and decided to make teaching his life-work. During his seven and a half years of service as principal of the Bath High School he was an earnest student of the principles of teaching, and he read several very thoughtful papers before the State Teachers' Association. In 1867 he entered the service of the city of Boston as submaster in the Lawrence School. Within a year he was made master of this important grammar school. In 1872 he was elected headmaster of the Boston Normal School, and he held this position until September, 1899, when failing health compelled him to resign.

For more than a quarter of a century Dr. Dunton was a trusted leader in the educational activities of Boston. He was an earnest student of his profession, a safe counselor, and a skillful interpreter of educational philosophy. The Boston Normal School was in reality his creation, and the intelligent professional spirit possessed by its multitude of graduates who are now teaching in Boston is a worthy monument to his efficiency.

Dr. Dunton was widely sought as a lecturer upon educational topics, and he wrote and edited a large number of books for school use, besides contributing freely to the educational periodicals. His favorite study was psychology, and his most mature thought was given to the psychological basis of the principles of education.

He was connected with every important local and state educational organization, and was a member of the National Educational Association at frequent intervals from 1874.

At the twenty-fifth anniversary of his graduation from Colby College he received the degree of LL.D., a degree which he wore with becoming modesty and dignity. He was later made a trustee of his *alma mater*.

Dr. Dunton died October 23, 1899, at his home in Allston, Mass. His widow, a son, and a daughter survive him.

August E. Engstrom

August E. Engstrom was born near the city of Skofde, in the western part of Sweden, in 1851. At the age of seventeen years he emigrated to America, settling near Red Wing, Minnesota. In 1871 he entered the Academy of Carleton College, at Northfield, Minn., graduating from the classical course of the college in 1878.

In the fall of the same year he was elected principal of the schools of Cannon Falls, Minn., which position he filled for three years. In 1881 he was elected county superintendent of the schools of Goodhue county, Minn., and re-elected biennially for twenty years. This position he held at the time of his death, having been longest in service of any county superintendent in the state.

He was president of the Minnesota Educational Association for one term, a member of the State Normal Board for two years, and a trustee of Carleton College for ten years. His twenty years of service in the Goodhue county schools had brought them to the front rank of the rural schools in the state through a higher grade of teachers, higher wages, more certain tenure of appointment, a systematic course of study for rural schools, free

text-books in 137 districts, and a well-selected library in each of 152 of the 161 districts of that county.

He first attended the National Educational Association in 1890 and became an active member in 1895.

He died at Cannon Falls October 12, 1899, leaving a wife and seven children.

George L. Farnham

George L. Farnham was born in 1824 in Watertown, N. Y. His early education was obtained in the schools of that city. Later he graduated from the State Normal School at Albany, and became superintendent of schools of Syracuse, N. Y. From 1869 to 1875 he was superintendent of schools of Binghamton, N. Y. From that place he removed to Council Bluffs, Ia., where he was superintendent of city schools for three years. His greatest educational work was performed later as principal of the State Normal School at Peru, Neb., which position he held for nine years. In 1893 he resigned on account of ill-health, and removed to Riverside, Cal., where he had since lived.

His connection with the National Educational Association dates from 1870. At the annual meeting held in Elmira, N. Y., he presented before the Elementary Department a notable paper on "The Thought and Sentence Method in Primary Reading." He died suddenly in July, 1900, while on a visit to Binghamton, N. Y., his former home.

John T. Flavin

The death of John T. Flavin, superintendent of public schools of Dodge county, Wis., and president of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association, removed from the educational field one of its most devoted and indefatigable workers, and from the state a superintendent whom the people had kept at the head of their schools for twenty-six consecutive years.

John T. Flavin was born near Watertown, Wis., in 1848. The common schools and the Northwestern University accorded him his early training. At an early age he began to teach school. In 1873, while principal of a ward school in Watertown, the people of Dodge county elected him superintendent of public schools, and this position he held continuously up to the time of his death. He served several terms as president of the Wisconsin Reading Circles, and also as a member of the Board of Normal-School Visitors. In December, 1898, the State Teachers' Association, as a tribute to his long and faithful service, elected him president. His death occurred as a consequence of overwork, on August 28, 1899.

Superintendent Flavin was no ordinary man. He was a person of the most refined sensibilities and of noble character. Loving good and his fellow-men, he always stood ready to lend a helping hand to anyone in need. His manly presence and kind and thoughtful treatment of everyone with whom he came in contact endeared him to all. His noble qualities of head and heart kept him in the superintendency for more than a quarter of a century, and they will keep his memory fresh in the hearts of those who knew him.

Louis B. Galbreath

Louis H. Galbreath was born near Ashmore, Coles county, Ill., in 1861. His early life was spent on a farm and in the public schools of Ashmore. Before the age of twenty he began teaching district schools. Later he entered the State Normal University

at Normal, Ill., from which he graduated in 1885. He then entered Cornell University at Ithaca, N. Y. After attending a year he returned to school, teaching for three years in his native county. He then resumed his studies in Cornell University, where he graduated in 1890. He remained in Ithaca for two years after graduating, taking postgraduate studies and tutoring.

From 1892 to 1896 he was superintendent of the model school and teacher of methods in the State Normal School at Winona, Minn.; the following year he occupied the chair of pedagogy in the Normal University of Illinois; the next year was spent in a similar position in the School of Pedagogy at Buffalo, N. Y. The last year of his life was spent as a fellow in the Teachers College of Columbia University, New York city.

In April, 1899, he was elected to the chair of pedagogy in the new normal school at Charleston, Ill., and was making preparation for entering upon this work when he was suddenly taken ill with typhoid fever, and died at St. Luke's Hospital, New York city, August 14, 1899.

In 1895 he married Miss Julia Tift, of Ithaca, N. Y., who, with two boys, survives him.

Mr. Galbreath was a man of noble character, and a teacher of rare gifts, who had already won high rank among the educators of the country.

S. Olin Garrison

S. Olin Garrison was born at Millville, N. J., on Christmas day, 1853. For several years he was a regular ordained minister of the Methodist Episcopal church. In 1877, with his brother, Rev. Charles F. Garrison, he turned their old family homestead into a private training school for feeble-minded children. The accommodations there were soon outgrown, and in his search for a larger field Professor Garrison met the late B. D. Maxham, of Vineland, whose interest in this unfortunate class was so great that he made over for the purpose of the institution forty acres of land and a large house. This was the beginning of what has grown to be one of the most important schools for the feeble-minded in the country.

He gave his life for others, and nothing seemed to touch him so profoundly as the weakness and disability of those whom he loved to call his children. He did not seek self-aggrandizement; he did not ask recognition for himself, but only for the great cause that he had espoused. Professor Garrison felt that for many years the work of the education of the feeble-minded had been degenerating into mere custodial care in most of the so-called training schools, and it was his constant aim to bring to the front the educational idea.

He died on April 17, 1900, leaving a wife and four children.

Henry Bash Gwynn

Henry Bash Gwynn was born in Baltimore, Md., December 16, 1853. He was educated in the public schools of that city, graduating from the City College in 1873. He taught in a private school for two years, then was made first assistant in Male Grammar School No. 4.

In 1881 he became superintendent of the public schools of Galveston, Tex. During the following two years, spent in Texas, Dr. Gwynn arranged a course of study for every city of any size in the state, and conducted the Summer Normal School.

Returning to Baltimore in 1883, he again entered the public-school service, first as first assistant in Male Grammar School No. 18, next in a similar position in Male

Grammar School No. 1. In 1891 he was promoted to the principalship of the latter school, which position he held until his death, October 11, 1900.

Dr. Gwynn was the pioneer, at least in Baltimore, in the teaching of geography and history with the aid of the stereopticon. He also introduced into his school the first gymnasium in the public schools of this section of the country. Dr. Gwynn graduated from the Medical College of the Baltimore University in 1887.

His interest in and kindness to all who were associated with him in the profession of teaching, and his special helpfulness to young teachers, were among his chief characteristics. All his work was marked by the most liberal and progressive views.

He became an active member of the National Educational Association at the Washington meeting in 1898.

James Hannan

James Hannan was born in Kenosha county, Wis., in November, 1840, and was educated in the high school of Kenosha and at the Michigan State University. He taught in the rural schools of Kenosha county, and was county superintendent for one term. In 1869 he became connected with the Chicago schools, serving as principal of the Kinzie, La Salle, and Lake High Schools. He became local superintendent of District No. 2, Lake township, in 1888. At the time of the annexation to Chicago he was elected assistant superintendent of Chicago schools, and served until death closed his work on September 6, 1900.

Cool, calm, and dispassionate, he deliberately and critically examined every problem that arose in his work, and with unerring judgment arrived at its correct and equitable solution. His courteous and placid nature recoiled from forwardness. He regarded all political methods of advancement with innate scorn. He was a lover of books, and had acquired a large library of the rarest and best works in science, philosophy, and literature.

To the children he was the kind father, to the parents the revered friend, to the teachers the kindest and wisest of counselors, and to his associates in the Board of Superintendents in Chicago the loyal, consistent, and cultured coadjutor.

Henry S. Jones

Henry S. Jones was born in Rochester, N. Y., in 1832, and was of Puritan and Welsh descent. His father's family went to Michigan in 1834. He was graduated from the Michigan State Normal School, and subsequently attended the Michigan State University at Ann Arbor. He served for several years as principal of schools of Three Rivers and Dowagiac, Mich. In 1858 he became principal of the West Ward schools of Erie, Pa., and later was placed in charge of the East and West Ward schools. In 1865 he was elected superintendent of the schools of the city of Erie, and served in this capacity for twenty-six years, during which time he built up a system of schools that attracted wide attention thruout the country. After leaving Erie he took charge of the schools of Lincoln, Neb., performing his duties there with the same indomitable purpose and untiring energy which had characterized his work throughout his entire life. After three years' service at Lincoln he was forced to resign on account of ill-health, and to seek a milder climate. In 1895, with his wife and family, he removed to a ranch near Houston, Tex. Here his health seemed to improve considerably until July 5, 1900, when he died suddenly of heart failure, induced by over-exposure to the heat.

Dr. Jones was a member of the National Educational Association for many years. In 1882 he was elected a member of the National Council of Education, served as vice-president of the Council in 1886, and at the time of his death was enrolled among its

honorary members. While in Pennsylvania he was one of the most active members of the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association, serving as its president in 1870. During his career as superintendent he delivered a large number of scientific lectures and pedagogical addresses, and wrote frequently for the educational journals. As a recognition of his ability as a school superintendent and educator, he received, about eighteen years before his death, the honorary degree of doctor of philosophy from Lafayette College.

Dr. Jones was an able teacher and superintendent. His work was characterized by a faithful adherence to a lofty ideal of duty, and a hearty sympathy with the needs of childhood and youth. In private life he was most highly esteemed as a man of the highest integrity and Christian principles, whose best endeavors were cheerfully given to assist his fellow-men.

Frederick Hiram Lane

Frederick Hiram Lane was born at Owego, N. Y., May 14, 1867, and died at Babylon, June 10, 1899. He received his education in the schools of Owego, in the State Normal School at Oneonta, and was also a graduate of Illinois Wesleyan University.

His written contributions to education consisted of a book on *Elementary Greek Education*, and of a number of papers on various educational topics. His teaching work was done in Babylon and Long Island City. During the three years preceding his death he was the highly prized and trusted representative of Silver, Burdett & Co., of New York. He was married, June 29, 1893, to Elizabeth Rathbun Hull, who, with two children, survives him.

Mr. Lane was a manly, vigorous personality, a sincere lover of truth, and a hater of shams. As a teacher he showed high organizing and executive ability; he was a man of affairs, as well as a man of ideas. He had to a marked degree the power of winning friends and of holding their esteem and confidence.

Angelina N. Miller

Miss Angelina N. Miller was born in Covington, Ind., in 1853. She was educated in the public schools of Iowa and graduated from the State University of Iowa. After graduating she taught continuously in public schools until her death in Denver, Colo., December 4, 1899.

For the past sixteen years she was a principal of one of the schools of Denver, and was prominent in public service in many ways, especially thru her connection with the Associated Charities of that city.

She first attended the National Educational Association in 1884, the Madison meeting. She became an active member of the association at the Denver meeting in 1895.

William H. Morgan

William H. Morgan was born in New York on April 16, 1837, and came with his parents to Cincinnati in 1844. He received his education in the public schools of the city, graduating from Woodward High School in 1856. Soon after leaving school he became a teacher in one of the district schools of Cincinnati, and in 1864 was appointed principal of the Ninth District School. In 1869 he resigned the position to go into the insurance business, in which he remained for twenty years.

While in the insurance business he served several terms in the board of city school examiners, and one or two terms on the board of education, and otherwise showed an active interest in the public schools.

In 1889 Mr. Morgan was elected superintendent of the public schools of Cincinnati, remaining in the office until 1899, when, owing to a failure of health, he resigned. As superintendent Mr. Morgan gave close attention to the details of supervision, and always expressed satisfaction with the work done in the schools and the degree of progress attained. He became an active member of the National Educational Association in 1895.

John Russell Olin

John Russell Olin was born in Clinton, Oneida county, N. Y. A few years later the family removed to Watertown, N. Y. He received his schooling in the public schools of that city. He entered Hobart College in the fall of 1889, and was graduated with honors in the class of 1893. He was at once engaged as science master in the Watertown High School. Upon the resignation of the principal, Dr. Lytle, four years later, the board of education unanimously elected Mr. Olin his successor. Later he resigned this position to take postgraduate work in Harvard University in pedagogy and science.

In the spring of 1899 he was elected principal of the high school, Belmont, Mass., which position he filled with rare success until his death, April 14, 1900.

Mr. Olin's chief characteristics were earnestness, sincerity, a genial, refined manner, and a sympathetic nature. He was an instructor of rare skill and a man who was always helpful to those who came in contact with him.

Frank Ostrander

The late Hon. Frank Ostrander was born December 20, 1861, in Jefferson, Wis. His father, Judge Dempster Ostrander, was one of the pioneers of Wisconsin. In 1872 his parents removed to Milwaukee, where he continued his elementary and secondary-school training.

His first position after leaving school was that of a messenger boy in the First National Bank of Milwaukee. Later he entered the insurance office of Benjamin Weil. Thus early in life he learned the first principles of the two branches of business in which he rose to eminence in West Superior. His business career was one of unusual activity and prosperity. A man of great energy, keen foresight, and remarkable will, loyal to his friends and faithful to trusts, Frank Ostrander soon became one of the few great leaders in northern Wisconsin.

During the administration of Governor William Upham he was appointed resident regent for the River Falls Normal School. His interest and influence in the location of the Seventh Normal School at Superior, of which he was the first regent, brought him into prominence in educational circles. During the greater part of the time of his service as member of the Board of Normal School Regents Mr. Ostrander was chairman of the Teachers' Committee. He examined carefully into the qualifications of everyone who entered the normal-school service, exhibiting the same independence and vigor in his educational work that he did in his private business affairs. He became an active member of the National Educational Association in 1897.

He was identified with almost every public enterprise of note in his city and state; he was liberal in his views and in the distribution of his wealth; his sympathies were active, and his impulses manly and noble.

A widow and one son survive him.

Edwin B. Owen

Edwin H. Owen was born in Wellington, O., in 1858, and died of spinal meningitis at Carlinville, Ill., August 30, 1899. He was educated in the common schools and in the Ohio Wesleyan University at Delaware, O. He had been superintendent of schools at Carlinville since 1891; previous to that time he held the same office in Shelbyville and Arcola, Ill.

In 1893 he was married to Miss Sara Loomis, of Carlinville, who, with a young son, survives him.

His noble character and his remarkable success as a teacher and manager of school affairs won for him the esteem and confidence of all.

He became an active member of the National Educational Association in 1897.

S. S. Parr

S. S. Parr was born at Dell Roy, O., in 1848, where he lived until fifteen years of age, when his parents removed to Bell Air, Ill. He graduated from both elementary and advanced courses of the State Normal School at Terre Haute, Ind.

He was city superintendent of schools at Marshall, Ill., in 1873-74, and taught in the Indianapolis High School in 1875-76. From 1876 to 1881 he taught in the State Normal School at Terre Haute. The next four years were spent mainly in Minnesota in educational work and in editing the state educational paper, *School Education*, which he founded.

From 1885 to 1889 he was dean of the normal department of DePauw University at Greencastle, Ind. He then returned to Minnesota and became superintendent of city schools of St. Cloud, in which position he remained until his death, February 23, 1900.

Superintendent Parr was almost continuously an active member of the National Educational Association from 1884, and was president of the Normal Department at the San Francisco meeting in 1888.

Mrs. Matilda S. Poucher

Mrs. Poucher was born in Blauveltville, N. Y., in 1839. Her maiden name was Matilda S. Cooper. She received her early education in rural schools, afterward attending Hardcastle's Institution at Nyack, N. Y., and Clinton Liberal Institute. She then entered the State Normal School at Albany, N. Y., where she was graduated in the summer of 1856.

Immediately after graduation she was employed by the Oswego board of education to take charge of a department of one of the senior schools. She was afterward transferred to a primary school, where her success was so marked that she was appointed critic of the city training school. Later she became teacher of methods in the Oswego State Normal School, which position she filled until her resignation in 1886.

She was married in 1890 to Principal I. B. Poucher of the Oswego Normal School.

She frequently attended the meetings of the National Educational Association. She was for some years an active member of the National Council of Education, and at the time of her death was an honorary member of that body.

No brief sketch can do justice to her noble character and her great work in connection with the Oswego Normal School during the first twenty-five years of its history.

The memory of her beautiful life and of her molding and inspiring influence will ever be a rich heritage to the thousands of teachers who came under her guidance.

She was always a tireless worker and was prominent in all charitable and social, as well as educational, circles.

William H. Shelley

William H. Shelley was born on the Mansion Farm on the Hill Island in the Susquehanna river in 1840.

He entered the York County Academy when quite young, and spent several years in that institution. He began teaching in West Hempfield township, Lancaster county, Pa. Subsequently he taught three years in Columbia borough and three years as an assistant in York County Academy, during which time he completed a full collegiate course, but failing health at the time prevented him from graduating from Dickinson College.

He removed to the state of Michigan, and for three years filled the chair of Latin and Greek, and for two years the chair of mathematics, in Albion College. For proficiency in the branches taught an honorary degree of master of arts was conferred upon him by the Iowa Wesleyan University.

In 1870 he was elected the first superintendent of schools of York, Pa., and held the position for many years. Later he became connected with the Woman's College of Baltimore, and was elected principal of the Girls' Latin School of Baltimore, which position he held at the time of his death, August 12, 1900.

He became an active member of the National Educational Association in 1895.

Julia C. Silcox

Miss Julia C. Silcox was born in the year 1857 at Portsmouth, O. She began and ended her school days in the public schools of her native city. So marked was her ability and her industry as a student that soon after she had completed her course in the schools she became a teacher where she had so many years been a pupil. Her early work as a teacher was of such high character that Superintendent Andrew J. Rickoff called her to the Cleveland schools, in which she labored with unusual success to the time of her death, in August, 1900. Of the nineteen years she taught in the Cleveland schools two were spent in the high school and the last seven as assistant principal of one of our largest elementary-school buildings. Miss Silcox was always a student, seeking to improve herself by study, wide reading, travel, and by attending meetings held in the interest of her profession.

At the time of her death she was a member of the Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association, the Ohio State Teachers' Association, and the National Educational Association. As a teacher she was quiet, faithful, conscientious, and efficient. Forgetting herself, she gave her life in loving, earnest effort for her pupils.

Christine Gordon Sullivan

Miss Christine Gordon Sullivan was born in Cincinnati in 1857, and died September 1, 1899. She was educated in the public schools of the city, graduating from one of the high schools in 1873. From her tenth year she received private instruction in modeling and painting, and after leaving school she took the last year's course in the art department of Cooper Institute, New York.

In 1874 she was appointed a teacher of drawing, and for two years her leisure was spent in the studio of Jacquier, an able French sculptor then in Cincinnati, and her summer vacations were spent in Boston in painting under Fuller. In 1879 she was appointed assistant supervisor of drawing, and 1884 superintendent of drawing, in the public schools, filling the position with marked efficiency and success for fifteen years. She possessed remarkable administrative ability, and whatever enterprise was undertaken

by her was most successfully managed. Her services as assistant commissioner in the department of education in the Centennial Exposition of the Ohio Valley and Central States in 1888 won the high praise of all interested.

Miss Sullivan had no leisure, finding important work for all her time. She had a talent for hard work. In 1882 she published her first book, *The Elements of Perspective*, and in 1884 *The Eclectic System of Industrial Drawing*, which was at once adopted for the schools of Cincinnati, and is still used with satisfaction. The excellence of her method of teaching drawing has been attested by awards of merit wherever presented in competition.

She was the author of a series of papers on the relation of art to education, translations from French journals, a text-book on *The Elements of Mechanical Drawing*, and, in 1899, a series of papers on "Our Home Birds," to appear in book form; also material for another book of short stories dealing with child life.

Miss Sullivan was president of the Art Department of the National Educational Association in 1894, and she filled other positions of responsibility and honor. She received the honorary degree of A.M. in 1890, and two years later the degree of Ph.D. The sculptor Webber is now at work on a marble bust of Miss Sullivan which is to be placed in the Art Museum of Cincinnati as a memorial of her work and character.

Martha J. B. Thomas

Miss Martha J. B. Thomas was born in Chester, Morris county, N. J. She was some time vice-principal of the school of Raritan, N. J., leaving that school in 1881 to accept a similar position in the schools at Woodbridge, N. J., of which she was elected principal. Several years later Miss Thomas was called to Bayonne, N. J., to take charge of an academic class, which soon became a high school, of which she was made principal.

During her connection with the high school of Bayonne she pursued studies as a non-resident student of the University of New York and was granted the degree of A.M.

After a remarkably successful career as a teacher for forty years, she died at Potteryville, N. J., October 18, 1899.

She became an active member of the National Educational Association in 1896.

Samuel Gardner Williams

Samuel Gardner Williams was born in 1827 near Winfield, N. Y. His early education was received in rural schools and in Whitestown Seminary. He entered Hamilton College in 1849 and graduated at the head of his class in 1852, winning election to the Phi Beta Kappa fraternity. He taught successively as principal of Groton Academy, Seneca Falls Academy, Ithaca Academy, and the Central High School of Cleveland, O.

In 1879 he was elected professor of geology in Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., and in 1886 became professor of pedagogy of that institution. For the latter position his equipment was thorough and ample, gained in a remarkably successful experience in all grades of schools, to which he added a careful study of pedagogical methods abroad, particularly in the schools of Germany.

In 1898 he resigned his position at the head of the department of pedagogy of Cornell University and was elected professor emeritus. He was the author of various publications, mainly on geology and pedagogy.

Dr. Williams had been a prominent member of the National Educational Association since 1889, and had frequently taken part in the annual meetings.

His death occurred at Ithaca, N. Y., May 9, 1900.

LIST OF LIFE, ACTIVE, AND CORRESPONDING MEMBERS

ARRANGED BY STATES, CLASSES, AND YEARS OF CONTINUOUS MEMBERSHIP

REVISED TO NOVEMBER 1, 1900

The marginal figures indicate the year of the commencement of continuous annual membership for those whose names immediately follow. The indented figures indicate year of appointment to present educational position. The value of this list as an educational directory depends upon its accuracy and completeness; all members are invited to contribute to this end by furnishing corrections of errors, however slight, and by supplying omitted data.

Extra copies of this list may be obtained by remitting twenty-five cents to the Secretary, Winona, Minn.

CORRESPONDING MEMBERS

MISS DOROTHEA BEALE, Principal of Ladies' College, Cheltenham, London, England.

SIGNOR LUIGI BODIO, Direttore Generale della Statistica del Regno, Roma, Italia.

PROFESSOR FERDINAND BUISSON, Professor of Education at the Sorbonne, Paris, France.

GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ, Rector of the University at Lyons, France.

SIR JOSHUA G. FITCH, LL.D., formerly Her Majesty's Inspector of Training Colleges and Lecturer on Education at the University of Cambridge, 13 Leinster Sq., Bayswater, W., London, England.

S. S. LAURIE, LL.D., Professor of the History and Institutes of Education in the University of Edinburgh, Scotland.

DR. E. LEVASSEUR, Professor at the College of France, President of the Statistical Commission for Primary Instruction.

FRIEDRICH PAULSEN, Ph.D., Professor of Philosophy and Education in the University of Berlin, Germany.

MICHAEL SADLER, A.M., Director of Special Inquiries and Reports, Department of Education, Whitehall, S. W., London, England.

HON. E. LYULPH STANLEY, Member of the School Board, London, England.

LIFE DIRECTORS, LIFE AND ACTIVE MEMBERS

ALABAMA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1882 JULIA S. TUTWILER.

Principal of Alabama Normal College for Girls, Livingston.

1888 JOHN HERBERT PHILLIPS, A.M., Marietta Coll., O.; Ph.D., Southern Univ., Ala.

1883, Superintendent of Schools, 2231, 7th Ave., Birmingham.

1892 FRANCIS MORTON ROOF.

1897, President of Howard College, East Lake.

1834 LUCIEN V. LA TASTE.

General Agent, University Publishing Co. of New York; Box 564, Montgomery.

JOHN MASSEY, A.M., '75, LL.D., '79, Univ. of Ala.

1876, President of Alabama Conference Female College, Tuskegee.

1895 MARY A. CAHALAN.

1884, Principal of the Powell School, 2311, 4th Ave., Birmingham.

J. B. CUNNINGHAM.

1893, Principal of High School, 1030 S. 21st St., Birmingham.

ROBERT ALEXANDER MICKLE, A.B., '86, Davidson Coll., N. C.

Principal, Jefferson St. Primary and Grammar Schools, 101 Georgia Ave., Mobile.

KATE E. MOON.

Grammar Department, Public Schools, 110 N. Conception St., Mobile.

JAMES K. POWERS, A.M., '73, LL.D., '97, Univ. of Ala.

1897, President of University of Alabama, University.

JOHN D. YERBY, A.B., '79, Southern Univ.; A.M., '96, Univ. of Ala.

1894, Superintendent of Schools, 996 Government St., Mobile.

ALABAMA — *Continued*

- 1897 ALABAMA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.
President, William Le Roy Brown, LL.D.; Librarian, Charles C. Thach, Auburn.
- 1898 ROBERT VENABLE ALLGOOD, B.P., '88, B.Sc., '90, So. Univ., Greensboro; A.M., '93, Univ. of Nashville.
J. F. ELLIOTT, '89, Superintendent of Public Schools, 5th Ave. E., Avondale, Birmingham.
J. D. MATLOCK, 1900, Superintendent of Schools at Brookwood and Searles, Brookwood, Tuscaloosa Co. Representative of American Book Co., Birmingham.
- 1899 ARTHUR U. CRAIG, B.Sc., '95, Univ. of Kan.
1895, Teacher of Physics and Mechanical Drawing, Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, Tuskegee.
- STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT JACKSONVILLE.
President, William Clarence Daugette, Jacksonville.
- 1900 JOHN W. ABERCROMBIE, A.B., '86, Oxford Coll.; LL.B., '88, Univ. of Ala.
1898, Superintendent of Education of Alabama, Department of Education, Montgomery.
- LUCIEN P. GIDDENS, A.B., '88, Southern Univ.
1894, Professor of Mathematics, Southern University, Greensboro.
- CHARLES B. GLENN, M.Sc., '92, Ala. Polytechnic Inst.; A.B., '96, Harvard.
1899, Principal, Paul Hayne School, Birmingham.
- WILLARD J. WHEELER, 1896, President, Birmingham Business College, 1909½-1917½, 1st Ave., Birmingham.
- M. C. WILSON, C.E., '76, Univ. of Va.
President, State Normal College, Florence.

ARIZONA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1895 HORACE E. WILSON.
1898, Superintendent in charge of Supai Indians and School, Supai.
- LYDIA HUNT WRIGHT.
1894, Superintendent, U. S. Indian Boarding School, Indian School, San Carlos.
- 1898 R. L. LONG.
1899, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 211 Fleming Block, Phoenix.
- BLANCHE TORRENCE THOMAS.
1896, Kindergarten Teacher, Fort Defiance.
- 1899 FRANK YALE ADAMS, A.B., '88, A.M., '94, St. Lawrence Univ.
1897, Professor of History and Pedagogy, University of Arizona, Tucson.
- W. J. ANDERSON, B.Sc., '97, National Univ., Chicago.
1898, Grand Avenue School, 12th Ave.; Box 282, Phoenix.
- MRS. SIDNEY C. BOTKIN.
Matron of Indian School, Mohave City.
- F. A. COOLEY, A.B., '92, Stanford Univ.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, 51 Council St., Tucson.
- WILLIAM B. CREAGER, A.B., '95, Ind. State Univ.
1895, Superintendent of City Schools, Phoenix.
- A. J. MATTHEWS.
1900, Principal of Normal School, Tempe.
- JAMES R. MESKIMONS.
1900, Director of Manual Training, Phoenix Indian Schools, Phoenix.
- M. M. PARKER, A. M., '78, Wesleyan Univ.
1897, President of University of Arizona, Tucson.
- 1900 MILTON J. NEEDHAM.
Principal, Blue Cañon School, Alget.

ARKANSAS

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1887 THOMAS A. FUTRALL, A.M., West Tenn. Coll.; LL.D., 1900, Univ. of Ark.
1884, Superintendent of Schools, Marianna.
- 1895 GEORGE B. COOK, A.M.
Superintendent of City Schools, 217 Garden St., Hot Springs.
- J. L. HOLLOWAY, A.M., Mo. St. Nor. Sch.
1889, Superintendent of Schools, 12th and K Sts., Fort Smith.
- W. W. RIVERS, A.B., '86, A.M., '89, Univ. of Miss.
1894, Superintendent of City Schools, Helena.
- 1896 HOWARD GATES.
1891, Principal of Kramer School, Little Rock.
- J. H. HINEMOY, A.M.
1894, Superintendent of Schools, 618 W. 6th Ave., Pine Bluff.
- ALFRED LEE PEACHER, A.M., '92, Wooster Univ., O.
1895, Superintendent of Schools, 806 Broadway, Van Buren.
- 1897 HENDRIX COLLEGE.
President, A. C. Millar, Conway.
- J. W. PARKER.
Principal of Schools, 8th and B Sts., Fort Smith.
- JOHN HUGH REYNOLDS, A.B., '93, Hendrix Coll.; A.M., '97, Univ. of Chicago.
Professor of Education and History, Hendrix College, Conway.
- 1898 A. D. CARDEN, A.B., '90.
1898, Superintendent of City Schools, Camden.
- JOSEPH CARTER CORBIN, A.M., '60; Ph.D., '99, Ohio Univ.
1873, President of Branch Normal College, Pine Bluff.
- FRANCES OWEN HOGG.
Teacher in Public Schools, 630 Chestnut St., Pine Bluff.

ARKANSAS—Continued

- 1898 EMMA MANN, M.E.L., '91, Memphis Con. Female Inst., Jackson, Tenn.
1898, Vice-Principal of 6th Ave. School, 627 Pine St., Pine Bluff.
T. P. MURREY.
Representative of American Book Co., Fort Smith.
J. R. RIGHTSSELL.
Superintendent of City Schools, Little Rock.
CORA SHEBER.
1894, Teacher in Public Schools, Hot Springs.
1899 JAMES H. WITHERSPOON, A.B., '92, Univ. of Tenn.
1895, Principal of High School, 302 W. 17th Ave., Pine Bluff.
1900 T. L. COX.
Little Rock.
J. S. STILWELL, D.D.S., '86, Kansas City Dental Coll.
1899, Secretary, State Board Dental Examiners, 2020 Spring and Arch Sts., Searcy.
J. D. VAN WINKLE.
District Manager, B. F. Johnson Publishing Co., 1023 N. 14th St., Fort Smith.

CALIFORNIA

LIFE MEMBERS

- 1877 MRS. ANNA KALFUS SPERO.
Berkeley.
1879 JAMES H. HOOSE, A.M., '64, Ph.D., '73, Syracuse Univ.
Department of Psychology and Pedagogy, University of Southern Cal., 255 S. Euclid Ave., Pasadena.
1882 HARRIET N. MORRIS, A.M., '86, Nat. Nor. Univ.
2346, 2d St., San Diego.
1884 NATHAN CROOK TWINING, A.B., '61, A.M., '65, Milton Coll., Wis.
1900, Principal of Public Schools, Nipomo; res., 1224 Walnut St., Riverside.
1886 C. Y. ROOF.
634, 18th St., Oakland.
1888 REBECCA F. ENGLISH.
1891, Critic Teacher, State Normal School, 141 S. 10th St., San José.
JOSEPH O'CONNOR.
Principal of Mission High School, 18th and Dolores Sts., San Francisco.
1889 AUGUSTA W. HOBE.
1888, Teacher in Grammar Grade, 1633 Hyde St., San Francisco.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1888 J. P. GREELEY.
1889, County Superintendent of Schools, Santa Ana.
1889 SANFORD A. HOOPER, A.B., '72, A.M., '82, Beloit Coll.
1899, Head Master of Los Angeles Military Academy, Los Angeles.
EDWARD T. PIERCE, LL.B., '77, Union Univ.; Pd.D., '94, N. Y. Nor Coll.
1893, President of State Normal School, 631 W. 5th St., Los Angeles.
1891 ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, A.B., '89, Univ. of Mich.; Ph.D., '90, Halle.
1898, Professor of Theory and Practice of Education, Univ. of Cal., 2341 Channing Way, Berkeley.
1892 FREDERIC L. BURK, B.L., '83, Univ. of Cal.; A.M., '92, Stanford Univ.; Ph.D., '98, Clark Univ.
1899, President of State Normal School, Powell St., near Clay, San Francisco.
1893 JAMES A. FOSHAY, A.M., Univ. of So. Cal.; Pd.D., '98, N. Y. Nor. Coll.
1895, Superintendent of Schools, 2341 Scarff St., Los Angeles.
1894 ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEV, A.B., '91, Ind. Univ.
1899, Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Jr. Univ., Stanford Univ.
JOSEPH C. TEMPLETON, A.B., Leland Stanford Jr. Univ.
1899, Superintendent of City Schools, 611 Hickey St., Santa Ana.
CHARLES C. VAN LIEW, Ph.D., '93, Jena.
1899, President of State Normal School, Chico.
1895 D. R. AUGSBURG, B.P., '84, Syracuse Univ.
1898, Director of Drawing, Public Schools, 1261, 6th Ave., East Oakland.
LEWIS B. AVERY, B.Sc., '83, Tabor Coll., Ia.
1895, Principal of Union High School, Redlands.
WALTER J. BAILEY, A.M., 1900, Bates Coll.
1900, Master in The Harvard School (Military), Los Angeles.
SAMUEL T. BLACK.
1898, President of State Normal School, San Diego.
THEODORE B. COMSTOCK, B.Ag., '68, Pa. State Coll.; B.Sc., '70, D.Sc., '86, Cornell Univ.
Ex-President of Univ. of Ariz., Director of School of Mines, 534 Stimson Block, Los Angeles.
MELVILLE DOZIER, Ph.B., '67, B.Pd., Furman Univ., S. C.
1895, Vice-President of State Normal School, 825 W. 11th St., Los Angeles.
JOHN A. HANCOCK, M.L., '90, Univ. of Wis.; A.M., '93, Stanford Univ.
1900, Principal of High School, Nevada City.
CHARLES EDWARD HUTTON, A.B., '53, A.M., '61, St. John's Coll., Md.
1890, Instructor in State Normal School, 1007 W. 21st St., Los Angeles.
JOSEPH PERRY JACKSON, LL.B., '76, Iowa Univ.; A.M., 1900, Columbia Univ.
1900, Supervising Principal of Schools, Colton.
THOMAS J. KIRK.
1899, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Sacramento.
JOSEPH LE CONTE, A.B., '41, A.M., '45, LL.D., '79, Univ. of Ga.; LL.D., '96, Princeton; M.D., '45, Coll. of Phys. & Surg., N. Y.; B.Sc., '51, Harvard Univ.
1869, Professor of Geology and Natural History, University of California, Berkeley.
JAMES MCNAUGHTON, A.B., '62, A.M., '65, Ph.D., '87, Allegheny Coll.
San José.
J. B. MONLUX, A.M., '81, Iowa State Univ.
1896, Principal of 28th St. School, 250 E. 30th St., Los Angeles.

- 1895 UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.
President, Benjamin Ide Wheeler, LL.D.; Librarian, J. C. Rowell, Berkeley.
- 1896 E. MORRIS COX, A.B., Haverford Coll., Pa.
1897, Principal of Public Schools, Santa Rosa.
MRS. C. L. PLACE.
21 Lloyd St., San Francisco.
- 1897 FRANK H. BALL.
1900, Director of Manual Training, Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena.
CHRISTINE BENSON.
1898, Primary Teacher, Gray Gables, Los Angeles.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN.
1896, Professor of Pedagogy and Instructor of Sloyd, Throop Polytechnic Institute, 377
N. Los Robles Ave., Pasadena.
FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY OF SAN FRANCISCO.
Secretary, George A. Mullin, San Francisco.
FLORENCE LAWSON.
Director of Kindergarten Department, State Normal School, Los Angeles.
FERNANDO SANFORD.
1891, Professor of Physics, Leland Stanford Jr. University, Stanford University.
LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY.
President, David Starr Jordan; Librarian, H. C. Nash, Stanford University.
STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT CHICO.
President, C. C. Van Liew; Librarian, Susan T. Smith, Chico.
STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT LOS ANGELES.
President, Edward T. Pierce, Los Angeles.
- 1898 HENRY T. ARDLEY, S.A., '70, London, Eng.
1893, Prof. of Decorative and Industrial Art, Univ. of Cal., 2311 Durant Ave., Berkeley.
JAMES A. BARR.
1891, Superintendent of City Schools, 1407 E. Channel St., Stockton.
MORRIS ELMER DAILEY, A.M., Ind. Univ.
1900, President of State Normal School, San José.
DAVID STARR JORDAN, M.Sc., Ph.D., M.D., LL.D.
President of Leland Stanford Jr. University, Stanford University.
ANNA E. LEMON.
1894, Teacher in First Primary, 115 N. Marengo Ave., Pasadena.
ALBERT LYSER.
Principal of John Swett Grammar School, 417 Larkin St., San Francisco.
ALEXANDER HOLMES MACDONALD, Dalhousie Coll., Halifax, Nova Scotia.
1885, Principal of Lincoln Evening School, 407 Fair Oaks St., San Francisco.
CECIL WIRT MARK, B.Sc., '88, Univ. of Pacific, Cal.
1899, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, 1007 Dolores St., San Francisco.
CARL H. NIELSEN.
1899, Principal, Union High School, Vacaville.
ANTRIM EDGAR OSBORNE, M.D., '77, Ph.D., '79.
1886, Superintendent of State Institute for Feeble-Minded; 1896, Professor, Nervous
and Mental Diseases, College of Physicians and Surgeons, San Francisco;
Eldridge.
STATE NORMAL SCHOOL LIBRARY, SAN JOSÉ.
President, Morris Elmer Dailey; Librarian, Ruth Royce, San José.
- 1899 OSMER ABBOTT, A.B., '90, Oberlin Coll.; Ph.D., '98, Jena.
1899, Principal of Washington Union High School, Fresno.
JAMES E. ADDICOTT.
1891, Teacher of Manual Training and Mathematics, 55 George St., San José.
LULU CLAIRE BARR.
1899, County Superintendent of Schools, 222, 7th St., San Bernardino.
THOMAS P. BAILEY, JR., Ph.D., Univ. of So. Cal.
Associate Professor of Education as Related to Character, Univ. of Cal., Berkeley.
W. H. BAKER, A.M., P.T., St. Nor. Sch., Kirksville, Mo.
1897, Teacher of Mathematics, High School, 103 Abby St., Fresno.
HUGH J. BALDWIN.
1899, County Superintendent of Schools, Courthouse, San Diego.
KATHERINE M. BALL.
1894, Supervisor of Drawing, Public Schools, 1260 California St., San Francisco.
MISS LEW BALL.
1898, Teacher in Garfield School, Oakland; address for 1900, Stanford University.
O. F. BARTH, A.B., '82, A.M., '85, Shurtleff Coll.
1897, Principal of Union High School, Perris.
SARA P. BROWN, B.Sc., '81, Univ. of W. Va.
Pres. American Young People's Patriotic Society, 902 California St., San Francisco.
THOMAS POLLOCK BROWN, A.B., '99, Nev. State Univ.
1900, Principal of Sixth Street School, Santa Monica.
LOUIS A. BUCHANAN, M.E., '93, Stanford Univ.
Director of Manual Training, 221 W. Magnolia St., Stockton.
J. D. BURKS, Ph.B., '93, Univ. of Chicago; M.L., '94, Univ. of Cal.
Department of Psychology and History of Education, State Nor. School, San Diego.
REV. ALLAN L. BURLINSON, A.M., '81, Racine; B.D., '93, Kenyon.
All Saints' Mission, Redding.
MINNIE L. CATEY.
1895, Teacher in Grammar Department, Compton.
FREDERICK H. CLARK, A.M., '86, Univ. of Cal.
1889, History Department, Lowell High School, San Francisco; res., 1418 Myrtle St.,
Oakland.
MRS. HENRIETTA TREAT COMPTON.
Teacher in South Pasadena, 94 Allesandro Pl., Pasadena.
W. H. COOK.
Principal of Vernon School, 1134 E. Vernon Ave., Los Angeles.
MINNIE COULTER, A.B., '98, Stanford Univ.
1898, Superintendent of Schools of Sonoma County, Santa Rosa.

- 1899 HENRY G. CROCKER, M.L., '91, Yale.
1897, Principal of High School, Coronado.
- JESSE GEORGE CROSS, A.M., '68, McKendree Coll.
1900, Professor in Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena; res., Monrovia.
- FRANK P. DAVIDSON.
1889, Superintendent of Schools, San Diego.
- ANNA E. EDWARDS.
1890, Teacher of Eighth Grade, City Schools, 1837, 3d St., San Diego.
- WALTER A. EDWARDS, A.M., '86, Knox Coll.
1897, President of Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena.
- W. S. EDWARDS, A.M., Alfred Univ.
1899, County Superintendent of Schools, Santa Barbara Co., Santa Barbara.
- RICHARD DOUGLAS FAULKNER, B.L., '77, Univ. of Ill.
1895, Principal of Franklin Grammar School, 809 Castro St., San Francisco.
- FRANK L. FERGUSON, B.D., '98, Yale.
1898, President of Pomona College, Claremont.
- J. H. FRANCIS.
Head of Commercial Dept., High School, 1701 New England St., Los Angeles.
- CHARLES MILLS GAYLEY, A.B., Univ. of Mich.
1889, Professor of English Language and Literature, University of California, 2403 Piedmont Ave., Berkeley.
- E. F. GOODYEAR, A.B., '92, Univ. of Cal.
1896, Pacific Coast Agent of The Macmillan Co., 325 Sansome St., San Francisco.
- HATTIE F. GOWER.
1896, Assist. Teacher of Sloyd, cor. N. Johnson and Minnesota Sts., Sta. A, Los Angeles.
- JAMES D. GRAHAM, A.B., '88, A.M., '92, Toronto Univ.
Superintendent of Schools, 510 Ellis St., Pasadena.
- LYMAN GREGORY, M.D., '87, Chicago Home Med. Coll.
1900, Teacher of Physiology in High School, 400 W. 30th St., Los Angeles.
- A. F. GUNN.
American Book Co., 204 Pine St., San Francisco.
- JULIUS C. HAMMEL, A.B., '94, Stanford Univ.
Principal of George Dewey School, Fruitvale.
- LILLIAN D. HAZEN.
1899, Principal of Vernon School, 544 Ruth Ave., Los Angeles.
- T. L. HEATON.
1897, Teacher of Pedagogy, University of California, Berkeley.
- CASPAR W. HODGSON, A.B., '96, Stanford Univ.
Pacific Coast Manager, D. C. Heath & Co., 325 Sansome St., San Francisco.
- W. H. HOUSH.
1895, Principal of High School, 1534 Ingraham St., Los Angeles.
- AGNES E. HOWE, A.B., '97, Stanford Univ.
1897, Instructor in History, State Normal School, San José.
- A. D. HUNTER.
Director of Music, Public Schools, 582 N. Ellen St., Pomona.
- FRANK H. HYATT.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, Pomona.
- O. P. JENKINS, A.B., A.M., Moores Hill Coll.; M.Sc., Ph.D., Ind. Univ.
Professor of Physiology, Leland Stanford Jr. University, Stanford University.
- *REV. S. H. KELLOGG, D.D., '57.
1020 E. 9th St., Los Angeles.
- BURT O. KINNEY, A.B., '97, Stanford Univ.
Principal of Siskiyou County High School, Yreka.
- T. H. KIRK, B.L., '82, M.L., '87, Univ. of Wis.
1899, Principal of High School and Supervising Principal of Grades, Monrovia.
- C. A. KUNOU.
Supervisor of Manual Training, 422 So. Ave. 19, Los Angeles.
- J. W. McCLYMONDS, A.B., '71, Westminster, Pa.
1888, Superintendent of City Schools, 477, 34th St., Oakland.
- F. H. MEYER.
Instructor in Drawing and Manual Training, 545 N. Center St., Stockton.
- CHARLES M. MILLER.
Director of Sloyd, State Normal School, Los Angeles.
- ERNEST CARROLL MOORE, A.B., '92, LL.B., '94, Ohio Nor. Univ.; A.M., '96, Columbia Univ.; Ph.D., '98, Univ. of Chicago.
1899, Instructor in Philosophy, University of California, Berkeley.
- FRANK MORTON, A.B., '80, Dartmouth.
1888, Principal of Lowell High School, 3331 Washington St., San Francisco.
- E. H. MOSHER.
1897, Principal of Schools, Benicia.
- F. O. MOWER, A.B., '78, Bates Coll., Lewiston, Me.
1897, Principal of High School, 715, 3d St., Napa.
- WATSON NICHOLSON, A.B., '92, Stanford Univ.; A.M., '95, Harvard.
1897, Teacher of English in High School, Redlands.
- POMONA COLLEGE.
President, Frank L. Ferguson; Acting Librarian, F. A. Bissell, Claremont.
- MINNIE E. REES.
Teacher of Fifth and Sixth Grades, City Schools, 632 Britannia St., Los Angeles.
- MRS. MAY REESE, Grad. of Nor. Sch.
Director of Kindergarten, 412 W. Montecito St., Santa Barbara.
- W. W. SEAMAN.
Fourth Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1419 O St., Sacramento.
- GEORGE M. SHELTON.
1897, Teacher in Grammar School, Anaheim.
- MRS. JULIA COLE SHERWOOD.
1898, Teacher, Spruce Grove District, Lower Lake.

* Died May 15, 1900.

CALIFORNIA — *Continued*

- 1899 MRS. HATTIE BURDICK SHORKLEY.
Teacher in First Grade, Public Schools, 578, 17th St., Oakland.
U. P. SHULL, A.B., '79, A.M., '82, Westfield Coll.
Supervising Principal of Schools, cor. Painter and Philadelphia Sts., Whittier.
STATE LIBRARY OF CALIFORNIA.
Librarian, J. L. Gillis, Sacramento.
F. W. STEIN, JR.
1899, Principal of Harper School, 1398 Newton St., Los Angeles.
W. W. STONE.
1890, Principal of Burnett School, 745 Shrader St., San Francisco.
ANNA M. STOVALL.
1891, Principal of Free Normal Training School of Golden Gate Kindergarten Association,
221, 9th St., San Francisco.
JOHN HARVEY STRINE.
1898, County Superintendent of Schools, Room 47, Courthouse, Los Angeles; permanent
address, Monrovia.
FRANCIS A. SWANGER, M.S.D., '92, Mo. State Nor., Kirksville; A.M., '98, Willamette Univ., Ore.
1899, Principal of High School, Woodland.
JOHN SWETT, A.M. (honorary), Dartmouth Coll.
Martinez.
W. SCOTT THOMAS, A.B., '89, Johns Hopkins Univ.
1900, Principal of Merced County High School, Box 288, Merced.
G. S. TROWBRIDGE, B.Sc., '80, A.M., '82, Iowa State Univ.
Principal of San Fernando Union High School, Fernando.
HARR WAGNER, A.B., '81, A.M., '85, Wittenberg Coll.
Editor "Western Journal of Education," 723 Market St., San Francisco.
M. EDNA WALKER.
1896, Teacher in Public Schools, Monrovia.
LOUIS K. WEBB, B.Sc., '78, Univ. of Mich.; A.M., '98, Stanford Univ.
1899, Principal of Union High School, Clovis.
R. H. WEBSTER, A.B., '77, A.M., '82, Univ. of Cal.
1896, Superintendent of Schools in and for the City and County of San Francisco, City
Hall, San Francisco.
DANIEL H. WHITE.
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1895, Principal of Institute for Deaf and Blind, Berkeley.
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1900 ARTHUR W. GRAY, A.B., '96, Univ. of Cal.
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COLORADO

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1874, Superintendent of Schools, District No. 1, High School, Denver.

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1899, Superintendent of City Schools, Spruce St., Central City.

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1892, President of University of Colorado, Boulder.
ROBERT H. BEGGS, B.Sc., '68, Ill. Coll.; M.Sc., 1900, Fort Worth Univ.; A.M., 1900, Denver Univ.
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1891, President of State Normal School of Colorado, Greeley.
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1892, Principal of High School, Dist. No. 1, 2112 Lincoln Ave., Denver.
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1894 EDGAR ROLLIN DOWNS, A.B., '76, A.M., '81, Williams Coll.
1900, Superintendent of City Schools, Durango.
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1897, Superintendent of City Schools, N. S., Denver.
- FRED DICK, A.M., Hamilton Coll., N. Y.
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1900, Instructor in Physics, High School, District No. 1, Denver.
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1891, Teacher in Public Schools, Delgany School, Denver.
- J. S. McCLUNG.
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Rohling Block, Fort Collins.
- 1896 O. J. BLAKESLEV, B.Sc., Pd.D.
1896, Superintendent of City Schools, La Junta.
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Greeley.
- 1897 IZORA SCOTT, A.B., '87, Kan. Nor. Coll.
1899, Principal of High School, 425 Broadway, Pueblo.
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- EMILY H. MILES.
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1892, Principal of Elmwood School, 357 Lincoln Ave., Denver.
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- 1888 GEORGE B. HURD.
1885, Supervising Principal of Winchester School District, 59 Lake Pl., New Haven.
- 1889 CHARLES W. DEANE, A.M., '84, Ph.D., '92, Allegheny Coll.
1893, Superintendent of Schools, 338 Main St., Bridgeport.
- 1892 DAVID N. CAMP, A.M., '53, Yale.
1855, Ex-State Supt. of Schools, Manager of New Britain Library, 9 Camp St., New
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- 1894 FREDERICK A. CURTISS.
1892, Principal of Old Saybrook High School, Saybrook.

CONNECTICUT—Continued

- 1895 NATHAN L. BISHOP.
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1900, Instructor of History, Manor School, Stamford.
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1897, Superintendent of Schools, 28 Mitchell Ave., Waterbury.
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1895, Principal of Training Department, State Normal School, Willimantic.
- 1899 ISAAC M. AGARD, A.B., '79, A.M., '84, Amherst Coll.
1888, Principal of Rockville High School; Superintendent of East District Graded School, Vernon; res., Rockville.
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President, George W. Flint, Storrs.
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- 1892 ALBERT N. RAUB, A.M., '67, Princeton; Ph.D., '79, Lafayette; LL.D., '95, Ursinus Coll.
Author and Publisher, Newark.
- 1896 A. H. BERLIN, A.M., '88, Hamilton Coll.
1888, Principal of High School, 817 Adams St., Wilmington.

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- 1876 WILLIAM TORREY HARRIS, A.M., '69, Yale; LL.D., '79, Univ. of Mo.; '94, Univ. of Pa.; '95, Yale; '96, Princeton; A.M., Ph.D., '93, Brown Univ.; Ph.D., '99, Univ. of Jena, Germany.
1889, Commissioner of Education of the United States, 1303 P St., N. W., Washington.
- 1880 JAMES ORMOND WILSON, A.M., '74, Dartmouth Coll.
1892, Secretary of American Colonization Society; Custodian of National Educational Association, 450 Pennsylvania Ave., N. W., Washington.

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1887, Superintendent of Volta Bureau, cor. 35th and Q Sts., Washington.
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1886, Late Rector of Catholic University of America, Washington.

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Minister to Haiti, American Legation; address State Dept., Washington.
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1891, President of Spencerian Business College, Academy of Music Building, 403, 9th St., N. W., Washington.
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- 1894 SUSAN PLESSNER POLLOCK, Grad. of Kg. Nor. Inst., Berlin.
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1893, General Superintendent of Indian Schools, Department of the Interior, Washington.
- 1895 ALLAN DAVIS, B.Sc., '90, M.S., '96, Columbian Univ.; LL.M., '93, Nat. Law School, Washington.
1890, Principal of Business High School, 1st St., between B and C Sts., N. W., Washington.
- ANNA TOLMAN SMITH.
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- 1896 POWHATAN W. ROBERTSON, M.Accts., '82, Eastman Nat. Bus. Coll.
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1889, Director of Physical Training, Public Schools, Webster School, 10th and H Sts., Washington.
- 1897 COURT FOSTER WOOD, LL.B., '84, LL.M., '85, Columbian Univ.
1885, Principal of Wood's Commercial College, 311 E. Capitol St., Washington.
- 1898 ZUE HUNTER BROCKETT.
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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—*Continued*

- 1898 ELIAS BROWN.
1895, Teacher, Deanwood.
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1896, Supervisor of Public Schools, 924, 24th St., N. W., Washington.
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1890, Supervisor, Washington Public Schools, Wallack School, S. E., Washington.
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1874, Supervising Principal of Schools, 1126, 5th St., N. W., Washington.
MISS AMANDA L. GRANT.
1887, Principal of Brent School, 507 E. Capitol St., Washington.
WILLIAM HAMILTON, A.B., '84, Moravian Coll., Bethlehem, Pa.; A.M., '94, Columbian Univ.
1890, Agent, Bureau of Education for Alaska, Bureau of Education, Washington.
DAVID H. HAZEN, M.D.
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1890, Professor of Mathematics, Howard University, Washington.
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1900, Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools, 1912, 11th St., N. W., Washington.
SOPHIE F. E. NUSSBAUM, Grad. Teacher's Sem., Rostock, Meckl. Schwerin, and Conservatory of
Music, Dresden, Germany, and Library Science Class, Columbia Univ.
1889, Translator, and, 1900, Cataloguer in Library, Bureau of Education, Washington.
ALICE N. PARKER.
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1893, Chief Clerk in Bureau of Education, 1409 Rhode Island Ave., N. W., Washington.
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1894, Statistician in U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington.
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1899, Principal of High School, 326 T St., N. W., Washington.
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1899 REV. JAMES P. FAGAN, S. J.
1899, Vice-President and Secretary of Georgetown University, W., Washington.
EDWARD ALLEN FAY, A.B., '62, A.M., '65, Univ. of Mich.; Ph.D., '81, Johns Hopkins Univ.
1866, Professor and Vice-President, Gallaudet College, 3 Kendall Green, Washington.
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President, Rutgers Coll. 1882-90, and of Amherst Coll. 1890-99; 1899, Secretary of U.
S. Board of Indian Commissioners, 1429 New York Ave., Washington.
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FLORIDA

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- 1893 WILLIAM N. SHEATS, A.B., '73, A.M., '76, Emory College, Ga.
1892, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Tallahassee.
1894 MRS. W. SCHLEPFEGRELL-KEPFLER.
1893, Principal of Froebel Academy, Main and Monroe Sts., Jacksonville.
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1893, County Superintendent of Public Instruction, Bartow.
1898 L. W. BUCHHOLZ, Nor. Sch., Pr. Friedland, Germany.
Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hillsboro Co., 106 Park Ave., Tampa.
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1898, Professor of Biology, Pedagogy, and Child Study in the State Coll., Tallahassee.
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President, John F. Forbes, DeLand.
1900 BENELLA DAVENPORT.
1900, Department of Latin and Literature, State Normal School, De Funiak Springs.
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Commandant and Professor of Science, East Florida Seminary, Gainesville.
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First Assistant in High School, Live Oak.
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GEORGIA

LIFE MEMBER

- 1890 W. H. BAKER.
1868, Superintendent of Schools, Chatham Academy, Savannah.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

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1895, Department of English, State Normal School, Athens.
- 1894 OTIS ASHMORE, A.M., Univ. of Ga.
1896, Superintendent of Schools, Savannah.
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1892, Principal of Boys' High School, 142 Jackson St., Atlanta.
- 1895 ATLANTA UNIVERSITY.
President, Rev. Horace Bumstead; Librarian, Miss E. J. Stenabaugh, Atlanta.
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1894, State School Commissioner, Capitol, Atlanta.
- JOSEPH S. STEWART, A.B., '82, Emory Coll.; A.M., '97, Univ. of Ga.
1897, President of North Georgia Agricultural College, Dahlonega.
- UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA.
Chancellor, Walter B. Hill; Secretary, W. D. Hooper, Athens.
- 1896 D. Q. ABBOTT, A.M., '78, Emory Coll., Ga.
Superintendent of Schools, 654 Mulberry St., Macon.
- N. E. WARE.
1891, Superintendent of Public Schools, Hawkinsville.
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1897, Department of Pedagogy, State Industrial College, College, Chatham Co.
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1900, Principal of Southern Normal Institute, Douglas.
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1898, Assistant Training Teacher, State Normal and Industrial College, Milledgeville.
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1895, Instructor in English Language and Literature, State Industrial College, College.
- 1899 JAMES C. HARRIS, A.M., '85, Univ. of Ga.
1892, Superintendent of Public Schools, 313, 2d Ave., Rome.
- WALTER B. HILL, A.B., '70, B.L. and A.M., '71, Univ. of Ga.; LL.D., 1900, Emory Coll. and S. W. Pres. Univ., Clarksville, Tenn.
- 1899, Chancellor of University of Georgia, University Campus, Athens.
- MERCER UNIVERSITY LIBRARY.
President, P. D. Pollock, Macon.
- 1900 B. K. BENSON.
Agent for D. C. Heath & Co., 115 Crew St., Atlanta.
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- O. F. McRAE.
1895, Vice-President, South Georgia College, McRae.
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- HIRAM H. THWEATT.
1896, Principal of Clay Street Normal and Industrial Institute, Thomasville.
- MRS. WALTON H. WIGGS.
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- RICHARD R. WRIGHT, A.B., A.M., Atlanta Univ.; LL.D., Wilberforce Univ.
1891, President, State Industrial College, College.

IDAHO

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1888 JAMES C. BLACK, Pd.M., '94, Pd.D., '95, School of Pedagogy, Univ. of City of New York.
1897, President of State Normal School, Albion.
- 1898 JOHN W. DANIELS, A.B., '76, A.M., '79, Bates College, Lewiston, Me.
1898, Superintendent of City Schools, 238 Jefferson St., Boise.
- GEORGE E. KNEPPER, A.M.
1895, President of State Normal School, Lewiston.
- 1899 PERMEAL FRENCH.
1898, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Boise.

ILLINOIS

LIFE DIRECTORS

- 1884 ALBERT G. LANE, A.M., '96, Dartmouth Coll.
1898, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, 430 W. Adams St., Chicago.
- 1887 NEWTON CHARLES DOUGHERTY, A.M., Ph.D.
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Principal of South Chicago High School, 893, 71st Pl., Chicago.
- 1890 STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF ILLINOIS.
President, A. V. Greenman, West Aurora; Sec'y, Joel M. Bowlby, Carbondale.
- 1891 JOSHUA PIKE, A.B., '65, A.M., '68, Univ. of Chicago.
1874, Superintendent of City Schools, Jerseyville.

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- 1870 IRA WILDER ALLEN, A.B., '50, Hamilton Coll., N. Y.; A.M., '52, Antioch Coll., O.; LL.B., '63, Albany Law Sch.; LL.D., '74, Union Christian Coll., Ind.
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- 1876 ALEXANDER FORBES, A.M., Ph.D.
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- 1880 GEORGE P. BROWN.
Editor "School and Home Education," Bloomington.
- 1884 AUGUSTUS J. CHENEY, B.Sc., '57, Dartmouth Coll.
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- EDWIN C. HEWETT, LL.D., '77, Shurtleff Coll.
Associate Editor "Public School Journal," Box 42, Normal.
- HENRY RAAB, LL.D.
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ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1880 FRANCIS W. PARKER, A.M., Dartmouth Coll.; LL.D., Lawrence Univ.
1899, President of Chicago Institute, 1931 Deming Pl., Chicago.
- 1884 ALBERT R. SABIN.
1887, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, 2509 Vernon Ave., Irving Park, Chicago.
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1886, Attorney and Counselor at Law, Suite 511, Ashland Block, Chicago.
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- 1887 JOHN C. ELLIS.
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- 1888 ANDREW S. DRAPER, LL.B., '71, Union Univ.; LL.D., '89, Colgate Univ.
1894, President of University of Illinois, President's House, Champaign.
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1887, Principal of Public Schools, Mountain Grove.
- RICHARD C. NORTON, A.M., LL.D.
1900, Department of Didactics, Avalon College, Trenton.
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- LOUIS THEILMANN, B.Sc., '85, M.Sc., '90, Missouri Univ.
1900, Superintendent of Public Schools, Breckenridge.
- MARIE L. TURNER.
1891, Principal of Public School, Clayton.
- UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF MISSOURI.
President, R. H. Jesse, LL.D.; Secretary, J. G. Babb, Columbia.
- JOHN A. WHITEFORD, M.S.D., '93, State Nor. Sch., Kirksville.
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- R. L. BARTON.
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- W. D. DOBSON, LL.D.
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- PETER HERZOG.
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MISSOURI—*Continued*

- 1897 G. B. LONGAN.
1899, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, 1517 Michigan Ave., Kansas City.
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- ALEX H. NOEL.
1883, Principal of Grant School, 1518 S. Broadway, St. Louis.
- HENNING W. PRENTIS.
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1899, President of State Normal School, 204 Tyler Ave., Warrensburg.
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- OLIVER STIGALL, B.S.D., '92, State Normal School.
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1894, Superintendent of Schools, Hermann.
- 1899 WILLIAM J. S. BRYAN, A.B., '73, Washington Univ., St. Louis, Mo.
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1899, President of State Normal School, Cape Girardeau.
- DANIEL A. McMILLAN, A.B., '68, A.M., '99, Miami Univ.
1882, Superintendent of Public Schools, Mexico.
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- 1900 ELIZABETH BUCHANAN.
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- PRITCHETT COLLEGE.
President, Charles C. Hemenway, Glasgow.

MONTANA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1889 ROBERT G. YOUNG, M.Sc., '77, N. I. Univ.; Ph.M., 1900, Cornell Coll.
1900, Superintendent of City Schools, Butte.
- 1892 OSCAR J. CRAIG, A.M., De Pauw Univ.; Ph.D., Wooster Univ.
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- 1895 JAMES M. HAMILTON, M.Sc., '90, Union Christian Coll.
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1896, Principal of High School, 731 Stewart St., Helena.
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- 1896 E. A. STEERE, B.Sc., '81, M.Sc., '95, Univ. of Wisconsin.
1900, Principal of Free County High School, Kalispell.
- 1897 E. A. CARLETON.
State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Helena.
- FRANK C. PATTEN.
1892, Librarian, Public Library, Helena.
- 1898 J. P. HENDRICKS, B.Sc., '86, A.M., '89, Western Coll., Toledo, Ia.
1900, State Board of Education, 610 W. Mercury St., Butte.
- 1899 MISS B. P. DOWNEY.
County Superintendent of Schools, Silver Bow Co., 617 N. Alaska St., Butte.
- S. D. LARGENT.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, Great Falls.
- MONTANA STATE COLLEGE.
President, James Reid, Bozeman.

MONTANA — *Continued*

- 1899 MARY ELIZABETH RYAN.
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County Superintendent of Schools, Plattsmouth.
ANNA FOOS.
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1898, Superintendent of Schools, Valley.
UNIVERSITY OF OMAHA.
President, David R. Kerr, D.D.; Secretary, Willis H. Kerr, Bellevue.
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1893, Professor of Zoology, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
1898 ALLEN C. FLING, A.B., '94, A.M., '98, Univ. of Neb.
1898, Superintendent of City Schools, 115 N. 11th St., Nebraska City.
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President, Lewis S. Reed; Librarian, Edith Tobitt, Omaha.
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1899 E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS, LL.D., '84, Univ. of Neb.; D.D., '84, Colby Univ.
1900, Chancellor, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
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1899, Superintendent of Schools, Hastings.
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1894, Superintendent of City Schools, Hebron.

NEBRASKA — *Continued*

- 1900 NATHAN BERNSTEIN, B.L., '92, A.M., '97, Dartmouth Coll.
1897, Instructor in Science, High School, 2622 Capitol Ave., Omaha.
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NEVADA

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- 1895 WALTER C. GAYHART, C.E.
1894, Principal of High School and Public Schools, Austin.
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1894, President of Nevada State University, Reno.
1899 JAMES C. DOUGHTY.
Principal of Schools, Tuscarora.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

LIFE MEMBER

- 1886 JAMES E. KLOCK.
1900, Principal of State Normal School, Plymouth.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1898 NEW HAMPSHIRE STATE LIBRARY.
Librarian, Arthur H. Chase, Concord.
1899 JOHN AUGUSTUS BROWN, A.B., '79, Harvard.
1886, Member of School Board, 33 Pine St., Exeter.

NEW JERSEY

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- 1876 LANGDON SHOOK THOMPSON, A.M., '84, Marietta Coll., O.; Pd.D., '91, Univ. of the City of New York.
1889, Supervisor of Drawing, Public Schools; 1893, Principal of Metropolitan Normal Art School, 12 Park St., Jersey City.

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- 1889 A. W. MOON, A.B., '95, Indiana Univ.
1899, Supervising Principal of Schools, Pleasantville.
1890 LEVI SEELEY, A.M., '83, Williams Coll.; Ph.D., '86, Leipzig.
1895, Professor of Pedagogy, State Normal School, 482 W. State St., Trenton.
1891 AUGUSTUS SCARLETT.
1863, Principal of South 8th St. School, 56 S. 11th St., Newark.
1892 SARAH Y. ELY.
1887, Supervisor in High and Grammar Departments of State Model School, 52 Carroll St., Trenton.
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1889, Principal of State Normal and Model Schools, Trenton.
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1899, Principal of School No. 5, 117 Magnolia Ave., Arlington.
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1900, Principal of Waverley Ave. School, 261 Broad St., Newark.
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1892, Superintendent of Schools, 439 W. 6th St., Plainfield.
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1874, Superintendent of Schools, 14 Clinton Ave., Montclair.
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1893, Principal of Franklin Public Schools, Nutley.
1893 MARTIN LUTHER COX, Pd.M., '97, New York Univ.
1900, Principal of Ann St. School, Newark.
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1896, Superintendent of Schools, 226 Mt. Prospect Ave., Newark.
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1900, Principal of South Jersey Institute, Bridgeton.
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1897, First Assistant of Latin and German, Boys' High School, and, 1899, Acting
Principal of High School Annex, 23d St., New York city; res., 21, 9th Ave.,
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1889, Principal of Miller Street Grammar School, 3 Emmett St., Newark.
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1882, Principal of City High School, 534 E. 27th St., Paterson.
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1896, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 930 Putnam Ave., Plainfield.
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D. H. FARLEY.
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1898, Vice-Principal of N. J. Training School for Feeble-Minded, Vineland.
EDWIN C. MERRILL.
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ington St., East Orange.
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1897, Superintendent of City Schools, 54 High St., Passaic.
1897 MARGARET BANCROFT.
Principal and Owner of Haddonfield Training School, Haddonfield.
MISS JEAN N. COX.
1889, Principal of Haddonfield Training School, Haddonfield.
ANNA M. FELL, M.E.L., Pennington Sem.
1894, Principal of Cadwalader School No. 21, 304 W. State St., Trenton.
FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY OF JERSEY CITY.
President, L. J. Gordon; Librarian, Esther E. Burdick, Jersey City.
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1894, Principal of Central Ave. Grammar School, 64, 9th Ave., Newark.
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1896, Associate Principal of Haddonfield Training School, Haddonfield.
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1900, Editor of Juvenile Literature, Box 37, Fanwood.
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WILLIAM M. SWINGLE, Ph.D.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, 114 Cleveland St., Orange.
1899 MRS. R. L. ROGERS DRESSER, Grad., Kraus Tr. Sch. for Kgrs., '90.
1899, Principal of Kraus Kindergarten and Training Classes, 229 High St., Burlington.

NEW JERSEY—*Continued*

- 1899 J. HOWARD HULSART, A.M., '98, Ill. Wes. Univ.
 1891, Supervising Principal, 105 Sussex St., Dover.
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 1883, Professor of Latin, Princeton University, Princeton.
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 1899, Principal of Public Schools, 18 Remsen Ave., New Brunswick.
 1900 W. F. BABCOCK, M.Pd., '98, N. Y. Univ.
 1895, Principal of Grammar School No. 3, 277 Fair St., Paterson.
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 JAMES L. HAYS,
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NEW MEXICO

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- 1891 HIRAM HADLEY, A.M., '85, Earlham Coll.
 1898, Professor of History and Philosophy, Coll. of Agri. and Mech. Arts, Las Cruces.
 1895 CLARENCE T. HAGERTY, B.Sc., '90, M.Sc., '95, Notre Dame Univ., Ind.
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 1896, Principal of Normal School of New Mexico, Silver City.
 1897 GEORGE BENJAMIN HAGGETT, B.Sc., '75, Grand River Institute.
 1899, Principal Teacher, Indian Service, Thornton.
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 1899, President and Professor of Political and Economic Science, New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Mesilla Park.
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 1899, Superintendent of Public Schools, Silver City.
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PENNSYLVANIA — *Continued*

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1899, General Secretary, American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, 7342 Rural Lane, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia.
- A. L. E. CROUTER, A.M., '85, LL.D., '93.
Superintendent, Pennsylvania Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, 7406 Germantown Ave., Mt. Airy, Philadelphia.
- CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, Ph.D., '99, Univ. of Pa.
Professor of History, Central High School, Broad and Green Sts., Philadelphia.
- MARY HUNTER MAYER.
1897, Principal, Girls' High School, 141 N. 5th St., Reading.
- REV. P. R. MCDEVITT.
Superintendent of Philadelphia Parochial Schools, 21 S. 13th St., Philadelphia.
- PEDAGOGICAL LIBRARY OF SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS.
Superintendent, Dr. Edward R. Brooks, 696 City Hall, Philadelphia.
- PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE.
President, George W. Atherton, State College.
- JAMES LANE PENNYPACKER, A.B., '80, Harvard Coll.
Member of Christopher Sower Co., Edu. Publishers, 614 Arch St., Philadelphia.
- GRACE E. SPIEGLE, M.D., '98.
1893, Head of Department of Physical Training, Normal School, Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND

LIFE DIRECTOR

- 1882 THOMAS W. BICKNELL, A.M., '60, Brown Univ.; '78, Amherst Coll.; LL.D., '84, Drury Coll.
Author, Editor, and Publisher, 49 Westminster Ave., Providence.

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- 1891 THOMAS B. STOCKWELL, A.M., '65, Brown Univ.
1875, Commissioner of Public Schools, Box 1432, Providence.
- HORACE S. TARBELL, A.M., '62, Wesleyan Univ.; LL.D., '96, Brown Univ.
1884, Superintendent of Schools, 141 Governor St., Providence.
- 1892 BENJAMIN BAKER, A.M., '78, Brown Univ.
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- GEORGE E. CHURCH, A.B., '72, A.M., '78, Amherst Coll.
1889, Principal of Peace Street Grammar School, 43 Adelaide Ave., Providence.
- 1894 WALTER BALLOU JACOBS, A.M., '85, Brown Univ.
1895, Associate Professor of Pedagogy, Brown University, 310 Olney St., Providence.
- ABBY L. MARLATT, B.Sc., '88, M.Sc., '90, State Agri. Coll., Kan.
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- 1896 VICTOR FRAZEE, A.B., '89, Dalhousie Coll., Halifax, N. S.
1893, Teacher in Hope Street High School, 82 Larch St., Providence.
- HENRY DWIGHT HERVEY, A.B., '80, A.M., '96, Denison Univ., Granville, O.
1898, Superintendent of Schools, 80 Lyon St., Pawtucket.
- ELLEN LE GARDE.
1893, Physical Director of Schools, 10 Mawney St., Providence.
- MRS. ELLA M. PIERCE.
1891, Supervisor of Primary Schools, 19 Lester St., Providence.
- BESSIE M. SCHOLFIELD.
Supervisor of Primary Work in Public Schools, 190 Knight St., Providence.
- W. R. WHITTLE, A.B., '83, A.M., '88, Colby Univ.
1891, Principal of Schools, 56 Elm St., Westerly.
- 1897 RHODE ISLAND NORMAL SCHOOL.
Principal, Fred Gowing, Providence.
- 1898 DAVID WEBSTER HOYT, A.M., '72, Brown; '61, Middlebury.
1864, Principal of English High School, 40 Humboldt Ave., Providence.
- LEONARD WORCESTER WILLIAMS, A.B., '95, Hanover Coll.; A.M., '99, Princeton Univ.
1900, Graduate Student, Brown University, 172 Prospect St., Providence.
- 1899 SARAH DYER BARNES.
Supervisor of Grammar Schools, Providence; res., Manton.
- HARRIS INSTITUTE LIBRARY.
Librarian, Anna H. Ward, Woonsocket.

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- 1891 MARTHA SCHOFIELD.
1868, Founder of Schofield Normal and Industrial School for Colored Youth, Aiken.

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1893, Superintendent of City Schools, Chester.
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1898, Professor of Modern Languages, High School, 6 Glebe St., Charleston.
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Editor "Carolina Teachers' Journal," Winnaboro.

SOUTH CAROLINA—Continued

- 1898 JOHN S. MARQUIS, A.B., '76, A.M., '93, Lafayette Coll., Easton, Pa.
1892, Principal of Brainerd Institute, Box 235, Chester.
- 1899 HENRY P. ARCHER, A.M., '59, College of Charleston.
1885, Superintendent of Instruction, 74 Rutledge Ave., Charleston.
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- A. P. MONTAGUE, A.M., LL.D.
President of Furman University, Greenville.
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1898, Principal of Memminger Normal School, 131 Coming St., Charleston.
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Charleston.
- FRANKLIN COWLES WOODWARD, A.M., '74, Randolph Macon Coll.; Lit.D., Univ. of N. Car.
President of South Carolina College, Columbia.
- 1900 J. T. COLEMAN.
1896, Professor of Physics, South Carolina Military Academy, The Citadel, Charleston.
- VIRGIL C. DIBBLE, JR., A.B., '95, Coll. of Charleston.
Teacher of English and Physics, High School, 76 Wentworth St., Charleston.
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1897, Superintendent of Schools, Abbeville.
- EVELYN HOLMES.
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- MORRISON A. HOLMES.
1887, Principal, Avery Normal Institute, 57 Bull St., Charleston.
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Teacher in Public Schools, 6r Society St., Charleston.
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Member, State Board of Education, Graniteville.
- W. ZACH MCGHEE, A.M., 1900, S. C. Coll.; Grad., S. C. Mil. Acad.
1899, Clerk in State Department of Education, Capitol, Columbia.
- JOHN OGREN.
Member, Board of Education, 529 King St., Charleston.
- CLARENCE J. OWENS, A.M., Columbian Univ.
1895, President, Orangeburg College, cor. Broughton and Glover Sts., Orangeburg.
- E. EMMET REID, A.M., '92, Richmond Coll.; Ph.D., '98, Johns Hopkins Univ.
1898, Professor of Chemistry, College of Charleston, Charleston.
- A. L. STOKES.
1900, Principal, Richmond Business College, 399 King St., Charleston.
- H. A. C. WALKER, A.B., '97, Wofford Coll., S. C.
1899, Principal, Graded School, Summerton.
- PATTERSON WARDLAW, A.B., Erskine Coll.
1894, Professor of Pedagogy, South Carolina College, 831 Sumter St., Columbia.

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1889, President of State Normal School, Madison.
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1899, President of Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls.
- 1894 MATTIE JONES.
1896, Teacher in Indian Industrial School, Flandreau.
- KATE TAUBMAN, B. Didac., Iowa State Nor. Sch.
1900, Teacher in High School, Deadwood.
- 1895 FRANK CRANE, A.M., Gale Coll.
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- ANNA B. HERRIG, Grad., Oswego Normal School, N. Y.
1898, Superintendent, Training Department, State Normal School, Madison.
- GEORGE M. SMITH, A.B., '73, A.M., '77, Colby Univ.
1899, Professor of Modern Languages, Literature, and Pedagogy, University of South Dakota, Vermillion.
- EDMUND J. VERT, Pd.D., '94, Ph.B., '96, Ph.D., '98.
1895, Superintendent of Schools, 502 Lynn St., Yankton.
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1894, Principal of Public Schools, Woonsocket.
- 1897 ALEXANDER STRACHAN, A.M., '82, Univ. of Rochester.
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- 1899 E. E. COLLINS.
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1896, ex-Superintendent of City Schools, Pierre.
- G. L. PIGG, A.B., '73, Berea Coll., Ky.
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1896, Director of Commerce, University of South Dakota, Vermillion.

TENNESSEE

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- 1886 WILLIAM ROBERTSON GARRETT, A.M., '57, William and Mary Coll.; Ph.D., '91, Univ. of Nashville.
1895, Professor of American History, Peabody Nor. Coll., 920 S. Summer St., Nashville.
- 1889 BOARD OF EDUCATION OF NASHVILLE.
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Founder and Organizer of Clara Conway Institute, Memphis, Tenn.; Nashville.

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1885, Principal of Girls' High School, 508 Broad St., Knoxville.
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1898, Professor of Literature, Vanderbilt University, Nashville.
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1886, Principal of High School, 207 Grove St., Chattanooga.
- 1897 J. H. MCCALLIE, B.Sc., Grant Univ.
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1892, Secretary and Treasurer of Peabody Normal College; 1895, Secretary, Board of Education, City of Nashville, 16 Lindsley Ave., Nashville.
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1887, President of University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
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1886, Principal of Grammar School, 523 Stevenson Ave., Nashville.
- WARD SEMINARY FOR YOUNG LADIES.
President, J. D. Blanton, Nashville.
- 1900 JAMES N. ANDERSON, A.M., '87, Univ. of Va.; Ph.D., '94, Johns Hopkins Univ.
1900, Instructor in Latin, Vanderbilt University, 1006 Lamar St., Nashville.
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1885, President of "The Academy," 829 Madison St., Clarksville.
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- DORA JOHNSON, A.B., '91, Vanderbilt Univ.; A.M., 1900, Univ. of Chicago.
351 Springdale Ave., Memphis.
- ISRAEL H. PERES, A.B., '89, A.M., '99, LL.B., '91, Yale.
Member, Board of Education, 42 Equitable Building, Memphis.
- J. M. STEEN.
Member of School Board, 326 Rayburn Ave., Memphis.
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1900, Principal of the Taggart School, 629 Cumberland St., Harriman.
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TEXAS

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- 1874 ALEXANDER HOGG, A.M., '57, Randolph-Macon Coll.; '74, William and Mary Coll.; '89, Univ. of Ala.
1900, Editor of "Texas and Pacific Quarterly," 303 Lamar St., Fort Worth.
- 1892 H. C. PRITCHETT, A.M., '78, Pritchett Institute, Glasgow, Mo.
1891, Principal of Sam. Houston Normal Institute, Huntsville.
- 1894 OSCAR HENRY COOPER, A.B., '72, Yale; A.M., LL.D., '91, Univ. of Nashville.
1899, President of Baylor University, 1435 S. 8th St., Waco.
- A. H. WILKINS.
Representative of American Book Co., 418 Main St., Dallas.
- 1895 DAVID SHIRES BODENHAMER.
1885, Professor of Mathematics, Trinity University, Tehuacana.
- JAMES M. CARLISLE, A.B., '98, Cumberland Univ.; A.M., '78, Emory Coll., Ga.; LL.D., '98, Univ. of Nashville.
Ex-State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Austin.
- J. M. FENDLEY, A.B., '82, Univ. of Nashville.
1885, County Superintendent and Principal of Avenue L School, 3202 Avenue N, Galveston.
- T. G. HARRIS, A.B., '76, A.M., '80, Carson Coll., Tenn.
1895, Superintendent of Schools, Austin.
- W. S. SUTTON, A.B., '78, A.M., '84, Univ. of Ark.
1897, Professor of Pedagogy, University of Texas, 1812 Congress Ave., Austin.
- 1896 J. L. LONG.
1893, Superintendent of City Schools, High Schools, Dallas.
- 1897 CHARLES T. ALEXANDER.
1900, Southern Manager, Maynard, Merrill & Co., 1122 Columbus St., Waco.
- N. J. CLANCY, Grad., State Nor. Sch.
Superintendent of Schools, Mansfield.

TEXAS—*Continued*

- 1897 C. E. FOSTER, B.Sc., E. Tex. Nor.
1898, Principal of Public Schools, Handley.
- 1898 J. K. MCBRIDE, L.I., Peabody Nor. Coll.; A.B., '93, Univ. of Nashville.
1900, Principal of Wieland Public School, Lone Oak.
- R. E. MILLER, A.B., Nat. Nor. Univ.
1898, Principal of High School, Lafayette.
- UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.
President, William L. Prather; Librarian, Benjamin Wyche, Austin.
- 1899 J. E. SMITH.
1885, Superintendent of Schools, City Hall, San Antonio.
- 1900 F. A. MOOD, A.M., '84, S. W. Univ., Georgetown, Tex.
1889, President, Alexander Institute, Kilgore.

UTAH

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1894 FRANK B. COOPER.
1899, Superintendent of City Schools, 1145 E. 6th South St., Salt Lake City.
- 1895 WILLIAM JASPER KERR, B.Sc., D.Sc.
1900, President of Agricultural College of Utah, Logan.
- UNIVERSITY OF UTAH.
President, J. T. Kingsbury; Librarian, George Quincy Coray, Salt Lake City.
- 1897 A. O. CLARK.
Principal of High School, 1059, 3d St., Salt Lake City.
- 1898 BRIGHAM YOUNG COLLEGE.
President, _____, Logan.
- 1899 J. L. BROWN, B.Pd., B.Sc., '97, Univ. of Mich.
1897, Superintendent of Public Schools, Utah Co., Pleasant Grove.
- SUSAN G. STOKES, B.Sc., '96, Stanford Univ.
1896, Instructor in Biology, High School, Salt Lake City.

VERMONT

LIFE MEMBER

- 1889 EDMUND WENTWORTH WRIGHT, A.B., '66, A.M., '69, Harvard Coll.
Teachers' Examiner, Lunenburg.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1894 MASON S. STONE, A.B., '83, Univ. of Vt.
Ex-State Superintendent of Education, Montpelier.
- 1898 JOHN L. ALGER, A.B., '90, A.M., '95, Brown Univ.
1900, Principal of State Normal School, Johnson.
- 1899 DAVID YOUNG COMSTOCK, A.B., '73, A.M., '76, Amherst Coll.
Principal of St. Johnsbury Academy, 1 Main St., St. Johnsbury.
- WALTER E. RANGER, A.B., '79, A.M., '83, Bates Coll.
1900, State Superintendent of Education, Montpelier.
- ISAAC THOMAS, A.B., '81, A.M., '84, Yale.
1898, Principal of High School, 8 Wilson St., Burlington.
- 1900 AMY M. BURT, Ph.B., 1900, Univ. of Vt.
1900, Assistant in High School, Brown Ave., St. Albans.
- WILLARD A. FRASIER.
1897, Superintendent of Schools, 138 Church St., Rutland.

VIRGINIA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1889 GEORGE J. RAMSEY, A.M., '80, Hampden Sidney Coll., Va.; LL.D., '98, Southwestern Univ.
1900, Editor-in-Chief, B. F. Johnson Publishing Co., 905 Main St., Richmond.
- 1894 JOHN H. BADER, A.B., '85, Washington and Lee Univ.
1893, Superintendent of Public Schools, Staunton.
- WILLIAM F. FOX, A.M., '58, Richmond Coll.
1889, Superintendent of Schools, City Hall, Richmond.
- E. C. GLASS.
1893, Superintendent of Schools, 622 Madison St., Lynchburg.
- MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN, Pd.D., '93, New York Univ.
1900, Director of Groszmann School for Exceptional Children and Principal of High School, Comenius Grove, Vero.
- 1896 ALBERT H. TUTTLE, B.Sc., '68, M.Sc., '71, State Coll. of Pa.
1888, Professor of Biology, University of Virginia, 1 West Lawn, Charlottesville.
- 1897 CELESTIA S. PARRISH, Ph.B., '96, Cornell Univ.
1893, Professor of Philosophy in Randolph Macon Woman's College, Lynchburg.
- GEORGE C. SHEPARD.
1899, Principal of Fairfax Hall, 112 Market St., Winchester.
- 1898 MAURICE M. LYNCH.
1886, Superintendent of Schools, Frederick Co., 12 Rouss Ave., Winchester.
- JOSEPH W. SOUTHALL.
State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Richmond.
- 1899 CHARLES BARTLETT DYKE, A.B., '98, Stanford Univ.; A.M., '99, Columbia Univ.
1899, Professor of Education, Hampton Institute, Hampton.
- EDWARD BELL FISHBURNE, JR., Grad., '93, S. C. Mil. Acad.; Ph.B., A.M., '98, State Univ., Ill.
1900, President, Hoge Memorial Military Academy, Blackstone.
- HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE.
President, Rev. H. B. Frissell, D.D.; Librarian, Miss L. E. Herron, Hampton.
- N. C. STARKE, Grad., '89, Va. Military Inst.
Principal of the "The Virginia High School," Farmville.

VIRGINIA — *Continued*

- 1899 STATE FEMALE NORMAL SCHOOL,
President, Robert Frazer, Farmville.
1900 REV. H. B. FRISSELL, D.D., 1900, Harvard.
1893, Principal Hampton Institute, Hampton.
W. H. KEISTER,
Principal of High School, Harrisonburg.

WASHINGTON

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- 1886 J. H. MILLER,
1900, Principal, State Normal School, Cheney.
1891 JOHN HULL, A.M., '76, Ill. W. Univ.
President of the Reveille Publishing Co., New Whatcom.

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- 1890 WILLIAM E. WILSON, A.M., '75, Monmouth Coll., Ill.
1898, Principal of Washington State Normal School, Ellensburg.
1891 FRANK J. BARNARD,
1890, Superintendent of City Schools, Box 85, Seattle.
1895 J. T. FORREST, Ph.B., '83, Central Univ. of Iowa.
1899, Department of Mathematics, State Normal School, 586 Gardner St., New Whatcom.
1896 REUBEN S. BINGHAM, A.B., A.M., Hamilton Coll.
1896, Superintendent of City Schools, 616 Tacoma Ave., Tacoma.
CHARLES FRANCIS REEVES, B.Sc., '78, M.Sc., '81, Pa. State Coll.
1894, Professor of German, and 1898, Dean of College of Liberal Arts, University of Washington, Seattle; res., Latona.
J. F. SAYLOR, B.Sc., '82, Iowa Agri. Coll.
Superintendent of City Schools, High School, Spokane.
1897 WASHINGTON STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
Principal, W. E. Wilson, Ellensburg.
1898 GEORGE LANCASTER, Ph.B., Wesleyan Univ., Ill.
1899, Instructor in Mathematics in High School, Everett.
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON.
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O. C. WHITNEY, B.L., '96, Puget Sound Univ.
1895, Principal of Bryant School, 704 S. 1 St., Tacoma.
1899 F. F. AVERV,
Superintendent, Fort Spokane Indian Boarding School, Miles.
MARY A. GRUPE,
1897, Principal of Training Department, Drawing, State Normal School, Ellensburg.
J. H. MORGAN, A.M., '79, Furman Univ.
1893, Vice-Principal of State Normal School, Ellensburg.
ERNEST RISTE,
1900, Principal of Schools, Medical Lake.
CHARLES S. TILTON,
1899, Principal of City School, Fall City.
JESSIE B. WILCOX,
1898, History and Training, State Normal School, Ellensburg.
1900 NEW WHATCOM STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
Principal, E. T. Mathes, 597 High St., New Whatcom.

WEST VIRGINIA

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- 1877 T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL.
Glenville.

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- 1870 WILLIAM H. COLE, A.B., A.M., Ohio Wesleyan Univ.
1893, Superintendent of Public Schools, Hotel Adelphi, Huntington.

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1885, Superintendent of Schools, 45, 14th St., Wheeling.
1891 J. WALTER BARNES, A.M., West Virginia Univ.
1892, Principal of State Normal School, Fairmont.
BYRD PRILLERMAN, B.Sc., '89, Knoxville Coll.; A.M., '94 Westminster Coll.
1895, Professor of English Language, West Virginia Colored Institute, Institute.
1894 ROBERT A. ARMSTRONG, A.M., '90, West Virginia Univ.
1893, Professor of English Literature, and, 1897, Vice-President, West Virginia University, Morgantown.
1895 D. M. WILLIS,
Principal of Commercial Department, West Virginia University, Morgantown.
1896 J. N. DEAHL, A.B., '93, Harvard; A.M., '99, Columbia Univ.
Claude, Taylor Co.
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1897 J. R. TROTTER, A.B., '90, A.M., '96, Harvard.
State Superintendent of Free Schools, Charleston.
1898 CHARLES H. COLE, A.B., '82, A.M., '97, Univ. of Mich.
1897, Superintendent of Schools, 119 North Raleigh St., Martinsburg.
1899 JEROME HALL RAYMOND, A.B., '92, A.M., '93, Northwestern Univ.; Ph.D., '95, Univ. of Chicago.
1897, President of West Virginia University, Morgantown.
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY.
President, Jerome H. Raymond; Librarian, Eliza J. Skinner, Morgantown.
1900 W. C. MILLER, B.L., '93, Univ. of Nashville.
Teacher of Science, State Normal School, Fairmont.

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 Vilas Block, Madison.
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 514 N. Elm St., Platteville.
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 Ex-State Inspector of High Schools, Sun Prairie.
 LEWIS HERBERT CLARK.
 1892, Professor of Mathematics, State Normal School, River Falls.
 COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, MILWAUKEE COUNTY.
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 1899, State Normal School Regent, Albion.
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 1898, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Capitol, Madison.
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 1879, Institute Conductor, State Normal School, 1105 Main St., Whitewater.
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 1893, Superintendent of Schools of Grant County, 212 N. Adams St., Lancaster.
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 1899, State Inspector of Free High Schools, 215 Monona Ave., Madison.
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 1885, Vice-President, and 1893, Professor of Constitutional and International Law, University of Wisconsin, 803 State St., Madison.
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 ROBERT CLOSSON SPENCER.
 1863, President of Spencerian Business College, Wisconsin St. and Broadway, Milwaukee.
 JOSHUA STARK, A.B., '48, Union Coll., Schenectady, N. Y.
 355 Farwell Ave., Milwaukee.
 STATE HISTORICAL SOCIETY OF WISCONSIN.
 Secretary and Superintendent, Reuben G. Thwaites, Madison.
 STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT PLATTEVILLE.
 President, Duncan McGregor; Librarian, Miss B. A. Gardner, Platteville.
 JOHN WILLIAM STEARNS, A.B., '60, A.M., '64, Harvard; LL.D., '74, Chicago Univ.
 1888, Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy, and 1897, Director of School of Education, Univ. of Wis., 512 Wisconsin Ave., Madison.
 ISAAC NEWTON STEWART, B.Sc., '62, Univ. of Wis.
 Editor of Milwaukee "Journal," 609 Grand Ave., Milwaukee.
 TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF WISCONSIN.
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 CHARLES FREDERICK VIEBAHN.
 1881, Superintendent of City Schools and Principal of High School, 703 Western Ave., Watertown.
 WILLIAM CLARKE WHITFORD, A.B., '53, A.M., '58, Union Coll., N. Y.; D.D., '85, Blackburn Univ., Illinois.
 1858, President of Milton College, Milton, Rock Co.

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- 1887 ALBERT SALISBURY, Ph.D., Milton Coll., Wis.
 1885, President of State Normal School, Whitewater.
 1890 WILLIAM JUDSON E. HOYT, A.B., '80, Univ. of Wis.
 1891, Superintendent of Schools, 512 Wilson Ave., Menomonie.
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 1894, Supervisor of Practice, State Normal School, West Superior.
 1892 I. C. MCNEILL.
 1896, President of Superior State Normal School, West Superior.

- 1892 M. V. O'SHEA, B.L., '92, Cornell.
1895, Professor of the Science and Art of Education, University of Wisconsin, 140 Langdon St., Madison.
- ALBERT WILLIS TRESSLER, A.B., '91, Univ. of Mich.
1900, Assistant Professor of Pedagogy and Inspector of High Schools, University of Wisconsin, 229 W. Gilman St., Madison.
- 1893 WILLIAM GEORGE BRUCE.
Editor of "American School Board Journal," 435 Hanover St., Milwaukee.
- 1894 RICHARD B. DUDGEON, A.B., '76, Univ. of Wis.
1891, Superintendent of Schools, 520 Jefferson St., Madison.
- D. D. MAYNE.
1892, Superintendent of Schools and Principal of High School, 226 S. Main St., Janesville.
- Theron B. PRAY, A.M., '72, Univ. of Chicago.
1894, President of State Normal School, 402 Pine St., Stevens Point.
- 1895 G. L. BOWMAN.
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1892, Editor of "Western Teacher" and "Gillan's Monthly," 141 Wisconsin St., Milwaukee.
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1898, President of State Normal School, 107 Mt. Vernon St., Oshkosh.
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1891, President of Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee.
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1896, Superintendent of Schools, City Hall, Milwaukee.
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1884, Inspector of Practice Teaching, State Normal School, 37 Elm St., Oshkosh.
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1895, President of Board of Education, Hillsboro.
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1888, Principal of 17th District School, 622 Otjen St., Milwaukee.
- 1896 WALTER ALLEN.
1899, First Assistant Superintendent of City Schools, 344 Washington St., Milwaukee.
- WILLIAM H. BEACH, A.M., Hamilton Coll.
1891, Professor of History and Civics, East Side High School, 229 Pleasant St., Milwaukee.
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1894, Principal of East Side High School, 719 Webster Ave., Green Bay.
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1899, Vice-President of State Normal School, 2510 Sycamore St., Milwaukee.
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1896, Superintendent of Schools, 315 Oxford Ave., Eau Claire.
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1869, Assistant Teacher, 3d District, 170 Mason St., Milwaukee.
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1899, Professor of Biology in Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee.
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1886, Principal of Schools, Manitowoc.
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1897, Teacher in Mathematics in State Normal School, Platteville.
1898 THOMAS HIGDON GENTLE.
1900, Director of Training School, State Normal School, Platteville.
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1893, Professor of Physics, State Normal School, 52 High St., Oshkosh.
STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WHITEWATER.
President, Albert Salisbury, Whitewater.
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1898, Squire Professor of Mental Science and Philosophy, 717 Chapin St., Beloit.
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1899, Superintendent of Schools and Principal of High School, Fort Atkinson.
GEORGE P. HAMBERECHT.
1898, Superintendent of City Schools, 408 High St., Grand Rapids.
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1892, Professor of European History, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY.
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1899, Superintendent of City Schools, Antigo.
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1900, Principal of High School, Ripon.
1900 SUPERIOR STATE NORMAL SCHOOL LIBRARY.
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- 1895 HENRY MERZ, B.Sc., A.M., Blackburn Univ.
1888, Professor of German and Social Science, University of Wyoming, 407, 9th St. Laramie.
- 1897 J. O. CHURCHILL.
Superintendent of Schools, 2504 Ferguson St., Cheyenne.
- THE UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING.
President, Elmer E. Smiley, D.D.; Librarian, Grace Raymond Hebard, Laramie.
- 1899 C. P. LAMAR, B.Sc., A.M., Nor. Ind. Nor. Sch.
1898, Superintendent of City Schools, Rawlins.
- T. T. TYNAN.
1899, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1308 Ferguson St., Cheyenne.
- 1900 ELMER E. SMILEY, A.B., '85, Syracuse Univ.; B.D., '90, Yale; D.D., '99, Syracuse Univ.
1898, President of the University of Wyoming, Laramie.

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ACTIVE MEMBER

- 1895 CASSIA PATTON.
1894, Teacher of School No. 2, Sitka.

HAWAII

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- 1895 ALLIE M. FELKER, Grad., '84, State Normal Sch., San José.
1899, Assistant in Princess Kaiulani School, Box 100, Honolulu.
- S. LILLIAN BYINGTON.
1899, Teacher of Music, Kamehameha Girls' School, Honolulu.
- 1899 JOHN A. MOORE.
Principal of English School, High St., Wailuku Maui.
- HENRY S. TOWNSEND, A.B., '80, A.M., '83, Univ. of Des Moines.
1896, Inspector General of Schools, Honolulu.
- 1900 MRS. NINA L. D. FRASHER.
1900, Principal of the Princess Kaiulani School, 30 Kukui St., Honolulu.

PORTO RICO

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1890 CHARLES B. SCOTT, A.M., '87, Rutgers Coll.
1899, in charge of Schools of American Missionary Association, Santurce, San Juan.
- 1893 M. G. BRUMBAUGH, A.M., '93, Ph.D., '94, Univ. of Pa.
1900, Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, San Juan.
- 1897 G. CLINTON HANNA, A.B., '70, A.M., '73, Calvert Coll., Md.
1899, Hanna's Select School, 86 Fortaleza St., San Juan.
- 1899 VICTOR S. CLARK, A.B., '90, Univ. of Minn.
1899, President of Insular Board of Education and Insular Superintendent of Schools, San Juan.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

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- 1892 ALLEN ALLENSWORTH, A.M.
1899, Enlisted Men's Military School, Manila.
- 1894 FRED WASHINGTON ATKINSON, A.B., '90, Harvard; Ph.D., '93, Leipzig.
1900, General Superintendent of Education in Philippine Islands, Manila.
- 1899 GEORGE P. ANDERSON, A.M., '86, Whitman Coll., Wash.; B.D., '91, Yale.
Superintendent of Public Schools, Manila.

CANADA

ACTIVE MEMBERS

- 1890 JAMES L. HUGHES.
Inspector of Schools, cor. York and Richmond Sts.; 58 Henry St., Toronto.
- 1891 SAMUEL BOWER SINCLAIR, A.M., '93, Univ. of Toronto.
1893, Vice Principal of Normal School, Ottawa.
- 1895 MRS. ADA M. HUGHES.
Superintendent of Kindergartens, Public Schools, 58 Henry St., Toronto.

ENGLAND

ACTIVE MEMBER

- 1899 SAMUEL S. FECHHEIMER FLETCHER, A.B., '94, London; Ph.D., '97, Jena.
1898, Lecturer on Education in the University of Cambridge, and Teacher of Method in the C. U. Day Training College, 16 Warkworth St., Cambridge, England.

GERMANY

ACTIVE MEMBER

- 1895 DAVID KOPF GOSS, A.B., '87, Indiana Univ.; Fellow in Cornell, '92-3.
1900, Principal, American College, Strasburg.

HUNGARY

ACTIVE MEMBER

- 1893 BÉLA KRÉCSY, State High School Teacher's Diploma, '81.
State High School, 6th District at Budapest, VI Lovag Utca 18, Budapest.

INDEX TO LIST OF LIFE DIRECTORS, LIFE AND ACTIVE MEMBERS

[The names of Life Directors and Life Members are printed in italics.]

[Deceased members are indicated by a *.]

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Adams, Cecilia, Colo., '98
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Alger, John L., Vt., '98
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Allgood, Robt. V., Ala., '98
Allin, R. H., Ill., '97
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Almond, W. S., Ind., '91
Altoona Mech. Lib'y, Pa., '99
Alumni Asso., Milwaukee, Wis., '84
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Amherst Coll. Lib'y, Mass., '97
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Anderson, John J., N. Y., '71
Anderson, J. N., Tenn., 1900
Anderson, L. F., Mich., 1900
Anderson, P. J., Ohio, '96
Anderson, W. D., S. D., 1900
Anderson, W. H., W. Va., '90
Anderson, W. J., Ariz., '99
Andrews, E. Benj., Neb., '99
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Arce, Oliver C., N. Y., '70
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Armstrong, Geo. P., Mass., '96
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Ashmore, Otis, Ga., '94
Athenaeum Soc., Wis., '84
Atkinson, Fred W., P. I., '94
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Augsburg, D. R., Cal., '95
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Babcock, W. F., N. J., 1900
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Bailey, Emma V., Ill., '97
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Bakeless, O. H., Pa., 1900
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Balcorn, A. G., N. J., '98
Baldwin, H. J., Cal., '99
Baldwin, Wm. A., Mass., '99
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Barnes, J. Walter, W. Va., '97
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 Bradley, Milton, Mass., '92
 Brandegee, J. E., N. Y., '96
 Brandt, F. B., Pa., '97
 Brier, Warren J., Wis., '95
 Brigham Young Coll., Utah, '98
 Bright, O. T., Ill., '93
 Bristol, E. N., N. Y., '96
 Brittain, M. L., Ga., 1900
 Brock, H. Z., Mich., '97
 Brockett, Zue H., D. C., '98
 Broderick, Kate G., N. Y., '96
Brooks, Edw., Pa., '76
 Brooks, Sarah C., Minn., '94
 Brown, C. E., Wis., '95
 Brown, Elias, D. C., '98
 Brown, Eliz. V., D. C., '98
 Brown, Ellis W., D. C., '98
 Brown, Elmer E., Cal., '91
 Brown, Eugene, Iowa, '97
Brown, Geo. P., Ill., '80
 Brown, Geo. W., Mass., '96
 Brown, H. B., Ind., '95
 Brown, Hugh, Mich., '98
 Brown, Jesse H., Ind., '91
 Brown, J. L., Utah, '99
 Brown, John A., N. H., '99
 Brown, John F., Ind., '96
 Brown, J. Stanley, Ill., '97
 Brown, Kate L., Neb., '97
 Brown, Miss Marion, La., '89
 Brown, Sara P., Cal., '99
 Brown, Thos. P., Cal., '99
 Brown, Wm. O., Wis., '96
 Bruce, Wm. G., Wis., '93
 Brumbaugh, G. W., Ohio, '96
 Brumbaugh, M. G., P. R., '93
 Bruot, Marie L., Ohio, '96
 Bryan, Wm. J. S., Mo., '99
 Bryan, Wm. L., Ind., '93
 Bryant, Miss C. L., Mo., '99
 Bryn Mawr Coll., Pa., '99
 Bryson Library, Teachers Coll., N. Y., '98
 Buchanan, Elizabeth, Mo., 1900
 Buchanan, Geo. Y., Mo., '94
 Buchanan, John T., N. Y., '90
 Buchanan, L. A., Cal., '99
 Buchholz, L. W., Fla., '98
 Buechele, J. L., Iowa, '97
 Buehrle, R. K., Pa., '92
 Buffalo Pub. Library, N. Y., '99
 Buford, Mrs. E. G., Tenn., 1900
 Bulkley, Julia E., Ill., '95
 Bunnell, C., Ind., '99
 Bunzel, Belle, Ark., '98
 Burch, Arthur, Wis., '96
 Burdick, A. Hall, N. Y., '92
 Burgess, I. B., Ill., '99
 Burk, Fred L., Cal., '92
 Burke, Mrs. B. Ellen, N. Y., '94
 Burke, J. E., Mass., '95
 Burks, J. D., Cal., '99
 Burleson, A. L., Cal., '99
 Burnham, W. R., Conn., '99
 Burns, G. W., Ohio, 1900
Burns, J. J., Ohio, '80
 Burns, Ralph H., Minn., '96
 Burris, Wm. P., Mass., '95
 Burroughs, Geo. S., Ohio, '95
 Hurt, Amy M., Vt., 1900
 Burton, R. W., Ill., '96
 Busby, Isaac V., Ind., '96
 Bushnell, H. T., Iowa, '97
Butler, Nicholas M., N. Y., '85
 Button, Wm. J., Ill., '96
 Butts, Mrs. Annice B., Ill., '96
 Buzzell, Delos, Ill., '97
 Byington, S. Lillian, H. I., '95
 Cahalan, Mary A., Ala., '95
 Caldwell, B. C., La., '96
 Caldwell, H. W., Neb., '96
 Calkins, F. L., Ill., '95
 Call, A. D., Mass., '98
 Cammack, Ira I., Mo., '95
 Camp, David N., Conn., '92
Campbell, A. G., Kan., '86
 Campbell, Julia, Wis., '97
 Campbell, W. H., Ill., '95
Campfield, James H., N. Y., '84
 Cannon, Geo. L., Colo., '95
 Cannon, H. D., Ore., '99
 Capen, Elmer H., Mass., '96
 Capen, Frank S., N. Y., '96
 Carden, A. D., Ark., '98
 Carey, C. E., Ohio, '95
 Carfrey, J. H., Mass., '97
 Cargo, R. M., Pa., '96
 Carleton, E. A., Mont., '97
 Carlisle, Jas. M., Tex., '95
 Carnegie, J. A., Ind., '95
 Carnegie Library, Pa., '96
Carpenter, J. H., Wis., '84
 Carr, J. M., Ohio, '98
 Carr, J. W., Ind., '97
 Carrington, W. T., Mo., '99
 Carroll, C. F., Mass., '95
 Carroll, Mary H., N. Y., '98
 Carson, C. H., Jr., La., 1900
 Carter, Joseph, Ill., '99
 Cary, Alice D., Ga., '98
 Cary, C. P., Wis., '97
 Case, Harriet F., Ind., '98
 Case, Richard, N. J., '94
 Casey, W. V., Colo., '95
 Cassilly, Francis B., Ill., '99
 Cates, E. E., Md., '98
 Catey, Minnie L., Cal., '99
 Chadsey, Chas. E., Colo., '95
 Chalmers, W. W., Ohio, '95
 Chamberlain, A. H., Cal., '97
 Champlin, Howard, Ohio, '96
 Chandler, Anna M., Mich., '99
 Chandler, John W., N. Y., '90
Chandler, Willard H., Wis., '84
 Chaney, N. H., Ohio, 1900
 Chaplin, Henry L., Ill., '99
 Chapman, F. E., Mass., '94
 Chase, Susan F., N. Y., '98
 Chase, W. J., Ill., '99
 Cheever, W. H., Wis., '96
Cheney, Augustus J., Ill., '84
 Cheney, Francis J., N. Y., '91
 Chicago Institute, Ill., '99
 Chicago Pub. Library, Ill., '98
 Church, Geo. E., R. I., '92
 Churchill, J. O., Wyo., '97
 City Lib'y, Springfield, Mass., '98
 Clair, Francis R., N. Y., '94
 Clancy, Albert W., Ill., '92
 Clancy, N. J., Tex., '97
 Clark, A. O., Utah, '97
Clark, Frank H., Colo., '86
 Clark, F. H., Cal., '99
 Clark, Jessie L., Kan., '95
 Clark, John S., Mass., '92
Clark, L. H., Wis., '84
 Clark, V. S., P. R., '99
 Clark, W. A., Neb., '95
 Clarke, Elva E., Kan., '94
 Clarke, Francis D., Mich., '97
 Claxton, P. P., N. C., '98
 Clendenen, T. C., Ill., '97
 Cleveland Pub. Lib'y, Ohio, '97
 Clum, George V., Ill., '99
 Cobb, Chas. D., N. C., 1900
 Cobb, Chas. N., N. Y., '94
 Cobb, Collier, N. C., '99
 Coburn, F. F., Mass., '99
 Coburn, Wm. G., Mich., '95
 Cochrane, A. O., N. Y., '98
 Coddington, A. O., Ill., '93
 Coddington, E. A., Mich., 1900
Coe, Emily M., N. C., '80
 Coffin, C. W. D., N. Y., 1900
 Cogswell, Francis, Mass., '93
 Colby, E. C., N. Y., '96
 Cole, Chas. H., W. Va., '98
 Cole, Chas. W., N. Y., '92
 Cole, L. W., Okla., '98
Cole, Wm. H., W. Va., '70
 Colegrove, A. D., Pa., '95
 Colegrove, P. P., Minn., 1900
 Coleman, E. N., Iowa, '98
 Coleman, J. T., S. C., 1900
 Colgrove, C. P., Iowa, '97
 College, Agr., of Kan., '97
 College, Amherst, Mass., '97
 College, Boston, Mass., '97
 College, Brig. Young, Utah, '98
 College, Bryn Mawr, Pa., '99
 College, Conn. Agri., '99
 College, Dickinson, Pa., '99
 College, Hendrix, Ark., '97
 College, Midland, Kan., '99
 College, Mont. State, '99
 College, Pa. St., 1900
 College, Pomona, Cal., '99
 College, Pritchett, Mo., 1900
 College, Smith, Mass., '98
 College, S. D. Agri., '99
 College, Valparaiso, Ind., '97
 College, Vassar, N. Y., '98
 College, Wabash, Ind., '95
 College, Wheaton, Ill., '99
 College, Williams, Mass., '97
 College, Woman's, Md., '99
 Collins, E. E., S. D., '99
 Collins, J. H., Ill., '95
 Collins, Mrs. J. H., Ill., '95
 Collins, John S., Mo., '97
 Columbia University, N. Y., '95
 Comings, Fannie S., N. Y., '95
 Compton, Mrs. H. T., Cal., '99
 Comstock, D. Y., Vt., '99
 Comstock, T. B., Cal., '95
 Congdon, C. H., Ill., '94
 Conkling, W. E., Mich., '96
 Conley, Geo. H., Mass., '97
 Conn. Agri. College, Conn., '99
 Converse, F. E., Wis., '97

- Conway, Clara, Tenn., '87
 Cook, Chas. F., Me., '98
 Cook, E. H., N. Y., '85
 Cook, Elizabeth B., Ill., '96
 Cook, F. L., S. D., '75
 Cook, Geo. B., Ark., '95
 Cook, Ida M., Ill., '99
 Cook, John W., Ill., '90
 Cook, W. H., Cal., '99
 Cooley, Mrs. A. W., Minn., '96
 Cooley, E. G., Ill., '97
 Cooley, F. A., Ariz., '99
 Cooley, F. W., Mich., '95
 Cooley, L. C., N. Y., '96
 Cooper, F. B., Utah, '96
 Cooper, F. I., Mass., '93
 Cooper, O. H., Tex., '94
 Cooper, N., Kan., '86
 Copeland, A. B., Colo., '99
 Copeland, Chas. H., Ind., '99
 Corbett, H. R., Ill., '90
 Corbin, J. C., Ark., '98
 Corcoran, Tressa M., Ohio, '96
 Cornell Univ. Library, N. Y., '96
 Cornell, Watson, Pa., '96
 Corson, O. T., Ohio, '87
 Corthell, W. J., Me., '92
 Co. Teachers' Assn., Wis., '84
 Cottingham, J. M., Mo., '97
 Cotton, F. A., Ind., '98
 Coulter, Minnie, Cal., '99
 Cowgill, Paul A., Mich., '98
 Cox, Edwin B., Ohio, '89
 Cox, E. Morris, Cal., '96
 Cox, Henry C., Ill., '95
 Cox, Jean N., N. J., '97
 Cox, Martin L., N. J., '93
 Cox, T. L., Ark., '90
 Cox, Wm. J. M., Ill., '99
 Coy, Emma, Ill., '97
 Coy, E. W., Ohio, '83
 Crabbe, J. G., Ky., '97
 Crabtree, J. W., Neb., '95
 Crabtree, Mrs. D. W., Neb., '99
 Craig, Arthur U., Ala., '99
 Craig, Oscar J., Mont., '92
 Craig, Wm. B., Iowa, 1900
 Crane, Mrs. Chas. R., Ill., '97
 Crane, Frank, S. D., '95
 Crane, Julia E., N. Y., '95
 Crane, Wm. I., Ohio, '99
 Cranston, R. W., Minn., '96
 Creager, W. B., Ariz., '99
 Crissy, I. O., N. Y., '98
 Crist, Henry M., N. Y., '96
 Critchett, E. T., Minn., '98
 Crocker, H. G., Cal., '99
 Crockett, May M., Ill., '95
 Cronebaugh, C. L., Ohio, '99
 Cropsey, Miss N., Ind., '91
 Crosby, W. E., N. Y., '70
 Crosier, M. E., Iowa, '95
 Cross, J. G., Cal., '99
 Crouch, Sarah E., Mo., '95
 Crouse, Mrs. J. N., Ill., '93
 Crouter, A. L. E., Pa., 1900
 Cruikshank, Jas., N. Y., '57
 Cubberly, E. P., Cal., '94
 Culbertson, E. D. Y., Iowa, '95
 Cummins, J. P., Ohio, 1900
 Cunningham, J. B., Ala., '95
 Currant, Ulysses T., Ohio, '66
 Currier, E. H., N. Y., '97
 Curry, Robt., Pa., '84
 Curtis, A. E., Mich., '86
 Curtis, Virgil G., Ohio, '92
 Curtiss, Fred. A., Conn., '94
 Dabney, C. W., Tenn., '99
 Datoe, Geo. Eber, Wis., '97
 Dailey, M. E., Cal., '98
 Dalton, T. E., Ariz., '98
 Dana, Fenella, Kan., '95
 Daniels, J. W., Ida., '98
 Davenport, Benella, Fla., 1900
 Davidson, Chas. C., Ohio, '80
 Davidson, F. P., Cal., '99
 Davidson, Wm. M., Kan., '90
 Davis, A. J., Pa., '98
 Davis, Allan, D. C., '95
 Davis, Booth C., N. Y., '96
 Davis, Ellery W., Neb., '99
 Davis, Emma C., Ohio, '99
 Davis, Eva L., Ark., '98
 Davis, Geo. S., N. Y., '96
 Davis, Geo. W., Ill., '96
 Davis, John W., N. Y., '95
 Davis, J. M., Iowa, '98
 Davis, W. M., Mass., '99
 Dawson, H. T., N. Y., '95
 Deahl, J. N., W. Va., '96
 Dean, Mrs. Annie B., Wis., '99
 Deane, Chas. W., Conn., '89
 Dearborn, R. J., Tenn., 1900
 Dearmont, W. S., Mo., '99
 Deatrack, W. W., Pa., '92
 Decker, Wm. H., N. Mex., '99
 De Garmo, Chas., N. Y., '89
 Delano, Edward C., Ill., '95
 Demarest, J. B. T., N. Y., 1900
 Denfeld, Robt. E., Minn., '90
 Dept. Pub. Instr., Ill., '99
 Deupree, J. C., Miss., '97
 Dewey, Jas. A., Pa., '93
 Dewey, John, Ill., '97
 Dewey, Melvil, N. Y., '92
 Dial, S. T., Ohio, '95
 Dibble, V. C., Jr., S. C., 1900
 Dick, Fred., Colo., '95
 Dickens, J. L., Tenn., 1900
 Dickinson College, Pa., '99
 Dickey, C. L., Ohio, '95
 Dietrich, Chas. H., Ky., '91
 Dietrich, John, Colo., '95
 Dillman, L. M., Ill., '86
 Dinsmore, J. W., Ky., '98
 Dix, Wm. T., Ill., '96
 Dixon, B. V. B., La., '97
 Doane, Letitia L., Ill., '97
 Dobson, W. D., Mo., '97
 Dodd, Arthur A., Mo., '95
 Dodge, M. Luella, Ill., '97
 Dodge, R. E., N. Y., '98
 Dodge, Wm. C., Ill., '96
 Doggett, W. E., N. Y., 1900
 Dolphin, M. E., Kan., '95
 Donohoe, Mary J., N. J., '94
 Dorland, J. E., Ky., '92
 Doron, W. A., Iowa, '97
 Dougherty, Mabel E., Ill., '96
 Dougherty, N. C., Ill., '87
 Doughty, Jas. C., Nev., '99
 Dow, J. J., Minn., '96
 Downey, Miss B. P., Mont., '99
 Downing, A. S., N. Y., '91
 Downs, Edgar R., Colo., '94
 Doyle, Marie E., Wis., '91
 Dozier, Melville, Cal., '95
 Draper, Andrew S., Ill., '88
 Dreher, E. S., S. C., '96
 Dresser, Mrs. R. L. R., N. J., '99
 Ducker, W. H., Ill., '95
 Dudgeon, R. B., Wis., '94
 Dudley, Mrs. E., Iowa, '97
 Dudley, Marion C., S. C., 1900
 Durham, Mrs. C. M., Pa., '92
 Dutton, Bettie A., Ohio, '80
 Dutton, S. T., N. Y., '95
 Dyer, F. B., Ohio, '96
 Dyer, Frank R., Kan., '91
 Dyke, Chas. B., Va., '99
 Eakins, Mrs. Millie R., Ill., '96
 E. Ill. St. Nor. School, Ill., '99
 Eastman, Wm. R., N. Y., '96
 Easton, Warren, La., '95
 Eaton, Ira T., Ill., '94
 Eaton, John, D. C., '93
 Ebaugh, Z. C., Md., '97
 Eden, Philip, Wis., '84
 Edgerly, Jos. G., Mass., '96
 Ed. Assoc., N. D., '96
 Editor's Library, N. Y., '97
 Edmonds, F. S., Pa., '98
 Edmund, Gertrude, Mass., '97
 Edson, A. W., N. Y., '96
 Edwards, Anna E., Cal., '99
 Edwards, H. R., Minn., '97
 Edwards, J. E., Md., '98
 Edwards, W. A., Cal., '99
 Edwards, W. F., Mich., 1900
 Edwards, W. S., Cal., '99
 Ehinger, C. E., Pa., '97
 Elder, Ella C., N. Y., '96
 Elder, E. W., Colo., '95
 Elgas, Matthew J., N. Y., '91
 Eliot, Chas. W., Mass., '92
 Elliff, J. D., Mo., '98
 Elliott, A. M., Md., '99
 Elliott, E. C., Colo., '99
 Elliott, J. F., Ala., '98
 Ellis, John C., Ill., '87
 Ellis, Wm. Austin, Mich., '87
 Ellis, W. S., Ind., 1900
 Ellsworth, Henry W., N. Y., '96
 Elmer, Frances A., Minn., '97
 Elson, W. H., Mich., '95
 Elicerich, Bertha, N. J., 1900
 Ellwell, Mrs. O. F., N. J., '96
 Ely, Sarah Y., N. J., '92
 Emerson, Henry F., N. Y., '93
 Emery, John C., Wis., '84
 English, Rebecca, Cal., '88
 Estabrook, J. B., Wis., '99
 Estee, Jas. A., N. Y., '96
 Evans, Chas. H., Mo., '86
 Evans, Lawton B., Ga., '94
 Evans, Wm. P., Mo., '98
 Ewing, R. D., Mich., '99
 Fagan, Rev. J. P., D. C., '99
 Fairchild, E. T., Kan., '86
 Fairchild, Geo. T., Ky., '86
 Fair, Delos, Mich., '97
 Farnt, John C., Miss., '97
 Farley, Anne, N. Y., '97
 Farley, D. H., N. J., '96
 Farley, Geo. L., Neb., '97
 Farnsworth, Fannie P., Minn., '98
 Farnsworth, S. A., Minn., '94
 Farrand, Wilson, N. J., '95
 Farrell, Edw. D., N. Y., '90
 Farson, M. Elizabeth, Ill., '97
 Faulkner, R. D., Cal., '99
 Fay, Edw. A., D. C., '99
 Felker, Allie M., H. I., '95
 Fell, Anna M., N. J., '97
 Fels, Maurice, Pa., '98
 Fendley, J. M., Tex., '95
 Fenton, Geo., N. Y., '92
 Ferguson, E. E., Mich., '96
 Ferguson, F. L., Cal., '99
 Fernald, M. C., Me., '90
 Ferris, W. N., Mich., '99
 Fillmore, Nettie, Ohio, 1900
 Fishburne, E. B., Va., '99
 Fisher, Gilman C., Mass., '92
 Fisher, H. W., Pa., '92
 Fisk, Herbert F., Ill., '91
 Fitch, Ferris S., Mich., '90
 Fitz, Geo. W., Mass., '98
 Fitzgibbons, T. F., Ind., '95
 Fitzpatrick, Frank A., Mass., '84
 Fleming, Mary A., N. Y., '90
 Fleshman, Arthur C., Ky., '94
 Fletcher, S. S. F., Eng., '96
 Flick, W. B., Ind., '95
 Flickinger, J. R., Pa., '98
 Floyd, Allen C., Neb., '98
 Floyd, Laura D., Ind., '98
 Floyd, W. L., Fla., 1900
 Foerste, A. F., Ohio, '96
 Foos, Anna, Neb., '97
 Foote, L. O., Pa., '96
 Fooshe, J. Frank, S. C., '98
 Foote, Mary C., Ill., '97
 Forbes, Alexander, Ill., '76
 Forbes, John A., Ill., '98
 Ford, Lyman H., Iowa, '97
 Fordyce, Chas., Neb., '99
 Foresman, H. A., Ill., '96
 Foresman, Robt., Ill., '96
 Forrest, J. T., Wash., '95
 Fort, W. H., Mich., '97
 Foshay, Jas. A., Cal., '93
 Foster, C. E., Tex., '97
 Fowler, W. K., Neb., '92

- Fox, Wm. F., Va., '94
 Francis, J. H., Cal., '99
 Frank, H. L., Ind., '99
 Franklin, Geo. A., Minn., '97
 Frasher, Mrs. N. L. D., H. I., 1900
 Frasier, W. F., Vt., 1900
 Frazee, Victor, R. I., '96
 Freeman, J. H., Ill., '95
 Freeman, John T., D. C., '98
 Freer, H. H., Iowa, '84
 French, Geo. W., N. Y., '95
 French, Harlan P., N. Y., '91
 French, John D., Neb., '99
 French, O. E., Iowa, '95
 French, Permeal, Ida., '99
 Friedberg, Wm. B., N. Y., '92
 Friedel, Chas., Ore., '97
 Friedman, Anna E., N. Y., '95
 Frisbee, H. D., N. Y., '99
 Frissell, H. B., Va., 1900
 Frost, H. H., Mich., '95
 Frost, J. M., Ill., '97
 Fruchte, Amelia C., Mo., '96
 Fry, W. W., Fla., 1900
 Fuller, Sarah, Mass., 1900
 Fulton, Robt. B., Miss., '94
 Fulton, W. L., Ohio, '96
 Funk, Clara, Ind., '99
 Funk, J. P., Ind., '99
 Futrall, Thos. A., Ark., '87
 Gafney, T. M., N. Y., '98
 Gage, Nathaniel P., D. C., '98
 Galbreath, T. C., Md., '99
 Gammon, Mrs. M. D., Wis., '97
 Gans, W. G., Pa., '95
 Gantvoort, A. J., Ohio, '94
 Garrett, Mary S., Pa., '97
Garrett, Wm. K., Tenn., '86
 Garrette, Irene, Iowa, '97
 Garvin, John B., Colo., '95
 Gass, B. R., Colo., '99
 Gastman, E. A., Ill., '95
 Gates, Elmer, Md., '98
 Gates, Howard, Ark., '96
 Gates, Merrill E., D. C., '99
 Gayhart, Walter C., Nev., '95
 Gayley, Chas. M., Cal., '99
 Geary, Grace, Mo., '97
 Geer, David S., Ill., '86
 Geeting, D. M., Ind., '95
 Geiger, F. P., Ohio, 1900
 Gentle, T. H., Wis., '98
 George, Austin, Mich., '95
 Germann, Geo. B., N. Y., '98
 Gettemy, Mrs. M. E., Ill., '92
 Gibson, C. B., Ga., '96
 Gibson, John A., Pa., '98
 Giddens, L. P., Ala., 1900
 Gideon, Geo. D., Pa., '99
 Giffin, W. M., Ill., '95
 Gilbert, C. B., N. J., '93
 Gilbert, Irene, Mo., 1900
 Gilbert, Mrs. M. E., Ill., '99
 Gilbert, Newell D., Ill., '95
 Gilday, Mary, Mo., '95
 Gillan, Silas Y., Wis., '95
 Gillespie, Mary, Ill., '97
 Gillespie, Nellie, Ill., '97
 Gilliam, R. F., S. C., 1900
 Gillman, Daniel C., Md., '96
 Girton, Wm. W., S. D., '99
 Gladding, A. E., Ohio, '96
 Glascock, Wm. H., Ind., '99
 Glass, E. C., Va., '94
 Glenn, Chas. B., Ala., 1900
 Glenn, G. R., Ga., '95
 Glotfelter, J. H., Kan., '99
 Glover, Nathan L., Ohio, '89
 Gminder, A. J., Md., '98
 Goddard, Wm. E., Wis., '99
 Golden, H. W., Pa., '98
 Goodhue, Lincoln P., Ill., '93
 Goodnohne, Walter S., N. Y., '82
 Goodwin, A. C., Ind., '99
 Goodyear, E. F., Cal., '99
 Gordon, Jos. C., Ill., '97
 Gordy, J. P., Ohio, '96
 Gordy, W. F., Conn., '98
 Gorton, Chas. E., N. Y., '96
 Goss, D. K., Germany, '95
 Gotwals, Jos. K., Pa., '92
Gove, Aaron, Colo., '88
 Gower, Hattie F., Cal., '99
 Graeser, C. A., S. C., '97
Graham, Hugh A., Mich., '95
 Graham, Jas. D., Cal., '99
 Grandy, Mary A., Mass., '93
 Grant, Miss A. L., D. C., '98
 Grant, H. L., Minn., '96
Gratz, Simon, Pa., '79
 Gray, Arthur W., Cal., 1900
 Gray, H. W., N. Y., '98
 Gray, Jennie B., N. C., 1900
 Greason, Elmira R., Okla., 1900
 Greeley, J. P., Cal., '88
 Green, Jas. M., N. J., '92
 Greene, John A., N. Y., '93
 Greene, Josephine A., N. Y., '99
 Greenlee, Ida K., Mass., '93
 Greenlee, L. C., Colo., '92
 Greenman, A. V., Ill., '97
Greenwood, J. M., Mo., '86
 Gregory, Benj. C., N. J., '94
 Gregory, Lyman, Cal., '99
 Grenfell, Helen L., Ohio, '99
 Griffin, E. H., Md., '99
 Griffith, E. W., N. Y., '96
 Griffith, Geo., N. Y., '93
 Griffiths, G. C., Ill., '96
 Griggs, Herbert, Colo., '99
 Grimsley, G. A., N. C., '98
 Grindle, H. D., Ohio, '98
 Grisham, G. N., Mo., 1900
 Gross, Otis C., Wis., '96
 Groszmann, M. P. E., Va., '94
 Grove, M. A., Pa., '97
 Groves, Chas. W., Ill., '96
 Grupe, Mary A., Wash., '99
 Grussendorf, D. A., Minn., '98
 Gruver, E. A., N. Y., 1900
 Guden, Anna J., N. J., '94
 Guilliams, J. M., Ga., '97
 Gunther, J. C., Ohio, 1900
 Gunn, A. F., Cal., '99
 Gunnison, W. B., N. Y., '96
 Guss, Roland W., Mass., '95
 Guttman, Albert, Wis., '97
 Hadley, Hiram, N. Mex., '91
 Haertel, M. H., Ill., '99
 Hagemann, J. A., Wis., '99
 Hagerty, C. T., N. Mex., '95
 Haggerty, Geo. B., N. Mex., '97
 Haight, R. A., Ill., '95
 Hailmann, W. N., Ohio, '79
 Hale, Geo. D., N. Y., '91
 Hale, Wm. G., Ill., '99
Hall, Caleb G., N. Y., '85
 Hall, Dana W., Ill., '91
 Hall, Edwin H., Mass., '99
 Hall, Frank H., Ill., '97
 Hall, G. Stanley, Mass., '91
 Hall, Isaac Freeman, Mass., '95
 Hall, Loyal Freeman, Pa., '93
 Hall, Mary F., N. Y., '93
 Hall, R. C., Ark., '98
 Hall, W. S., Ill., '99
 Hallam, Alfred, N. Y., '96
 Halland, J. G., N. D., '97
 Halleck, R. P., Ky., '97
 Halsey, R. H., Wis., '95
 Hambrecht, Geo. P., Wis., '99
 Hamilton, Jas. M., Mont., '95
 Hamilton, R. I., Ind., '96
 Hamilton, Sam., Pa., '98
 Hamilton, Wm. D., D. C., '98
 Hamlin, Cyrus, Miss., '99
 Hammel, J. C., Cal., '99
 Hammel, W. C. A., Md., 1900
 Hampton, Miss C., Fla., 1900
 Hampton Institute, Va., '99
 Hancock, John A., Cal., '95
 Hand, W. H., S. C., '96
 Hanna, G. C., P. R., '97
 Hanna, John C., Ill., '98
 Hanson, Myra H., Ohio, '98
 Hannus, Paul H., Mass., '95
 Hardy, Richard, Ill., '94
 Harrison, W. B., N. Y., '92
 Harper, Wm. R., Ill., '95
 Harrington, C. L., N. Y., '98
 Harris, Abram W., Me., '98
 Harris, Ada Van Stone, N. J., '95
 Harris, Edw. L., Ohio, '94
 Harris, Edwin S., N. Y., '98
 Harris, Henry E., N. J., '93
 Harris Inst. Lib'y, R. I., '99
 Harris, J. C., Ga., '99
 Harris, Jas. H., Mich., '98
 Harris, Julia A., Ohio, '94
 Harris, Mary E., N. Y., '96
 Harris, T. G., Tex., '95
Harris, Wm. T., D. C., '76
 Harrison, Elizabeth, Ill., '95
 Harrison, Miles W., Ind., '96
 Hart, Albert Bushnell, Mass., '95
 Hartigan, Mary S. L., Ill., '95
 Hartman, Mary, Ill., '95
 Harvard Coll. Lib'y, Mass., '95
Harvey, G. L., Mo., '86
Harvey, L. D., Wis., '84
 Harvey, N. A., Ill., '97
 Haskins, C. H., Wis., '99
 Hatch, Ida P., S. D., '99
 Hatch, W. E., Mass., '97
 Hatch, W. H., Ill., '95
 Hatfield, C. B., Ky., 1900
 Hauer, J. S., Ohio, 1900
 Haupert, Chas., Ohio, '93
 Haupt, J. G., La., '96
 Haven, Caroline T., N. Y., '96
 Hayden, H. B., Ill., '97
 Hayden, P. C., Iowa, '95
 Hayes, C. L., Fla., 1900
 Hayes, Frances C., N. Y., '96
 Hayes, H. E., N. Y., '92
 Hays, Dudley G., Ill., '97
 Hays, James L., N. J., 1900
 Hayward, Edw., N. Y., '95
Hayward, Emily A., Ill., '84
 Hazen, David H., D. C., '98
 Hazen, Lillian D., Cal., '99
 Heath, D. C., Mass., '91
 Heath, E. L., Mich., '99
 Heaton, T. L., Cal., '99
 Hedden, Edwin, Md., 1900
 Heermans, Josephine, Mo., '96
 Heidler, S. H., Ill., '97
 Heighway, F. F., Ind., '99
 Heineken, J. F., D. N. J., '94
 Heizer, John A., Ohio, '99
 Helmer, Harry, Ill., '95
 Henderson, Mrs. Kate A., Ill., '97
 Hendrick, Welland, N. Y., '95
 Hendricks, J. P., Mont., '98
 Hendrix College, Ark., '97
 Henninger, J. W., Ill., '96
 Henry, Jas. A., Tenn., '96
 Henry, T. B., Kan., 1900
 Hermanns, Edw. F., Colo., '95
 Merrick, C. A., Pa., 1900
 Herrig, Anna B., S. D., '95
 Hershman, W. H., Ind., '96
 Hestie, Chas., Ill., '95
 Hervey, Henry D., R. I., '96
 Hervey, Walter L., N. Y., '95
 Herzog, Peter, Mo., '97
 Hess, Wm. C., N. Y., '96
 Hester, W. A., Ind., '95
 Hewes, W. D., N. Y., '96
 Hewett, Edgar L., N. Mex., '99
Hewett, Edwin C., Ill., '84
 Hicks, Mrs. Mary D., Mass., '90
 Hill, A. Ross, Neb., '99
 Hill, Frank A., Mass., '95
 Hill, John A., Ind., '99
 Hill, Mary, Wis., '96
 Hill, Walter B., Ga., '99
 Himes, Florence B., N. Y., '94
 Himenon, J. H., Ark., '96
 Hinsdale, B. A., Mich., '84
 Hiser, W. S., Ind., '98
 Hisey, Jos. C., Ill., '94
Hitz, John, D. C., '80
Hobe, Augusta W., Cal., '89

- Hodgdon, Miss J. E., N. Y., '82
 Hodgkin, Chas. E., N. Mex., '95
 Hodgkin, Cyrus W., Ind., '95
 Hodgson, C. W., Cal., '97
 Hoegelsboerger, Nora, D. C., '98
 Hofer, Amalie, Ill., '95
 Hoffman, Benj. F., Mo., '97
 Hoffman, Gaius, N. J., '94
 Hogan, Louise E., N. J., '98
 Hogg, Alex., Tex., '74
 Hogg, Miss F. O., Ark., '98
 Holden, C. C., N. Y., '98
 Hollingsworth, J. L., Fla., '93
 Holloway, J. L., Ark., '95
 Holmes, Evelyn, S. C., 1900
 Holmes, M. A., S. C., 1900
 Homans, Amy M., Mass., '91
 Hooper, Sanford A., Cal., '89
 Hoose, James H., Cal., '79
 Hoover, W. E., N. D., '97
 Hopkins, J. G., Minn., '94
 Hopkins, L. Grace, Minn., '94
 Hopkins, S. N., Okla., '98
 Horchem, B. J., Iowa, '97
 Hornberger, J. A., Ill., '95
 Houck, Henry, Pa., '97
 House, L. J., Ohio, '98
 Housh, W. H., Cal., '99
 Houston, J. K., Ind., '96
 Howard, F. E., Conn., '96
 Howard, Geo. A., Ohio, '95
 Howe, Agnes E., Cal., '99
 Howe, Geo. H., Mo., '98
 Howe, S. B., N. Y., '95
 Howe, Wilbur W., N. Y., '95
 Howell, Geo., Pa., '96
 Howell, Logan D., N. Y., '94
 Howerth, Ira W., Ill., '99
 Hoyt, C. O., Mich., '97
 Hoyt, David W., R. I., '98
 Hoyt, W. Judson E., Wis., '90
 Hubbard, Mrs. E. A., Ill., '97
 Hubbard, F. V., Minn., '97
 Hufford, Geo. W., Ind., '94
 Hughes, Mrs. Ada M., Can., '95
 Hughes, Isaac H., Mo., '98
 Hughes, Jas. L., Can., '99
 Hughes, John F., N. Y., '98
 Hughes, R. L., Ind., 1900
 Hughes, W. F., Ohio, 1900
 Huling, Ray Greene, Mass., '91
 Hull, John, Wash., '91
 Hull, Lawrence C., N. Y., '93
 Hull, Philip M., N. Y., '99
 Hull, Warren C., Mich., '97
 Hulsart, J. H., N. J., '99
 Humke, Albert E., Ind., '93
 Humphrey, S. P., Ohio, 1900
 Hunt, Mary H., Mass., '87
 Hunter, A. D., Cal., '99
 Hunter, Thos., N. Y., '85
 Hurd, Geo. B., Conn., '88
 Hussey, A. W., Ill., '97
 Hutton, A. J., Wis., '84
 Hutton, Chas. E., Cal., '95
 Hyatt, F. H., Cal., '99
 Hyde, Mary F., N. Y., '92
 Ill. State Nor. Univ., '98
 Ind. Nor. Sch. of Pa., '99
 Ind. State Library, '97
 Ind. State Nor. Sch., Ind., '97
 Ind. Univ. Library, '99
 Ingalls, Will C., N. J., '94
 Irwin, John S., Ind., '80
 Jackman, Wilbur S., Ill., '95
 Jackson, Mrs. E. R., N. Mex., '95
 Jackson, Jos. P., Cal., '95
 Jackson, Wm. R., Neb., '96
 Jacobs, Walter Ballou, R. I., '94
 Jacob Tome Insti., Md., '98
 James, Henry M., Ore., '84
 Jameson, H. W., N. Y., '97
 Jandon, Thos. P., Jr., Mo., '98
 Janney, B. T., D. C., '98
 Jaques, Jennie, S. C., 1900
 Jenkins, O. P., Cal., '99
 Jenkins, Sara D., N. Y., '95
 Jersey City Pub. Lib'y., N. J., '97
 Jesse, Richard H., Mo., '92
 Jewett, A. V., Kan., '86
 John B. Stetson Univ., Fla., '99
 John Crerar Library, Ill., '97
 Johns Hopkins Univ., Md., '99
 Johnson, Dora, Tenn., 1900
 Johnson, Ernest Henry, Mass., '93
 Johnson, F. W., Me., '98
 Johnson, A. B., Ohio, 1900
 Johnson, Henry, Ill., '99
 Johnson, H. M., D. C., '98
 Johnson, J. A., Ill., '97
 Johnson, Jesse S., Ohio, '98
 Johnson, S. Arthur, Colo., '94
 Johnson, T. S., Kan., '99
 Johnson, W. H., Mont., '95
 Johnstone, E. R., N. J., '96
 Jones, A. Leroy, N. Y., '99
 Jones, Arthur O., Ohio, '91
 Jones, E. A., Ohio, '84
 Jones, E. C. Lloyd, Wis., '97
 Jones, Edward M., N. Y., '84
 Jones, Emma F., Ill., '97
 Jones, Frank L., Ind., '95
 Jones, Herbert J., Mass., '96
 Jones, Jane Lloyd, Wis., '97
 Jones, J. W., Ohio, '86
 Jones, L. H., Ohio, '96
 Jones, Lizzie P., Mont., '97
 Jones, Mattie S., D., '94
 Jones, Myra, Mich., '92
 Jones, Richard, Tenn., '94
 Jones, W. W., Wis., '97
 Jordan, Chas. M., Minn., '93
 Jordan, David S., Cal., '98
 Joyner, J. Y., N. C., '98
 Judd, L. C., N. Y., '96
 Kammann, C. H., Ill., '97
 Kane, T. F., N. Y., '89
 Kansas State Agri. Coll., '97
 Karr, Grant, N. Y., '99
 Kayser, Carl F., N. J., '94
 Keane, John J., D. C., '89
 Keating, J. F., Colo., '95
 Keeler, Harriet L., Ohio, '94
 Keister, W. H., Va., 1900
 Kellogg, Amos M., N. Y., '90
 *Kellogg, S. H., Cal., '99
 Kenaston, G. F., Ind., '95
 Kendall, C. N., Ind., '95
 Kendall, F. A., Ill., '95
 Kenerson, A. H., Mass., '95
 Kennedy, Jas. W., N. J., '94
 Kennedy, John, N. Y., '99
 Kennedy, Jos., N. D., '96
 Kennedy, P. P., Minn., '97
 Kenyon, A. B., N. Y., '96
 Keppler, Mrs. W. S., Fla., '94
 Kerlin, W. D., Ind., '97
 Kerr, Wm. J., Utah, '95
 Keyes, Chas. H., Conn., '95
 Keyser, Roland S., N. Y., '96
 Keystone Lit. Soc., Pa., '98
 Kiehle, D. L., Minn., '80
 Kilbourne, Effie J., Ill., '95
 Kimmel, M. A., Ohio, '93
 Kincannon, A. A., Miss., '96
 King, Anne H., Ohio, '95
 King, C. B., N. C., '99
 King, F. A., Ohio, '96
 King, Wm. F., Iowa, '84
 Kinney, Burt O., Cal., '99
 Kinsley, M. H., N. J., '92
 Kirk, Alfred, Ill., '99
 Kirk, John R., Mo., '91
 Kirk, T. H., Cal., '99
 Kirk, Thos. J., Cal., '95
 Kirkpatrick, E. A., Mass., '97
 Kleeberger, Geo. R., Minn., '95
 Klock, J. E., N. H., '86
 Kneil, Thos. R., N. Y., '95
 Knepper, Geo. E., Idaho, '98
 Knight, G. L., S. C., 1900
 Knight, Lee R., Ohio, 1900
 Koehler, H. C., Ohio, '99
 Koehler, Mrs. M. R., N. Mex., '99
 Kolbe, Julia C., Ohio, '95
 Kraege, F. G., Wis., '97
 Krall, G. W., Mo., '98
 Kratz, H. E., Iowa, '90
 Kraus-Boeltz, Mrs. M., N. Y., '96
 Krácsy, Bela, Hungary, '93
 Krieger, A. N., Ohio, 1900
 Kroh, Carl J., Ill., '97
 Krohn, Wm. O., Ill., '93
 Kruse, Edwin, B., Del., '91
 Kunout, A. A., Cal., '99
 Kuykendall, C. C., Ky., '98
 Lagomarsino, Cynthia, N. Y., '94
 Laird, Mrs. Ada E., Ohio, '90
 Laird, S. B., Mich., '96
 Lamar, C. P., Wyo., '99
 Lamb, Eli M., Md., '94
 Lamb, Rachel E., Md., '94
 Lambert, Vashti A., Ill., '95
 Lambertson, Mary J., Pa., '92
 Lancaster, E. G., Colo., '99
 Lancaster, G., Wash., '98
 Landers, J. S., Ore., '99
 Landrum, L. M., Ga., '97
 Lane, Albert G., Ill., '84
 Lane, Mrs. F. S., Ill., '94
 Lang, Ossian H., N. Y., '91
 Lange, D., Minn., '99
 Lansinger, J. W., Pa., '98
 Lapey, Louise M., N. Y., '95
 Largent, S. D., Mont., '99
 Larimer, Henry G., Kan., '86
 Lark, F. E., Iowa, '97
 Larkins, Chas. D., N. Y., '95
 Lash, W. D., Ohio, '99
 La Taste, Lucien V., Ala., '94
 Lathrop, Mrs. C. N., Ohio, '93
 Lavers, E. C., Pa., '92
 Lawrence, Isabel, Minn., '94
 Lawrence Univ., Wis., '99
 Laws, Annie, Ohio, '95
 Lawson, Florence, Cal., '97
 Lawton, Chas. E., N. Y., '96
 Layton, S. Herrick, Ohio, '95
 Lazenby, Wm. R., Ohio, '95
 Leach, Cephas H., Ill., '97
 Leavell, Richard M., Miss., '96
 Le Conte, Jos., Cal., '95
 Lee, James, N. Y., '92
 Le Garde, Ellen, R. I., '96
 Lehigh Univ., Pa., '99
 Lehnerts, E. M., Minn., '99
 Leppziger, Henry M., N. Y., '91
 Leiter, Mrs. Frances W., Ohio, '96
 Leland Stanford Jr. Univ., Cal., '97
 Lemon, Anna E., Cal., '98
 Lemon, J. E., Ill., '99
 Lefebvre, B. A., Mass., 1900
 Leonard, Albert, Mich., '91
 Leslie, Miss H. S., N. J., '94
 Leviston, Irwen, Minn., '95
 Lewellen, John O., Ind., '96
 Lewis, Jane M., N. J., '92
 Lewis, J. H., Minn., '99
 Lewis, Leslie, Ill., '95
 Library, Altona Mech., Pa., '99
 Library, Amherst Coll., Mass., '97
 Library, Athenæum, Minn., '98
 Library, Boston, Mass., 1900
 Library, Brockport N. Sch., N. Y., 1900
 Library, Brynson, N. Y., '98
 Library, Buffalo, N. Y., '98
 Library, Carnegie, Pa., '99
 Library, Chicago, Ill., '98
 Library, Cleveland, Ohio, '97
 Library, Detroit, Mich., '97
 Library, Editors', N. Y., '97
 Library, Harris Inst., R. I., '99
 Library, Harvard Coll., '95
 Library, Ind. Univ., Ind., '99
 Library, Jersey City, N. J., '97
 Library, John Crerar, Ill., '97
 Library, Milwaukee, Wis., '98
 Library, M. T. Dept. T. Coll., N. Y., '99
 Library, Newberry, Ill., '98
 Library, N. H. State, '98
 Library, New York, N. Y., '99

- Library, Omaha, Neb., '98
Library, Fed., Supt. of Schs., Pa., 1900
Library, Philadelphia, Pa., '97
Library, Port Jervis, N. Y., '99
Library, Rockford Pub., Ill., '99
Library, San Francisco, Cal., '97
Library, Scoville Inst., Ill., 1900
Library, Scranton, Pa., '99
Library, Springfield, Mass., '98
Library, State, Cal., '99
Library, State Hist. Soc., Wis., '84
Library, State, Ind., '97
Library, State, Mass., '98
Library, State, N. H., '98
Library, Superior N. Sch., Wis., 1900
Library, Syracuse, N. Y., '98
Library, Univ. of Mich., '98
Library, Univ. of Pa., '98
Library, Univ. of Wyo., '97
Library, Worcester, Mass., '98
Light, C. M., N. Mex., '95
Lightbody, Wm., Mich., '96
Limerick, A. N., Kan., '86
Lincoln Univ., Ill., '97
Ling, Chas. J., Colo., '95
Little, Clara L., Colo., '95
Locke, John S., Me., '95
Logan, Anna E., Ohio, '96
Lollar, Ezra E., Ind., '99
Long, J. L., Tex., '96
Long, Paul J., N. C., 1900
Long, R. L., Ariz., '98
Longan, G. B., Mo., '97
Loos, Chas. L., Ohio, '95
Lord, Edward, N. Y., '97
Lord, L. C., Ill., '94
Lord, Orlando M., Me., '97
Lott, H. C., Mich., '97
Lounsbery, Louise A., N. Y., '96
Lovell, Thomas B., N. Y., '96
Low, Seth, N. Y., '95
Lowther, L. A., Kan., '97
Luckey, Edwin D., Mo., '94
Luckey, G. W. A., Neb., '95
Luebke, Emma J., Wis., '97
Lugg, Mary L., Wis., '97
Lukens, Herman T., Pa., '92
Lyman, E. A., Mich., '98
Lynch, Chas. P., Ohio, '94
Lynch, M. M., Va., '98
Lynch, Wm. H., Mo., '95
Lyon, Edmund D., Ohio, '98
Lyon, P. W., N. J., '98
Lyon, W. F., Mich., '97
Lyons, G. K., Ohio, '98
Lyser, Albert, Cal., '98
Lyte, E. Oram, Pa., '91
Lyttle, Eugene W., N. Y., '98
Maas, J. J., Ohio, '99
MacAlister, Jas., Pa., '95
Macdonald, Kate P., N. Y., '95
MacDonald, A. H., Cal., '98
MacDonald, John, Kan., '86
MacDonald, Margaret, Ill., '96
MacGowan, W. L., Pa., '96
Mack, Wm. S., Ill., '95
MacKenzie, David, Mich., '96
Mackey, E., Pa., '89
Mackey, Wm. A., N. Y., '94
McLean, Geo. E., Iowa, '97
Magee, Harriet C., Wis., '97
Magovern, Mary A., N. Y., '96
Maguire, Mrs. S. C., Mo., '97
Maharry, S. H., Ohio, '95
Maitland, Mrs. Louise, N. Y., '98
Malsbary, Alfred E., Ind., '98
Mandeville, Jas. M., Mich., '96
Mankell, Nathalie, N. Y., '96
Mann, Emma, Ark., '98
Manness, S. E., N. J., '92
Marble, A. P., N. Y., '80
Mardis, S. K., Ohio, '95
Mark, Cecil W., Cal., '98
Mark, E. H., Ky., '93
Marlatt, Abby L., R. I., '94
Marquis, J. S., S. C., '98
Marsh, C. O., Wis., '97
Marsh, Miles E., Ky., '98
Marshall, Carl C., Mich., '95
Marshall, T. M., W. Va., '77
Martin, Artemas, D. C., '98
Martin, Geo. H., Mass., '93
Martindale, W. C., Mich., '97
Marvin, Arthur, N. Y., '98
Mason, Lizzie, Mass., '99
Mason, Wm. A., Pa., '98
Mass. Inst. Tech., Mass., 1900
Massee, J. Edman, N. Y., '96
Massey, John, Ala., '94
Mather, I. F., Ind., '97
Mathes, Mrs. Lena B., Fla., 1900
Mathews, Byron C., N. J., '92
Matlock, J. D., Ala., '98
Matthews, A. J., Ariz., '99
Maurer, G. C., Ohio, '95
Maxson, Henry M., N. Y., '92
Maxwell, Wm. H., N. Y., '92
Maycock, Mark M., N. Y., '96
Mayer, Mary H., Pa., 1900
Mayne, D. D., Wis., '94
McArdle, H. W., N. D., '98
McBride, J. K., Tex., '98
McBroom, Geo. O., Ky., '92
McCabe, C. B., Pa., '96
McCahan, John E., Md., '91
McCallie, J. H., Tenn., '97
McCallie, J. M., Ky., '99
McCartney, Livingstone, Ky., '95
McCaslin, E. E., D. C., '98
McClintock, O. P. M., Kan., '94
McClung, J. S., Colo., '95
McClure, S. R., Pa., '96
McClymonds, J. W., Cal., '99
McConathy, W. J., Ky., '96
McConnell, J. J., Iowa, '95
McCord, W. A., Iowa, '95
McCowen, Mary, Ill., '97
McCulloch, Mary C., Mo., '92
McCullough, J. F., Ill., '96
McDaniel, C. M., Ind., '96
McDevitt, Rev. P. R., Pa., 1900
McElroy, E. B., Ore., '95
McFarland, Geo. A., N. D., '95
McGhee, W. Zach, S. C., 1900
McGinnis, Jas., Ky., '93
McGlynn, J. J., Ill., '95
McIntire, W. W., Ohio, '95
McIver, Chas. D., N. C., '96
McKee, J. Millford, N. Y., '95
McKee, Wm. P., Ill., '99
McKenny, Chas., Wis., '97
McKillop, Anna, Ill., '97
McKone, W. J., Mich., '99
McLaughlin, A. L., Ill., '95
McLoughlin, Edw., Ill., '99
McLoughlin, Mrs. Edw., Ill., '99
McMahan, J. J., S. C., '99
McMillan, D. A., Mo., '99
McMillan, J. V., Ohio, '96
McMillan, Mrs. S. S., Ohio, '80
McMurry, Chas. A., Ill., '90
McMurry, F. M., N. Y., '95
McMurry, Mrs. L. B., Ill., '96
McNaughton, Jas., Cal., '95
McNeal, Florence, Mo., '92
McNeill, I. C., Wis., '92
McNelis, N. P., Pa., '97
McRae, O. F., Ga., 1900
McVicar, Peter, Kan., '86
Mehan, J. M., Iowa, '92
Meland, E. C., Wis., '97
Melency, C. E., N. Y., '96
Mercer Univ. Lib'y, Ga., '99
Merica, C. O., Wis., '97
Merica, F. M., Ind., '97
Merrick, H. V., Ohio, '98
Merrifield, Webster, N. D., '95
Merrill, Chas. E., N. Y., '94
Merrill, Edwin C., N. J., '96
Merrill, Geo. A., Cal., 1900
Merrill, Harriet B., Wis., '96
Merrill, J. A., Wis., '97
Merrill, Jenny B., N. Y., '93
Merrill, J. T., Iowa, '93
Mertz, Henry N., Ohio, '95
Mervin, J. B., Mo., '71
Merz, Henry, Wyo., '95
Meserve, Alonzo, Mass., '95
Meskimous, J. R., Ariz., '99
Metcalf, Robert C., Mass., '92
Meyer, F. H., Cal., '99
Mezer, Robt., N. J., '95
Miami University, Ohio, '95
Michener, J. H., Pa., '98
Mickle, Robt. A., Ala., '95
Middleton, A., Ill., '99
Midland Coll., Kan., '99
Miles, Emily H., Colo., '98
Miller, C. C., Ohio, '92
Miller, Chas. M., Cal., '99
Miller, Geo. I., Iowa, '96
Miller, G. R., N. Y., '96
Miller, J. H., Wash., '86
Miller, John C., Minn., '98
Miller, Kelly, D. C., '98
Miller, Lewis, Ohio, '80
Miller, Lucia M., Minn., '94
Miller, O. L., Ill., '96
Miller, R. E., Tex., '98
Miller, W. C., W. Va., 1900
Milligan, Sarah J., Mo., '97
Millis, Wm. A., Ind., '96
Mills, Leida H., Kan., '95
Mills, T. B., Wis., '97
Millsbaugh, J. F., Minn., '95
Milne, John M., N. Y., '91
Milne, Wm. J., N. Y., '92
Milwaukee Pub. Lib'y, Wis., '98
Minneapolis Athenæum, Minn., '98
Mitchell, B. W., Pa., '99
Mitchell, Clara J., Ind., '98
Mitchell, Mary E., Ark., '98
Mitchell, M. S., Kan., '95
Mitchell, R. W., Ohio, 1900
Moldstad, John A., Wis., '97
Monlux, J. B., Cal., '95
Monroe, E. S., Ind., '97
Monroe, Will S., Mass., '88
Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., Ky., '77
Montague, A. P., S. C., '99
Montana State Coll., Mont., '99
Monteser, Fred., N. Y., '94
Montfort, R. V. K., N. Y., '92
Montgomery, Dora, Ill., '97
Montgomery, H. C., Ind., '97
Montgomery, W. S., D. C., '98
Montrose, Otis, N. Y., '96
Mood, F. A., Tex., 1900
Moon, A. W., N. J., '89
Moon, Kate E., Ala., '95
Moon, Schuyler B., Md., '98
Moore, B. F., Ind., '96
Moore, Dora M., Colo., '95
Moore, E. C., Cal., '99
Moore, John A., H. I., '99
Moore, Montgomery, Ill., '97
Moore, Carrie E., Ohio, '95
Morgan, J. H., Wash., '99
Morgan, R. T., Ill., '97
Morris, Harriet N., Cal., '82
Morris, John, Ky., '96
Morrison, Andrew J., Pa., '81
Morrison, G. B., Mo., '99
Morrison, Rose, Ohio, '97
Morse, Frank L., Ill., '97
Morss, Chas. H., Mass., '95
Morton, Frank, Cal., '99
Mosher, E. H., Cal., '99
Mott, T. A., Ind., '96
Mower, F. O., Cal., '99
Mowry, Wm. A., Mass., '86
Mullford, A. Isabel, Mo., '96
Mumma, H. W., Ohio, 1900
Munroe, Jas. P., Mass., '95
Murdough, E. D., Okla., '98
Murdoch, F. F., Mass., '98
Murlin, L. H., Kan., '95
Murphy, Eugene, Pa., '98
Murphy, Geo. T., Mo., '91
Murphy, Maggie, Ark., '98
Murray, Anna, Ill., '98
Murray, May E., Mass., '99

- Murray, Wm. S., N. Y., '98
 Murrey, T. F., Ark., '98
 Myers, Will A., Ind., '97
 Myrick, H., Mass., '98
 Nafit, J. H., Kan., '99
 Nagel, J. J., Iowa, '95
 Nageler, J. G., Wis., '97
 Nash, Louis, P., Mass., '99
 Ne Collins, J. E., Mich., '99
 Needham, Milton J., Ariz., 1900
 Needham, O., Wis., '97
 Nelson, B. E., Ill., '99
 Nelson, E. B., N. Y., '98
 Nelson, Frank, Kan., '99
 Nelson, Kate S., Wis., '96
 Newberry Lib'y, Ill., '98
 Newell, Miss C. S., Kan., '95
 New Hampshire State Lib'y, '98
 Newkirk, C. F., Ill., '98
 Newman, Emma A., N. Y., 1900
 Newson, H. D., N. Y., '95
 New Whatcom State Nor. Sch., Wash., 1900
 New York Pub. Lib'y, '99
 Nichols, Chas. E., N. Y., '99
 Nichols, Fred R., Ill., '93
 Nicholson, Mary E., Ind., '85
 Nicholson, Watson, Cal., '99
 Nielsen, Carl H., Cal., '98
 Nightingale, A. F., Ill., '86
 Noel, Alex H., Mo., '97
 Noetling, Wm., Pa., '98
 Nolen, A. Eugene, Mass., '91
 N. St. Nor. Sch., Mich., '99
 Nor. Sch., Dayton, O., '98
 N. Dak. Ed. Assoc., '96
 N. Ill. St. Nor. Sch., '99
 N. Ind. Nor. Sch. Lib'y, '97
 Norton, A. W., S. D., '93
 Norton, R. C., Mo., '95
 Norville, Josephine, Mo., '95
 Noss, Theo. B., Pa., '96
 Noyes, Milton, N. Y., '98
 Nussbaum, Sophie F. E., D. C., '84
 Nye, Chas. H., Wis., '84
 Nykirk, John B., Mich., '92
 O'Brien, Mrs. Agnes, N. Y., '91
 O'Callaghan, W. F., N. Y., '94
 O'Connor, D. C., Neb., '94
 O'Connor, Joseph, Cal., '88
 Ogg, R. A., Ind., '97
 Ogren, John, S. C., 1900
 O'Hanlon, R. J., Wis., '97
 Ohio State Univ., '97
 O'Keefe, Mrs. S. J., Ill., '96
 Olds, Mary L., Minn., '94
 Oldt, F. T., Iowa, '96
 O'Leary, Kate S., Ill., '95
 Olin, Arvin S., Kan., '90
 Olmstead, Emma G., Pa., '96
 Omaha Pub. Lib'y, Neb., '98
 Ormsby, F. B., Ill., '96
 Orr, Fred J., Ga., 1900
 Orr, J. D., Kan., '91
 Osborne, A. E., Cal., '98
 Osgood, Anna M., Ohio, '90
 O'Shea, M. V., Wis., '92
 Owen, Hugh A., N. Mex., '97
 Owen, Lincoln, Mass., '96
 Owen, W. B., Ill., '96
 Owens, C. J., S. C., 1900
 Paessler, V. S., N. Y., '98
 Page, Edw. A., N. Y., '99
 Page, R. S., Ill., '96
 Palmer, A. N., Iowa, '96
 Palmer, Chas. S., Colo., '95
 Palmer, E. D., Mich., '94
 Palmer, E. W., Colo., '99
 Palmer, Francis B., N. Y., '90
 Parker, Alice N., D. C., '98
 Parker, Chas. I., Ill., '87
 Parker, Chas. V., Colo., '87
 Parker, C. M., Ill., '95
 Parker, Francis W., Ill., '80
 Parker, Henry M., Ohio, '95
 Parker, J. W., Ark., '99
 Parker, M. M., Ariz., '99
 Parker, W. D., Wis., '84
 Parker, W. S., Mass., '96
 Parkinson, D. B., Ill., '97
 Parkinson, John B., Wis., '84
 Parmenter, Chas. W., Mass., '95
 Parrish, Celestia S., Va., '97
 Parsons, H. S., Tex., '95
 Passmore, John A. M., Pa., '92
 Patten, Frank C., Mont., '97
 Pattengill, Henry R., Mich., '92
 Patton, Cassia, Alaska, '95
 Patton, Chas. L., N. Y., '86
 Patzer, C. E., Wis., '99
 Payne, Bertha, Ill., '96
 Payne, W. C., Ill., '96
 Payne, Wm. H., Tenn., '92
 Payne, Wm. R., Tenn., '98
 Peacher, A. L., Ark., '96
 Peacock, Mary C., Pa., '98
 Peairs, H. B., Kan., '97
 Peak, Chas. N., Ind., '96
 Pearce, C. G., Neb., '91
 Pearson, Henry, Ga., '98
 Pearson, H. C., Pa., '99
 Pearson, Juliet, N. Y., '99
 Pearson, T. G., N. C., 1900
 Pease, Alvin F., Mass., '91
 Pease, N. W., N. J., '94
 Peaslee, John B., Ohio, '80
 Peck, A. L., N. Y., '97
 Ped. Lib'y, S. of Schs., Pa., 1900
 Pennell, Calvin S., Minn., '64
 Penniman, J. H., Pa., '99
 Penn. State Coll., Pa., 1900
 Pennypacker, J. L., Pa., 1900
 Peres, I. H., Tenn., 1900
 Perkins Institution, Mass., '97
 Perrine, Lura L., N. D., '95
 Perry, Elizabeth H., Mass., '91
 Perry, Wm. H., Ky., '98
 Peterson, J. P., Wis., '97
 Pfeiffer, J. W., Ohio, '95
 Phelan, W. W., D. C., '98
 Phelps, Wm. F., Minn., '70
 Philadelphian Soc., Wis., '84
 Philbrook, C. F., Ill., '95
 Phillips, Geo. M., Pa., '79
 Phillips, H. S., Colo., '99
 Phillips, Hattie A., Iowa, '96
 Phillips, J. H., Ala., '88
 Philomathean Lit. Soc., Pa., '98
 Pickard, Josiah L., Me., '86
 Pickrell, Percy, Ill., '99
 Pierce, Edw. T., Cal., '89
 Pierce, Mrs. Ella M., R. I., '96
 Pierce, Lovick, D. C., '98
 Pierce, Mary R., Ill., '97
 Pigg, G. L., S. D., '99
 Pike, Joshua, Ill., '91
 Pinkerton, T. B., Ohio, '99
 Pippin, Mrs. E. E., Md., 1900
 Pitman, J. A., Mass., '99
 Place, Mrs. C. L., Cal., '96
 Plapp, F. W., Ill., '97
 Plimpton, Geo. A., N. Y., '94
 Plumer, Geo. M., Ohio, '96
 Poland, A. B., N. J., '92
 Pollock, Jessie, Ark., '98
 Pollock, Rosalie, N. D., '97
 Pollock, Susan P., D. C., '94
 Pomona Coll., Cal., '99
 Porter, E. A. F., Ohio, '99
 Port Jervis F. Lib'y, N. Y., '99
 Posse, Baroness Rose, Mass., '95
 Potter, Jennie, N. Mex., '99
 Powell, W. B., D. C., '92
 Powell, W. F., D. C., '89
 Power, Gussie, N. Y., '87
 Powers, Jas. K., Ala., '95
 Pratt, R. H., Pa., '98
 Pray, Mabel L., Ohio, '97
 Pray, T. B., Wis., '94
 Preece, Mrs. Louise, Minn., '94
 Prentiss, H. W., Mo., '97
 Preston, J. R., Miss., '90
 Pretzmann, E. B., Md., '92
 Price, S. C., Mich., '99
 Prichard, E. H., Ohio, '95
 Prichard, Margaret S., Pa., '98
 Prillerman, Byrd, W. Va., '91
 Prince, John T., Mass., '91
 Pringle, W. J., Ill., '96
 Pritchard, M. T., Mass., '96
 Pritchett Coll., Mo., 1900
 Pritchett, H. C., Tex., '92
 Proudfoot, Mrs. A. H., Ill., '97
 Pub. Lib'y, Boston, Mass., 1900
 Pub. Lib'y, Detroit, Mich., '97
 Pub. Lib'y, Jersey City, N. J., '97
 Pub. Lib'y, New York, N. Y., '90
 Pub. Lib'y, Philadelphia, Pa., '99
 Pub. Lib'y, Rockford, Ill., '99
 Pub. Lib'y, S. Francisco, Cal., '99
 Pub. Lib'y, Worcester, Mass., '98
 Pub. Sch. Teachers, Wis., '84
 Pugh, Jas. H., Ill., '98
 Pulsifer, Wm. E., N. Y., '99
 Purer, Mary L., Ill., '96
 Putnam, Mrs. Alice H., Ill., '93
 Raab, Henry, Ill., '84
 Race, S. J., Minn., '95
 Rakestraw, Chas. D., D. C., '99
 Ralston, Jas. M., N. J., '92
 Ramsay, Chas. C., Mass., '93
 Ramsey, Geo. J., Va., '89
 Randall, J. E., Ohio, '98
 Ranger, W. E., Vt., '99
 Rankin, A. W., Minn., '93
 Ransom, Frances E., N. Y., '99
 Rapp, Christian F., Ohio, '99
 Rapp, El M., Pa., '97
 Raschig, H. H., Ohio, '93
 Raub, A. B., Del., '92
 Rawson, E. B., N. Y., '99
 Rayman, R. E., Ohio, '95
 Raymond, A. V. V., N. Y., '95
 Raymond, J. H., W. Va., '99
 Read, J. I., Neb., '98
 Redman, Elmer S., N. Y., 1900
 Reed, A. A., Iowa, '95
 Reeder, W. C., Ohio, '98
 Reel, Estelle D., C., '94
 Rees, Minnie E., Cal., '99
 Reese, Mrs. May, Cal., '99
 Reeves, C. F., Wash., '96
 Reid, E. Emmet, S. C., 1900
 Reid, Jas., Mont., '95
 Reigart, J. F., N. Y., '99
 Reiley, Cynthia E., Mont., '95
 Reinhart, J. Albert, N. Y., '94
 Remington, L. D., Mich., '96
 Rennick, Louise D., Ill., '97
 Rennie, Robt. H., Ill., '97
 Requa, M. Augusta, N. Y., '99
 Ressler, Edwin D., Ore., '92
 Reveley, Ellen, G., Ohio, '91
 Reynolds, Chas. B., Mo., '95
 Reynolds, J. H., Ark., '97
 Rhoads, McHenry, Ky., '91
 Rhode Island Nor. Sch., '97
 Rice, Emily A., N. J., '92
 Rice, Gratia L., N. Y., '89
 Rice, J. M., N. Y., '95
 Rice, Wm. N., Conn., '99
 Richards, C. R., N. Y., '98
 Richards, Mrs. E. H., Mass., '98
 Richeson, J., Ill., '97
 Richmond, Sarah E., Md., '76
 Riddle, W. Pa., '96
 Ridge, J. C., Ohio, '97
 Ridgeway, Wm. C., Mo., '98
 Rieman, John F., Ind., '98
 Rightsell, J. R., Ark., '98
 Rigler, Frank, Ore., '98
 Riley Co. Ed. Asso., Kan., '85
 Riley, Mrs. M. E., Mo., '90
 Riste, Ernest, Wash., '99
 Riste, W. G., Kan., '97
 Rivers, W. W., Ark., '95
 Roach, T. W., Kan., '86
 Robbins, C. W., Mo., '92
 Robbins, Geo. A., Ill., '97
 Roberts, Jas. A., Ohio, '82
 Roberts, Dimon, H. Mich., '98
 Roberts, Edw. D., Ohio, 1900
 Roberts, Flora, Ind., '96
 Roberts, Hester A., N. Y., '94

- Roberts, H. L., Ill., '97
 Roberts, L. D., Wis., '97
 Roberts, Wm. E., Ohio, '98
 Robertson, J. L., Ill., '97
 Robertson, P. W., D. C., '96
 Robinson, Albert R., Ill., '95
 Robinson, Lucy, W. Va., '95
 Robinson, Oscar D., N. Y., '92
 Robinson, W. S., Ohio, '95
 Rocheleau, W. F., Ill., '96
 Rogers, A. C., Minn., '99
 Rogers, Dora B., N. C., '96
 Rogers, Howard J., N. Y., '96
 Rogers, J. N., Ga., '97
 Rogers, Josephine E., N. Y., '93
 Rogers, Rovillus R., N. Y., '95
 Roller, F. J., Ohio, '98
 Roof, F. M., Ala., '92
 Roof, C. Y., Cal., '86
 Rose, Geo. E., Kan., '86
 Rose, S. L., Ohio, '96
 Ross, M. M., Tenn., '99
 Ross, Pete W., Minn., '99
 Rosseter, E. C., Ill., 1900
 Roth, Anna C., Ky., '97
 Rothe, Ella A., Ohio, 1900
 Rounds, Chas. C., N. Y., '76
 Row, R. K., Ill., '99
 Rowe, Alex. M., Minn., '94
 Rowe, H. M., Md., '96
 Rowe, Mary E., Ind., '95
 Rowe, Stuart H., Conn., '98
 Rowe, W. S., Ind., '95
 Rowland, J. H., Ohio, '96
 Rudolph, Ida, Ky., '96
 Russell, Jas. E., N. Y., '95
 Russell, W. S., Ill., '98
 Ryan, Geo. G., N. Y., '94
 Ryan, Mary E., Mont., '99
 Ryan, C. M., N. Y., '96
 Sabin, Albert R., Ill., '84
 Sabin, Ellen C., Wis., '95
 Sabin, Henry, Iowa, '89
 Sage, A. H., Wis., '96
 Sage, W. V., Mich., '96
 Sale, A. R., Iowa, '97
 Salisbury, Albert, Wis., '87
 Samuel, Wm. H., Pa., '93
 Sanders, D. E., Mont., '95
 Sanders, F. W., N. Mex., '97
 Sandison, Howard, Ind., '96
 Sanford, Fernando, Cal., '97
 Sanford, Henry R., N. Y., '95
 Sanor, S. D., Ohio, '93
 Sargent, Dudley A., Mass., '96
 Sargent, Elisa A., Mass., '96
 Sarver, J. M., Ohio, '98
 Savitz, J. J., N. J., '99
 Sawhill, Thos. A., Kan., '86
 Sawvel, Franklin B., Pa., '94
 Sawyer, C. L., Minn., '97
 Saylor, J. F., Wash., '96
 Scarlett, Augustus, N. J., '91
 Schaeffer, Nathan C., Pa., '87
 Schaffler, Alfred T., N. Y., '95
 Schiller, J. D., Mich., '96
 Schmidt, F. A., N. Y., '96
 Schmucker, S. C., Pa., '92
 Schneider, Henry G., N. Y., '95
 Schobering, J. J., Ill., '99
 Schofield, Martha, S. C., '91
 Schofield, Bessie M., R. I., '96
 Sch. of Ped., N. Y. Univ., N. Y., '99
 Schreiber, Mae E., Wis., '96
 Schryver, Anna A., N. Y., '96
 Schurman, J. G., N. Y., '96
 Schuyler, Aaron, Kan., '86
 Schuyler, E. H., N. J., '94
 Scofield, Bertha, N. D., '97
 Scotia Seminary, N. C., '99
 Scott, Chas. B., P. R., '90
 Scott, Edith A., Minn., '99
 Scott, E. H., Ill., '95
 Scott, F. N., Mich., '99
 Scott, Harriet M., Mich., '96
 Scott, Izora, Colo., '97
 Scott, J. B., Ill., '99
 Scott, Jas. W., Colo., '93
 Scott, O. C., Ill., '95
 Scott, W. H., Ohio, '93
 Scovel, Sylvester F., Ohio, '97
 Scoville Institute, Ill., 1900
 Scranton Pub. Lib'y, Pa., '99
 Scudder, Myron T., N. Y., '95
 Scull, Jas. F., Ind., '95
 Seaman, W. W., Cal., '99
 Searle, F. E., Mich., '99
 Searle, Miss S. M., N. J., '93
 Seaver, Edwin P., Mass., '93
 Sedgwick, Wm. T., Mass., '99
 Seeley, Levi, N. J., '90
 Seerley, H. H., Iowa, '89
 Selleck, W. F. F., Minn., '98
 Sexton, E. K., N. J., '97
 Seymour, R. B., Ill., 1900
 Shanahan, Rev. J. W., Pa., '95
 Sharkey, J. P., Ohio, '90
 Shaw, A. L., Neb., '97
 Shaw, Edw. R., N. Y., '93
 Shaw, Sam., Wis., '84
 Shawan, J. A., Ohio, '94
 Shear, S. R., N. Y., '95
 Shearer, W. J., N. J., '95
 Shearer, W. S., Iowa, '97
 Sheats, W. N., Fla., '93
 Sheber, Cora, Ark., '98
 Sheldon, Geo. M., Cal., '99
 Shelton, F. M., Ohio, '99
 Shepard, Elmer I., Minn., 1900
 Shepard, Geo. C., Va., '97
 Shepard, Irwin, Minn., '83
 Sheppard, L. W., Ohio, '98
 Sherwood, Mrs. J. C., Cal., '99
 Shippen, Edw., Pa., '79
 Shirk, David F., Kan., '95
 Shives, Julia, Ark., '98
 Shoemaker, W. A., Minn., '95
 Shorkley, Mrs. H. B., Cal., '99
 Showers, F. F., Wis., '99
 Shrieves, Emma W., Wis., '96
 Shull, U. P., Cal., '99
 Shumaker, F. P., Ohio, '99
 Shuts, Geo. C., Wis., '96
 Sibley, Chas. A., Mass., '95
 Siefert, H. O. R., Wis., '95
 Silke, Lucy S., Ill., '93
 Silver, Edgar O., N. Y., '94
 Silver, Elmer E., Ill., '99
 Simerwell, E. A., Kan., '95
 Simonds, H. A., Wis., '95
 Simmons, J. W., Wis., '99
 Sims, J. F., Wis., '97
 Sinclair, S. B., Can., '91
 Singer, Edgar A., Pa., '80
 Sisson, E. O., Ill., '97
 Skidmore, Sydney T., Pa., '95
 Skinner, Chas. R., N. Y., '90
 Skinner, Elizabeth, Colo., '99
 Skinner, Wm. C., Mich., '95
 Slack, H. W., Minn., '97
 Slaton, W. F., Ga., '97
 Slaton, W. M., Ga., '94
 Slauson, H. M., Mich., '94
 Sloan, Lucy A., Mich., 1900
 Sloane, Clyde, Ill., '98
 Smalley, D. H., Ill., '99
 Smallwood, Mabel E., Ill., '96
 Smedley, Eva A., Ill., '97
 Smiley, Elmer E., Wyo., 1900
 Smiley, Wm. H., Colo., '92
 Smith, Alex., Ill., '99
 Smith, Arthur P., Mass., '90
 Smith, A. Thos., Pa., '93
 Smith, Anna T., D. C., '95
 Smith, Mrs. C. B., Ill., '98
 Smith, E. E., Ill., '96
 Smith, E. R., Ill., '97
 Smith, Euler, B., Ga., '87
 Smith, F. P., Kan., '97
 Smith, Geo. M., S. D., '95
 Smith, Geo. W., Ill., '99
 Smith, Harriet E., Wis., '97
 Smith, Henry B., Colo., '99
 Smith, H. J., N. Y., '95
 Smith, Irving B., N. Y., '99
 Smith, J. E., Tex., '99
 Smith, J. F., Iowa, '97
 Smith, J. F., Ohio, '98
 Smith, J. Mace, N. Y., '95
 Smith, Jos. R., Pa., '99
 Smith, M. B., Mass., '99
 Smith, Sidney F., Colo., '95
 Smith, Wm. G., Minn., '95
 Smith College, Mass., '98
 Smyth, W. S., Ill., '95
 Snedden, D. S., N. Y., '99
 Snow, Bonnie E., Minn., '96
 Snow, Francis H., Kan., '93
 Snow, Mary S., Me., '98
 Snyder, A. J., Ill., '97
 Snyder, Henry, N. J., '94
 Snyder, Jessie M., Ga., '97
 Snyder, J. H., Ohio, '96
 Snyder, J. L., Mich., '89
 Snyder, Lydia E., Ill., '95
 Snyder, W. R., Ind., '95
 Snyder, Z. X., Colo., '87
 Snyder, Mrs. Z. X., Colo., '96
 Soldan, F. Louis, Mo., '77
 Sollitt, Alice E., Ill., '93
 Soule, Geo., La., '92
 S. Dak. Agri. Coll., S. D., '99
 S. Ill. Nor. Univ., Ill., '99
 Southall, J. W., Va., '98
 Spangler, H. T., Pa., '94
 Spaulding, F. E., N. J., '96
 Spaulding, Randall, N. J., '92
 Spaulhurst, J. F., Ind., 1900
 Spayd, H. H., Pa., '92
 Speer, W. W., Ill., '96
 Spencer, Catherine, Mo., '97
 Spencer, Pauline W., Pa., '93
 Spencer, Robt. C., Wis., '84
 Spencer, Mrs. Sara A., D. C., '92
 Spero, Mrs. Anna K., Cal., '77
 Spiegle, Grace E., Pa., 1900
 Spindler, J. W., Kan., '99
 Springer, Durand W., Mich., '94
 Squire, Mary V., N. Y., '96
 Stableton, J. K., Ill., 1900
 Stanley, Edmund, Kan., '86
 Staples, Helen F., Minn., '96
 Stapleton, M. A. C., Mont., '99
 Stark, Joshua, Wis., '84
 Starke, N. C., Va., '99
 St. F. N. Sch., Farmville, Va., '99
 State Agri. Coll., Kan., '97
 St. Historical Soc., Wis., '84
 State Library, Cal., '99
 State Library, Mass., '98
 St. N. and Ind. Coll., N. C., '98
 St. N. Sch., Brockport, N. Y., 1900
 St. N. Sch., California, Pa., '97
 St. N. Sch., Carbondale, Ill., '99
 St. N. Sch., Cedar Falls, Iowa, '97
 St. N. Sch., Charleston, Ill., '99
 St. N. Sch., Chico, Cal., '97
 St. N. Sch., De Kalb, Ill., '99
 St. N. Sch., Ellensburg, Wash., '97
 St. N. Sch., Farmville, Va., '99
 St. N. Sch., Fitchburg, Mass., '98
 St. N. Sch., Greeley, Colo., '97
 St. N. Sch., Indiana, Pa., '99
 St. N. Sch., Jacksonville, Ala., '99
 St. N. Sch., Los Angeles, Cal., '97
 St. N. Sch., Mankato, Minn., '99
 St. N. Sch., Mansfield, Pa., '97
 St. N. Sch., Marquette, Mich., '99
 St. N. Sch., Moorhead, Minn., '97
 St. N. Sch., New Paltz, N. Y., '99
 St. Nor. Sch., New Whatcom, Wash., 1900
 St. N. Sch., Normal, Ill., '98
 St. N. Sch., Oshkosh, Wis., '98
 St. N. Sch., Platteville, Wis., '84
 St. N. Sch., Providence, R. I., '97
 St. N. Sch., San José, Cal., '98
 St. N. Sch., St. Cloud, Minn., '97
 St. N. Sch., Superior, Wis., 1900
 St. N. Sch., Terre Haute, Ind., '97
 St. N. Sch., Trenton, N. J., '97
 St. N. Sch., Westfield, Mass., '97
 St. N. Sch., Whitewater, Wis., '98

- St. N. Sch., Winona, Minn., '97
St. Teachers' Asso. of Ill., '90
 St. Univ. Lib'y, Iowa, '97
 St. Univ. Lib'y, Ohio, '97
Stearns, J. W., Wis., '84
 Steele, Wm. L., Ill., '90
 Steen, J. M., Tenn., 1900
 Steere, E. A., Mont., '96
 Stehman, J. H., Ill., '97
 Stein, F. W., Cal., '99
 Stephens, H. Morse, N. Y., '96
 Stephens, M. Bates, Md., 1900
 Stephenson, Lillie S., Ill., '95
Stern, Menno, N. Y., '82
 Stetson, W. W., Me., '95
 Stevens, Edw. L., N. Y., '99
Stevens, Moses C., Ind., '76
 Stevens, Plowden, Jr., N. Y., '95
 Stevenson, A. L., Ill., '97
 Stevenson, Wm. C., Md., '90
Stewart, I. N., Wis., '84
 Stewart, John A., Mich., '84
 Stewart, Jos. S., Ga., '95
 Stewart, N. Coe, Ohio, '92
Stewart, Sarah A., N. Y., '84
 Stickney, Lucia, Ohio, '93
 Stigall, Oliver, Mo., '93
 Stillwell, J. S., Ark., 1900
 Stitt, E. W., N. Y., '96
 Stockwell, Mrs. H. H., N. D., '94
 Stockwell, Thos. B., R. I., '91
 Stockwell, Walter L., N. D., '94
 Stokes, A. L., S. C., 1900
 Stokes, Horace A., Ohio, '95
 Stokes, Susan G., Utah, '99
 Stone, Mason S., Vt., '94
 Stone, W. W., Cal., '99
 Stoneroad, Rebecca D., D. C., '96
 Storm, A. V., Iowa, '94
 Stout, Geo. H., Pa., '84
 Stout, Isaac H., N. Y., '90
 Stout, J. D., Iowa, '98
 Stovall, Anna M., Cal., '99
 Stowell, Thos. B., N. Y., '91
 Strachan, Alex., S. D., '97
Stratton, C. C., Ore., '88
 Stratton, F. E., Minn., '86
 Straubennüller, G., N. Y., '97
 Strine, J. H., Cal., '99
 Stroeter, E. H., Mo., '90
 Strong, Edwin A., Mich., '92
 Strong, Jas. W., Minn., '95
 Struthers, Hester C., N. C., '98
 Stuart, Giles A., Conn., '99
 Stubbs, J. E., Nev., '95
 Study, J. N., Ind., '97
 Stuver, E., Colo., '95
Sudborough, Mrs. G., Neb., '80
 Summers, Alex., D. C., '98
 Super, Chas. W., Ohio, '91
 Superior State Nor. Sch. Library, 1900
 Suplee, Etta, Iowa, '95
 Suplee, Fannie, Iowa, '95
Supl. and Prin. Asso., Wis., '84
 Suter, Anna, Ind., '90
 Suter, Miss H. A., La., '94
 Sutherland, Marg. W., Ohio, '95
 Sutton, W. S., Tex., '95
 Suydam, V. A., Wis., '99
 Swain, Jos., Ind., '93
 Swan, Lizzie P., Wis., '97
 Swanger, F. A., Cal., '99
 Swart, Rose C., Wis., '95
 Swartz, Jno. W., Ohio, '99
 Swett, John, Cal., '99
 Swingle, W. M., N. J., '98
 Syracuse Cent. Lib., N. Y., '98
 Tadd, J. Liberty, Pa., '95
 Taggart, R. B., Tenn., 1900
 Tait, Elizabeth S., Pa., '98
 Talbot, Henry, Ill., '92
 Tapley, Wm. W., Mass., '92
 Tappan, David S., Ohio, '99
 Tarbell, Horace S., R. I., '91
 Tarr, Ralph S., N. Y., '99
 Tate, W. K., S. C., '99
 Taubman, Kate, S. D., '94
 Tawney, Guy A., Wis., '98
Taylor, A. R., Kan., '86
 Taylor, Edw., Ky., '96
Taylor, Henry J., Iowa, '84
 Taylor, Jos. S., N. Y., '94
Tchs' Asso., Cowley Co., Kan., '86
Tchs' Asso., Riley Co., Kan., '86
Teachers' Association, Wis., '84
 Teachers Coll., Dept. Man. Tr., N. Y., '99
Tchs' Inst., Phila., Pa., '79
 Templeton, J. C., Cal., '94
 Terrel, Harriet E., Ohio, '96
 Terrell, Robert H., D. C., '98
 Thames, W. I., Miss., '97
 Tharpe, F. D., Mo., '91
 Thatcher, Jas. L., Wis., '96
 Thayer, Ada F., N. Y., '96
 Theilman, Louis, Mo., '95
 Thiry, J. H., N. Y., '97
 Thomas, Blanche T., Ariz., '98
 Thomas, D. W., Ind., '96
 Thomas, Emma A., Mich., '96
 Thomas, Isaac, Vt., '99
 Thomas, Mrs. Lyde P., Tenn., 1900
 Thomas, W. Scott, Cal., '99
 Thompson, D. M., N. C., '98
 Thompson, E. C., Mich., '94
 Thompson, Fannie E., Ohio, '99
 Thompson, H. E., Okla., '95
 Thompson, John G., Mass., '95
Thompson, L. S., N. J., '76
 Thompson, O. D., Mich., '96
 Thompson, T. E., Mass., '97
 Thompson, Wm. O., Ohio, '94
 Thompson, Frank D., Ill., '95
 Thorndyke, E. L., N. Y., '98
 Thorson, I. A., Minn., '98
 Thudium, C. C., Mo., '98
 Thurber, Chas. H., Mass., '93
 Thwaitt, Hiram H., Ga., 1900
 Thwing, Chas. F., Ohio, '95
 Tibbets, Anna, Neb., '94
 Tibbets, A. C., Minn., '95
 Tighe, R. J., N. C., 1900
Tillotson, D. C., Kan., '86
 Tilton, Chas. S., Wash., '99
 Tinker, B. W., Conn., '97
 Todd, Emma J., Ill., '97
 Todd, Samuel B., Wis., '95
 Tolman, Henry L., Ill., '97
 Tompkins, A., Ill., '96
 Tormey, J. A., Minn., '97
 Tower, Belle M., Mich., '97
 Towne, Geo. L., Neb., 1900
 Townsend, H. S., H. I., '99
 Townsend, J. A., Ill., '99
 Tracy, Frank N., Ill., '96
 Trant, Amelia Earle, N. Y., '96
 Trask, H. M., Pa., '95
 Travell, Ira W., N. J., '97
 Tressler, A. W., Wis., '92
 Treudley, F., Ohio, '91
 Trotter, J. R., W. Va., '97
 Trowbridge, G. S., Cal., '99
 Tual. Acad. Pacif. Univ., Ore., '99
 Turner, Alfred, Mass., '95
 Turner, C. W., Neb., '99
 Turner, F. L., Ill., 1900
 Turner, J. E., Ill., '95
 Turner, J. M., Wis., '97
 Turner, Marie L., Mo., '95
 Tuttle, Albert H., Va., '96
 Tuttle, Wm. L., N. Y., '99
 Tutwiler, Julia S., Ala., '82
 Twitchell, Hattie, Mass., '95
Twining, Nathan C., Cal., '84
 Twiss, Geo. R., Ohio, '94
 Tynan, T. T., Wyo., '99
 Underhill, Volney, Ill., '93
 University, Atlanta, Ga., '95
 University, Columbia, N. Y., '95
 University, Cornell, N. Y., '96
 University, Harvard, Mass., '95
 University, J. B. Stetson, Fla., '99
 University, Johns Hopkins, Md., '99
 University, Lawrence, Wis., '99
 University, Lehigh, Pa., '99
 University, Leland Stanford Jr., Cal., '97
 University, Lincoln, Ill., '97
 University, Mercer, Ga., '99
 University, Miami, Ohio, '95
 University, S. Ill. Nor., '99
 University, West Virginia, '99
 University of California, '95
 University of Chicago, Ill., '99
 University of Georgia, '99
 University of Illinois, '99
 University of Indiana, '99
 University of Iowa, '97
 University of Michigan, '98
 University of Missouri, '95
 University of Nebraska, '98
 University of N. Carolina, '99
 University of N. Dakota, '99
 University of Ohio, '97
 University of Oklahoma, '99
 University of Omaha, Neb., '97
 University of Pennsylvania, '98
University of State of N. Y., '93
 University of Texas, '98
 University of Utah, '95
 University of Washington, '98
 University of Wyoming, '97
 Updegraff, H., N. Y., '99
 Upton, R. R., Ohio, '98
 Vail, Henry H., N. Y., '97
 Vaile, E. O., Ill., '95
 Valparaiso Coll., Ind., '97
Van Aken, Mrs. G., N. Y., '84
 Vance, Sophie, Ohio, '90
 Van Cleve, C. L., Ohio, '96
 Van Cleve, Edw. M., Ohio, '97
 Vandyke, J. A., Minn., '96
 Van Liew, Chas. C., Cal., '94
 Van Petten, E. M., Ill., '99
 Van Rensselaer, Martha, N. Y., '94
 Van Sickle, Jas. H., Md., '92
 Van Tassel, I. N., Ohio, '98
 Van Winkle, J. D., Ark., 1900
 Vassar College, N. Y., '98
 Veatch, Nathan T., Ill., '95
 Vert, Edmund J., S. D., '95
Viebahn, Chas. F., Wis., '84
 Virtue, G. O., Minn., '98
 Vogel, Wm. H., Ohio, 1900
 Volland, A. J., Mich., '97
 Voorhis, Geo. H., N. J., '93
 Washab College, Ind., '95
 Wade, Margaret I., N. J., '94
 Wagner, Harr, Cal., '99
 Wagner, W. H., Neb., '99
 Wakeman, J. W., N. J., '92
 Waldo, Eveline A., La., '97
 Walke, Matilda L., Ohio, '92
 Walker, B. M., Miss., '99
 Walker, E. W., Wis., '97
 Walker, H. A., S. C., 1900
 Walker, J. W., Ind., '99
 Walker, M. Edna, Cal., '99
 Walker, P. R., Ill., '90
 Walker, R. E., Ill., '99
 Walrath, M. H., N. Y., '96
 Walsh, J. H., N. Y., '95
 Walter, Mary, Ohio, '98
 Walter, Sarah J., Conn., '98
 Walton, Geo. A., Mass., '92
 Ward, Edw. G., N. Y., '99
 Ward, Henry B., Neb., '99
 Ward Seminary, Tenn., '99
 Wardlaw, P., S. C., 1900
 Ware, N. E., Ga., '96
 Warfield, Wm. C., Ohio, 1900
 Waring, J. H. N., Md., '98
 Warner, A. B., Iowa, '94
 Warner, Chas. F., Mass., '99
 Warr, J. W., Ill., '95
 Warriner, E. C., Mich., '99
 Washburn, Kirk N., Mass., '96
 Washburne, Marion F., Ill., 1900
 Washington State Nor. Sch., '99
 Waterbury, R. A., Wis., '96
 Waterhouse, A. H., Neb., '96
 Waterman, Richard, Ill., '96

- Watson, Edith M., Wis., '97
 Watt, W. E., Ill., '95
 Weaver, E. W., Pa., '97
 Weaver, John S., Ohio, '99
 Weaver, Sterrie A., Mass., 1900
 Webb, Louis K., Cal., '99
 Weber, A. W., Wis., '97
 Weber, H. C., Tenn., '97
 Webster, E. E., Mich., '99
 Webster, Geo. W., Ill., '99
 Webster, R. H., Cal., '99
 Webster, W. F., Minn., '96
 Weeks, C. W., Ill., '95
 Weld, Frank A., Minn., '95
 Weldon, Edw., Pa., '98
 Wellers, Meta, Ill., '99
 Welles, Frank E., N. Y., '95
 Welsh, J. P., Pa., '96
 Wentz, Etta L., N. Y., '96
 Wernick, E. V., Wis., '95
 Wescott, F. H., Ill., '97
 West, Andrew F., N. J., '99
 Westcott, Edith, D. C., '98
 Westcott, O. S., Ill., '95
 Western, The, Ohio, '99
 Westervelt, Z. F., N. Y., '97
 Westfall, Mary B., Ohio, '97
 West Virginia Univ., '99
 Wheatley, Emma, Neb., '95
 Wheaton Coll., Ill., '99
 Wheeler, Henry N., Mass., '92
 Wheeler, Willard J., Ala., 1900
 Wheelock, Chas. F., N. Y., '95
 Whipple, H. A., Wis., '97
 Whitcomb, Arthur K., Mass., '92
 White, Chas. G., Mich., '95
 White, Daniel A., Ill., '95
 White, Daniel H., Cal., '99
 White, Emerson E., Ohio, '70
 White, Fred. C., N. Y., '99
 White, H. C., Ga., '96
 White, J. T., Md., '98
 White, J. U., Mo., '87
 White, Wm. M., Ohio, '96
 White, W. S., Mich., '97
 White, W. T., Tenn., '89
 Whiteford, J. A., Mo., '95
 Whitehill, Miss O. P., N. Mex., '99
 Whitfield, H. L., Miss., 1900
 Whitford, Wm. C., Wis., '84
 Whirling, M. M., Cal., '99
 Whitney, Allen S., Mich., '94
 Whitney, M. A., Ill., '91
 Whitney, O. C., Wash., '98
 Whitney, S. Emory, Mich., '93
 Whitsett, W. T., N. C., 1900
 Whittemore, Henry, Mass., '95
 Whittle, W. R., R. I., '96
 Wiard, Louise A., Ky., '96
 Wicks, John F., Ill., '99
 Wicks, M. B., Pa., '99
 Widner, Esther A., Ohio, '80
 Wiggs, Mrs. W. H., Ga., 1900
 Wilcox, Albert H., N. Y., 1900
 Wilcox, Jessie B., Wash., '99
 Wiley, Wm. H., Ind., '96
 Wilkins, A. H., Tex., '94
 Wilkinson, E. W., Ohio, 1900
 Wilkinson, J. J., Ill., '96
 Wilkinson, N., Kan., '84
 Wilkinson, Warring, Cal., '99
 Willard, F. E., Iowa, '96
 Williams, Anna L., Cal., '99
 Williams Coll. Lib'y, Mass., '97
 Williams, Mrs. Delia, Ohio, '70
 Williams, H. B., Ohio, 1900
 Williams, J. D., Ill., '96
 Williams, L. W., R. I., '98
 Williams, M. Ida, Cal., '99
 Williams, Philo J., Kan., '86
 Williams, Sherman, N. Y., '98
 Williams, Thyrsa C., N. J., '97
 Williams, Wm. H., Wis., '97
 Williams, Wm. J., Neb., '95
 Williamson, J. E., Iowa, '95
 Willis, D. M., W. Va., '95
 Willis, H. B., N. J., '92
 Willis, W. A., Iowa, '84
 Wilson, C. B., Mass., '96
 Wilson, Eugene A., Mich., '99
 Wilson, Harry G., Ill., '95
 Wilson, H. E., Ariz., '95
 Wilson, J. Alfred, N. J., '99
 Wilson, J. Ormond, D. C., '80
 Wilson, M. C., Ala., 1900
 Wilson, Mrs. L. L. W., Pa., '99
 Wilson, V. L., Iowa, '97
 Wilson, W. B., S. C., '99
 Wilson, Wm. E., Wash., '90
 Windate, Ida M., Ohio, '96
 Winde, Jas., N. Y., '92
 Winship, Albert E., Mass., '92
 Winston, Geo. T., N. C., '96
 Winters, T. H., Ohio, '97
 Winterburn, Rose V., Cal., '99
 Winthrop, Nor. Coll., S. C., '95
 Wirick, L. A., Kan., '97
 Wirt, Wm. A., Ind., 1900
 Wise, Henry A., Md., '85
 Wise, W. J., Colo., '95
 Witherspoon, Jas. H., Ark., '99
 Witmer, Chas. K., Pa., '94
 Witmer, Lightner, Pa., '98
 Witter, F. M., Iowa, '97
 Witter, J. C., N. Y., '98
 Wolfe, H. K., Neb., '96
 Wolfe, L. E., Kan., '90
 Woman's Coll., Md., '99
 Wood, Court F., D. C., '97
 Wood, Emory M., Kan., '89
 Wood, Jas. A., N. Mex., '97
 Wood, John A., Ind., '98
 Wood, O. M., Mo., '93
 Woodhull, J. F., N. Y., '99
 Woodley, O. I., Mich., '96
 Woodmansee, M. A., Ohio, '98
 Woods, Francis M., Ill., '96
 Woodward, C. M., Mo., '87
 Woodward, Eliz. J., Mass., '99
 Woodward, F. C., S. C., '99
 Woodward, J. C., Ga., '97
 Woody, H. G., Ind., '93
 Wooley, L. C., N. J., '93
 Wooster, Lizzie E., Kan., 1900
 Wright, A. M., N. Y., '93
 Wright, Anna J., Ohio, '94
 Wright, Edmund W., Vt., '89
 Wright, L. L., Mich., '96
 Wright, Lydia H., Ariz., '95
 Wright, R. R., Ga., 1900
 Wright, Wm. R., N. J., '92
 Wylie, Mrs. M. J. B., N. Y., '91
 Yates, Lydia A., N. C., '98
 Yerby, John D., Ala., '95
 Yoder, A. H., Ill., '96
 Young, J. B., Iowa, '96
 Young, J. S., Ohio, '95
 Young, Nathan B., Ga., '96
 Young, Robert G., Mont., '89
 Ziek, Mary, Iowa, '98
 Zillairo, Margaret C., Pa., '96
 Zimmerman, C. F. A., Wis., '95
 Zirkle, H. W., Colo., '98

CLASSIFIED MEMBERSHIP BY STATES
IN THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION
FOR THE YEAR 1900—(CHARLESTON MEETING)

STATE OR TERRITORY	ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP					Associate Membership	Total Membership
	Life Directors	Life Members	Former Active Members	New Active Members	Total Active Membership		
Total.....	34	132	1,848	308	2,322	2,319	4,641
North Atlantic Division.....	12	22	521	61	616	167	783
South Atlantic Division.....	3	9	137	57	206	975	1,181
South Central Division.....	3	3	108	27	141	273	414
North Central Division.....	14	86	822	145	1,067	836	1,903
Western Division.....	2	12	255	17	286	68	354
Foreign.....			5	1	6		6
North Atlantic Division—							
Maine.....	1		9		10	2	12
New Hampshire.....		1	2		3	2	5
Vermont.....		1	3	4	8		8
Massachusetts.....	1	2	101	10	114	25	139
Rhode Island.....	1		17		18		18
Connecticut.....			17	1	18	6	24
New York.....	6	12	216	23	257	70	327
New Jersey.....	1		66	6	73	20	93
Pennsylvania.....	2	6	90	17	115	42	157
South Atlantic Division—							
Delaware.....			3		3	1	4
Maryland.....		1	21	6	28	53	81
District of Columbia.....	2	3	37	1	43	14	57
Virginia.....			11	6	17	21	38
West Virginia.....	1	1	11	1	14	4	18
North Carolina.....		2	13	9	24	48	72
South Carolina.....		1	10	17	28	663	691
Georgia.....		1	22	10	33	112	145
Florida.....			5	7	12	59	71
Porto Rico.....			4		4		4
South Central Division—							
Kentucky.....	1	2	22	2	27	41	68
Tennessee.....	2	1	10	10	23	73	96
Alabama.....			15	7	22	52	74
Mississippi.....			10	1	11	16	27
Louisiana.....			11	1	12	14	26
Texas.....			16	2	18	37	55
Arkansas.....			18	3	21	25	46
Oklahoma.....			6	1	7	14	21
Indian Territory.....						1	1
North Central Division—							
Ohio.....	2	14	133	30	179	107	286
Indiana.....		2	70	14	86	87	173
Illinois.....	5	7	221	44	277	280	557
Michigan.....	2		63	16	81	20	110
Wisconsin.....		34	78	11	123	64	187
Iowa.....		2	50	1	53	29	82
Minnesota.....	1	2	63	4	70	91	121
Missouri.....	2	3	58	7	70	96	166
North Dakota.....			13	1	14	2	16
South Dakota.....			15	2	17	13	30
Nebraska.....		2	28	9	39	47	86
Kansas.....	2	20	30	6	58	31	89
Western Division—							
Montana.....			14	2	16	8	24
Wyoming.....			5	1	6	1	7
Colorado.....	1	1	42	3	47	18	65
New Mexico.....			13	1	14	4	18
Arizona.....			12	1	13	6	19
Utah.....			7		7	1	8
Nevada.....			3		3		3
Idaho.....			4		4	7	11
Washington.....		2	15	2	19	2	21
Oregon.....	1	1	7	2	11	2	13
California.....		8	126	3	137	19	156
Alaska.....			1		1		1
Hawaii.....			4	1	5		5
Philippine Islands.....			2	1	3		3
Foreign.....			5	1	6		6

RECORD OF MEMBERSHIP BY STATES IN THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

FOR EACH YEAR FROM 1884-1900, INCLUSIVE

Excepting for 1893, when no regular meeting was held. Heavier numbers show membership from the state in which the meeting for the year was held.

STATE OR TERRITORY	Madison	Saratoga	Topeka	Chicago	San Francisco	Nashville	St. Paul	Toronto	Saratoga	Asbury Park	Denver	Buffalo	Milwaukee	Washington	Los Angeles	Charleston	Total	Average Membership
	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900		
Total.....	2,729	625	1,197	9,115	7,216	1,984	5,474	4,778	3,360	5,915	11,207	9,072	7,111	10,533	13,656	4,641	98,703	6,169
N. Atlantic Div....	792	406	386	773	803	101	795	426	1,187	1,711	1,462	2,940	942	1,492	1,877	783	16,876	1,055
S. Atlantic Div....	77	16	31	44	113	128	95	151	309	271	289	237	172	1,146	361	1,181	4,621	289
S. Central Div....	111	19	47	370	214	674	261	417	253	460	809	419	304	1,588	818	414	7,607	475
N. Central Div....	1,712	176	708	7,071	1,074	642	4,156	2,933	1,456	3,357	7,211	5,083	5,135	5,882	5,074	1,093	54,353	3,397
Western Div....	26	7	25	102	4,974	38	122	196	104	73	1,403	377	366	412	5,487	354	14,066	879
Foreign.....	11	1	..	155	36	1	45	655	51	43	33	16	12	13	39	6	1,117	69
N. Atlantic Div.																		
Maine.....	21	2	5	25	11	..	32	30	10	5	24	7	7	10	16	12	217	14
N. Hampshire.....	64	6	10	23	11	..	32	9	5	7	27	8	6	6	14	5	233	15
Vermont.....	43	8	3	41	4	..	40	4	20	4	13	14	15	11	11	8	239	15
Massachusetts.....	310	145	85	277	206	28	290	114	212	52	191	197	159	159	294	139	2,858	179
Rhode Island.....	50	13	13	29	30	4	31	42	23	12	55	35	23	36	50	18	454	28
Connecticut.....	40	18	23	36	48	4	31	18	63	13	26	43	24	31	46	24	478	29
New York.....	143	159	91	211	210	29	228	117	611	369	561	2,132	411	509	756	327	6,784	424
New Jersey.....	40	27	35	23	41	13	12	16	65	969	168	179	110	172	154	93	1,945	122
Pennsylvania.....	81	28	121	108	242	23	99	76	178	323	437	325	187	558	536	157	3,479	217
S. Atlantic Div.																		
Delaware.....	1	..	4	..	3	1	2	5	6	8	17	11	8	9	9	4	88	5
Maryland.....	5	..	10	8	17	3	7	13	49	45	53	23	31	80	50	81	476	30
District of Col.....	30	1	7	12	32	13	21	10	35	24	47	29	57	382	99	57	859	54
Virginia.....	6	4	3	2	18	12	2	8	2	24	36	21	10	63	22	38	270	17
West Virginia.....	15	3	3	8	6	6	27	49	20	37	49	52	16	129	29	18	466	29
N. Carolina.....	3	2	..	2	8	12	2	13	17	15	5	14	4	76	27	72	264	17
S. Carolina.....	5	4	1	2	13	22	4	18	14	52	1	31	7	92	22	691	976	61
Georgia.....	11	1	2	10	16	43	23	31	163	64	62	43	30	261	87	145	992	62
Florida.....	1	1	1	..	16	7	4	3	2	19	13	9	54	16	71	216	14	14
Porto Rico.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	4	6	..
S. Central Div.																		
Kentucky.....	33	2	8	151	22	114	39	57	42	128	176	77	98	408	136	68	1,567	98
Tennessee.....	12	6	5	62	83	607	97	124	57	124	66	57	25	248	113	96	1,782	111
Alabama.....	9	1	1	16	45	123	35	79	51	41	59	25	22	229	69	74	898	56
Mississippi.....	7	1	2	7	10	87	44	42	36	20	49	25	19	100	65	27	541	34
Louisiana.....	3	7	8	11	7	19	13	25	21	35	108	25	42	146	60	26	556	35
Texas.....	22	1	15	55	29	89	20	53	9	82	204	99	41	257	221	55	1,342	84
Arkansas.....	22	..	8	67	12	29	12	34	33	25	84	63	41	132	96	46	701	44
Oklahoma.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	58	14	11	60	47	21	125	14
Indian T'y.....	3	1	..	1	8	6	1	3	4	1	23	..	2	7	11	1	72	5
N. Central Div.																		
Ohio.....	121	43	67	581	225	60	361	355	178	990	592	565	357	1,313	580	286	6,674	417
Indiana.....	54	15	46	418	71	89	206	149	65	258	321	250	205	591	354	173	3,265	204
Illinois.....	354	33	164	1,750	222	204	625	666	214	871	1,495	1,174	785	1,340	1,216	557	11,668	729
Michigan.....	77	12	20	273	40	29	137	259	285	155	204	589	327	379	196	110	3,092	193
Wisconsin.....	546	18	18	486	57	28	443	222	72	143	188	413	1,871	361	287	187	5,338	333
Iowa.....	304	18	87	1,146	96	67	572	278	110	164	1,086	578	543	383	593	82	6,107	382
Minnesota.....	132	9	11	649	58	67	933	118	54	86	193	303	333	164	267	121	3,447	215
Missouri.....	46	11	73	625	133	68	249	320	189	435	1,113	406	285	795	673	166	5,587	349
North Dakota.....	23	1	5	149	8	7	99	32	16	8	28	34	53	26	38	16	330	22
South Dakota.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	109	31	20	9	78	83	118	45	86	30	609	38
Nebraska.....	39	5	27	634	40	10	147	220	126	127	742	363	251	103	331	86	3,251	203
Kansas.....	16	11	190	960	124	64	275	283	127	111	1,171	325	187	382	453	89	4,768	298
Western Div.																		
Montana.....	3	1	1	9	4	5	37	24	9	3	15	43	78	20	70	24	346	22
Wyoming.....	1	2	2	8	8	..	5	13	4	2	48	7	10	8	13	7	140	9
Colorado.....	12	2	11	40	109	8	56	114	59	58	1,136	177	145	196	465	65	2,653	166
New Mexico.....	..	..	..	2	26	2	1	7	5	..	26	16	21	27	90	18	241	15
Arizona.....	..	..	..	1	45	1	1	..	2	2	11	6	6	21	158	19	273	17
Utah.....	..	1	3	4	127	..	..	10	8	4	89	37	22	25	106	8	444	28
Nevada.....	1	..	1	6	134	..	1	..	..	..	2	5	3	2	49	3	207	13
Idaho.....	..	..	1	..	12	..	..	..	1	1	3	10	6	3	32	11	80	5
Washington.....	1	..	1	3	27	1	6	18	1	2	6	16	8	12	56	20	178	11
Oregon.....	3	1	1	11	204	8	7	5	..	..	14	9	7	10	79	13	377	24
California.....	5	..	4	18	4,278	13	8	5	10	1	53	51	56	87	4,357	156	9,102	569
Alaska.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	2	..
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IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary*,
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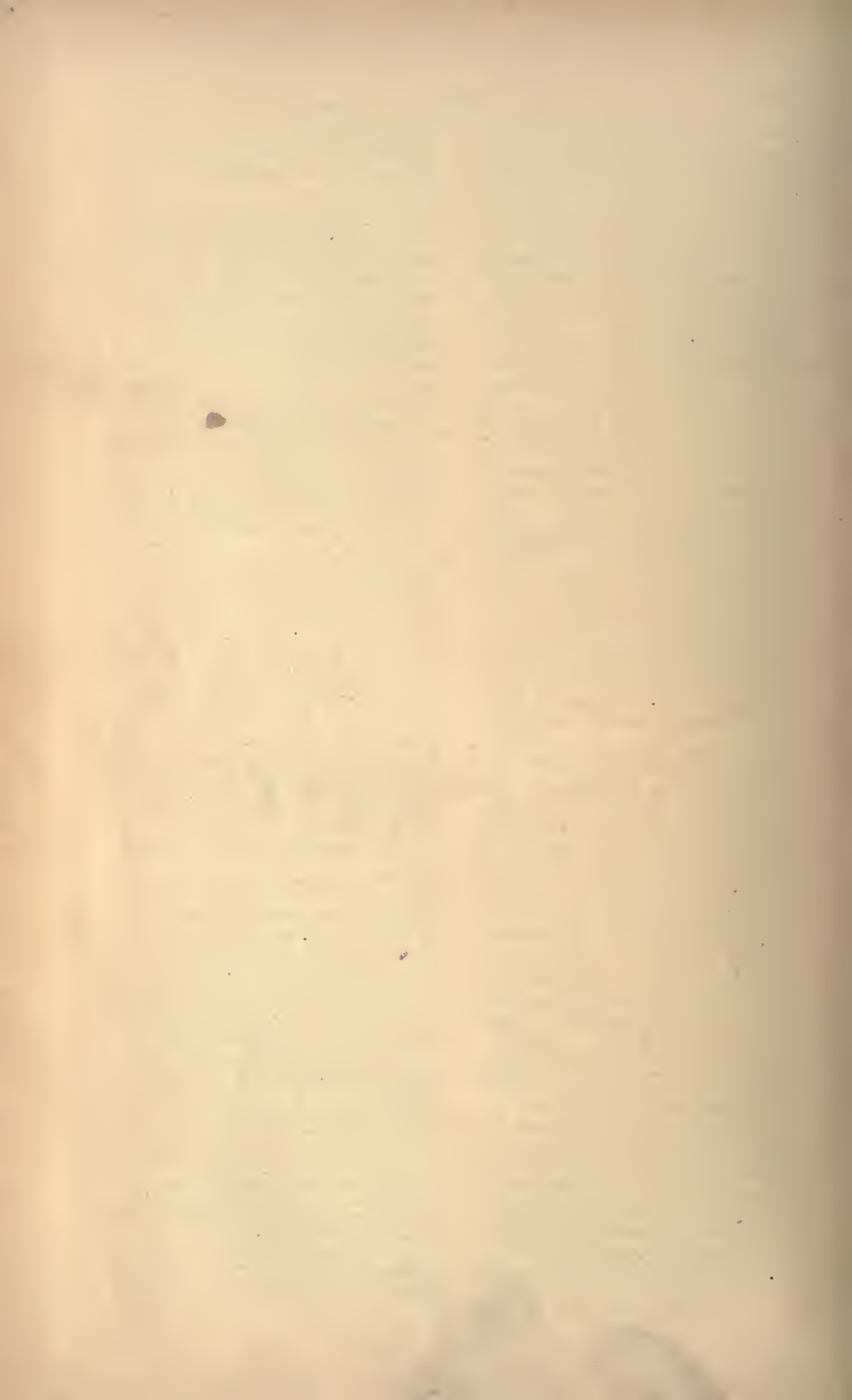
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